

Sex Disaggregated Statistics Report



Sex Disaggregated Statistics

Country Profile

Final

Network of Ethiopian women's Associations (NEWNA)

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AgSS	Agricultural Supply Survey
<i>AIR</i>	<i>Apparent Intake Rate</i>
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women
CSA	Central Statistics Agency
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
ESDP	Education Sustainable Development Program
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GER	Gross enrollment rate
GoE	Government of Ethiopia
HTPs	Harmful Traditional Practices
MoE	Minister of Education
MoH	Minister of Health
NER	Net enrolment rate
<i>NIR</i>	<i>Net Intake Rate</i>
NGO	Non –Governmental organization
UEUS	Urban Employment Unemployment Survey
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
NEWA	Network of Ethiopia women association
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
MoE	Ministry of Education

Chapter One

1.1 Background of the study

Network of Ethiopia women association (NEWA) is an umbrella of organizations and associations working for women empowerment and gender equality. Ethiopian women have not been equal beneficiaries of economic, social, and political opportunities due to the socially constructed wrong perceptions and behaviors that are practiced by the society, that are discriminating women. To challenge gender inequality and ensure women gain their rightful place in society, the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia's Constitution stipulates the enjoyment of equal rights and protections for both women and men. In addition, the revised Federal Criminal Code and Regional Family Law of Ethiopia identify the urgency of tackling gender-based violence, including child marriage and harmful traditional practices. Such measures aim to give special attention to women to enable them to compete and participate equally with men in political, social, and economic life.

However, much needs to be done to turn the promising conditions created by political commitment into reality. Gender equality and women's empowerment is an important issue that must be mainstreamed across all development policies, plans, and programs to build a gender-equal society. Despite apparent implementation gaps and slow-paced change, over the past decades Ethiopia has been able to make some encouraging strides in the political, economic, and social spheres and gender equality. In this regard, the following changes has been observed.

- *Women's participation in politics and decision-making power has increased.*
- *Women's asset ownership has risen.*
- *Women's access to education and health facilities has improved. Harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation, abduction, and early marriage have decreased.*

Reliable sex disaggregated statistics are a fundamental tool for evidence-based decision-making, planning, and monitoring of efforts that can ensure gender equality. Women and men have different needs, and access to and control over resources and gender statistics capture the specific realities in women's and men's lives, and it should go well beyond sex-disaggregation.

National statistics that do not reflect these differences are insufficient and potentially misleading. Thus, sex-disaggregated data is crucial to mainstream gender in every sector to promote gender equality and to track the efforts of Government and NGOs including NEWA and member organizations. It is important also to do evidence and need based planning and interventions by all relevant development actors.

Therefore, this sex-disaggregated data was captured from different national studies, and reports to make it accessible and usable for development organizations to provide an input data for planning, to track the progress of women empowerment and gender equality efforts, and to do evidence-based advocacy. The study is commissioned by the Network of Ethiopian women's Associations and compiled by MAE Consulting PLC.

1.2 Rational of Sex disaggregated data

The global announcement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and their supporting indicators provides an opportunity to improve vulnerable women and girls' well-being and empowerment. Data will be needed to hold people accountable for progress during the SDG era, but data is scarce or non-existent for two-thirds of the SDG indicators that affect women; even when data is available, it is not always used or made available in user-friendly formats - so-called "open data." Despite this, girls and women around the world continue to face prejudice and disadvantages.

Without achieving women's empowerment, all of the SDGs will be unattainable. Goal 5 calls for gender equality and the abolition of all forms of discrimination against women and girls, and it will be impossible to achieve this goal without

comprehensive sex-disaggregated statistics that can be used to track progress in each sector. The SDGs will be impossible to achieve if gender discrimination and norms persist in many parts of the world, relegating girls to a lower status within society and within their own families, leaving them exposed to exploitation and violence, such as human trafficking and sexual assault.

The recognition of men and women's equality is a prerequisite for effective and long-term development. We're missing out on half of the world's population if we don't have gender statistics.

Thus, this sex-disaggregated statistics helps the facilitation of gender-aware country strategies, policy and program development, as well as policy dialogue. It provides the comparative status of women and men with reference to poverty and other economic, political, legal, socio-economic, and socio-cultural factors. It fosters policymaking, accountability, advocacy, and academic research for ensuring gender equality in the country. Figure 1.1 below show the outcome of SDG5.

Figure 1. 1: SDG 5: Achieve Gender Equity



Thus, the document would serve as a resource to the development of different organizations working on gender equality and women empowerment in Ethiopia.

1.3 The Objective of the Gender statistics Data Mining

The basic purpose of this report is to produce gender statistics and present a comprehensive summary of the gender data to highlight the progress and/or disparities in gender equality in Ethiopia. Therefore, the assignment aims at searching and compiling the sex-disaggregated data from the national reports, research, and other available documents report the key gender indicators on economic, social, political, and health sectors to help identify gender disparities between women and men at national and regional levels in Ethiopia.

Specific objectives of the study include:

- *To organize secondary sex-disaggregated data or statistics that shows women's economic, social, political, and political/legal status of Ethiopian women*
- *To compile gender-specific national and regional data and provide a concise review and summary of gender statistics that show Ethiopian women's current economic, social, legal, and political status and the gaps in advancing gender equality in Ethiopia.*
- *To show and provide an analytical report on the key indicators of gender equality and women empowerment and poverty reduction, welfare, social protection, and service delivery dimensions.*

1.4 Approach and Methodology

The data collection approaches used for producing this sex-disaggregated statistics was desk research, where the secondary data was collected and compiled from census/survey datasets, reports, and statistical bulletins. The major sources of the data are Central Statistics Agency (CSA), sector ministries (Agriculture, education, health), and other published sources.

1.5 Coverage of the Gender Statistics

This sex-disaggregated statistical report will give a clear picture about the progress, gaps, and existing challenges facing women and men. In line with the national development priorities, this gender statistics complied focusing on the following sectors:

- *Education*
- *Demography and Health*
- *Agriculture,*
- *Manufacturing industries*
- *Employment in the formal and informal sector*
- *Women empowerment and violence against Women, and*
- *Women Participation in Decision-making*

Chapter Two

Gender Equality Efforts in Ethiopia

2.1 Introduction

As per the 2021 world population projection, Ethiopia has a 116,772,749 population, with women making up 58,323,961 (49.97%) of the Ethiopian population¹. Consequently, Ethiopia has a huge population, and it is 12th in the world and 2nd in Africa.

Like other developing countries, gender-based violence practices against women in Ethiopia have their roots in the gender inequalities between men and women. Although violence against women has begun to receive more attention nationally over the last two decades, it is still mostly hidden. According to UNECA and ACGS (2010), there are several reasons, including the predominance of the patriarchal system, the acceptance of violence against women as the cultural norm, the stigma attached to female victims of violence, and the very low rate of responding by female victims of violence.

In Ethiopia, the government has been committed to the achievement of gender equality. The Ethiopian Constitution (1995), Article 25 clearly stipulates women's rights, and Article 35 states that women have the right to equality with men and can engage in all activities related to economic development, social development, and the political sector. The Women's Policy of Ethiopia reiterates the government's commitment to gender equality. Further, the revised Federal Criminal Code in 2005 and the revised Family Law support measures against different forms of gender-based violence, including child marriage and female genital cutting. In addition, the national poverty reduction strategy has included addressing gender inequality as one of its eight pillars (CSO, 2018; UN Women, 2016).

¹ <https://populationstat.com/ethiopia/>

The government has also put in place the requisite institutional mechanisms at federal and regional levels, including the establishment of (1) The Ministry of Women and Children Affairs Offices, (2) Child and Women Protection Units within the various police units, and (3) a Special Bench for violence against women cases within the federal criminal court. Though this entire instrument to reduce gender-based violence is available in the country, the prevalence of violence against women and children is very high (UN Women 2016).

Ethiopia has also ratified many of the international and continental agreements that promote and protect women's rights. Among these are the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Protocol to the African Charter on Women's Rights in Africa.

2.2 The Gender Issue and Theoretical Discourse

Gender refers to social, cultural, and psychological traits linked to males and females through particular social contexts. It differs from sex in that it is achieved and not ascribed (Wharton, 2011). As Kay Bussey & Albert Bandura, (1999) described, gender is considered as socially constructed because many of the traits and roles promoted in males and females tend to be differentially valued in society, with males generally being regarded as more desirable effectual, and of higher status.

Society defines how women and men hold positions of power; how they access public resources and private assets in wider society; how they make decisions on sources of livelihood, mobility, and places of residence, marriage and partnerships, family planning, reproduction, and sexuality; how they divide labor within the household; and the nature and extent of personal ambitions (UN WOMEN, 2014).

As to how different perspectives explain gender conception, gender is due to the physiological role of males and females in reproduction from the biological point of view. On the other hand, the psychological perspective focuses on intra-psychic processes governing gender development, i.e., adoption of gender roles within the

family through the process of identification, and the social-cognitive view puts gender as conceptions and role behavior as the products of a broad network of social influences from families to broader societal institutions (Kay Bussey & Albert Bandura, 1999).

2.2.1. Sociological Perspectives

Sociologically there are three classical perspectives, functionalist (structural functionalism), conflict, and symbolic interactionism, with the previous two being macro and the last micro explanations of social phenomenon. Functionalists see the gender issue as to keep the social equilibrium; harmonized men and women should assume their non-overlapping roles with males in the instrumental role providing and linking the family to the outside) and females in the expressive role (emotional support, nurturing, and household chores) (Macionis & Gerber, 2010).

On the contrary, the conflict perspective perceives gender as being an unjust relationship between the sexes where the male dominates the power share and conflict puts economic factors as the source of this unbalance; when women gain economic strength by (Macionis & Gerber, 2010; Stepnisky & Ritzer, 2013).

Finding its root in the conflict theory (Wharton, 2011), the other major theoretical perspective in gender is feminist theory. Within this perspective, few variations have been formed with a similar end but different means. The feminist theory looks for macro and micro natures of the gender issue and links gender inequality with other inequalities in race and class. For instance, in explaining poverty through the gender lens, in what is now being referred to by the literature as the 'feminization of poverty, which is about women being at a higher risk of being poor than men, and the concordant racial and class disadvantages (Wharton, 2011).

As to the forms of feminist theory, liberal feminists are more interested in reform and not a complete restructure of the societal system. However, incorporation of women's needs, interests as well as rights for a meaningful and equitable role should

be considered. Socialist feminists more or less reflect a conflict perspective where economic security is claimed to be the reason for the inequality. Radical feminists, on the other hand, credit male domination to be the real source of institutional inequality, whether in a capitalist or socialist society, and as a solution, this approach advocates for the formation of separate institutions which are women-centered (Dunn, Almaquist, & Chaperz, 1993).

2.2.2. Enabling Policy Environment

The Ethiopian government has recognized the critical role women's empowerment plays in achieving its development goals and has instituted various legal and policy reforms. Major instruments for gender equality include the constitutional provision made to tackle gender-based discrimination and to guarantee of equal rights to women; reforms to the penal code, particularly the family laws; affirmative action policies across economic, educational, and political settings; the ratification of international women's, children's and human rights treaties; and various civil service reforms.

Ethiopia is a party to international instruments upholding gender equality and the rights of women and girls, including the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BDPFA), and the Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol). The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) Constitution of 1995 has enshrined constitutional principles that guarantee the equality of women and men in all areas of life and has pioneered the introduction of special measures that are required to accelerate the achievement of gender equality. Since Ethiopia's adoption of international human rights standards and the BDPFA, a number of measures have been introduced to create an enabling environment for the advancement of women and girls. Important gains have been made towards achieving the formal equality of women through the reform of several laws, including family law, labor law, pension law, and criminal law. Gender equality and women's empowerment have also featured in the nation's development and poverty reduction

policies and strategies. Several institutional arrangements and valuable measures have been introduced to operationalize the commitments made at the national and international levels.

2.2.3. The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

Adopted in 1994, Ethiopia's constitution espouses the equality of men and women in the social, legal, economic, social, and political realms. Article 6 grants equal citizenship rights to men and women. Article 7 states that whatever applies to "the masculine gender shall also apply to the feminine gender." Article 25 sanctions the rights of people before the law and prohibits sex-based discrimination. Article 33 addresses citizenship and marriage, guaranteeing women who marry non-nationals their Ethiopian citizenship. Article 34 also addresses marriage rights, affirming women's equal rights during marriage, divorce, and decision-making during the marriage. In Article 35, the constitution goes even further, specifically providing a comprehensive list of women's rights: it ensures women's equal rights to men, mandates affirmative action as a remedy for historical discrimination against women, and explicates the state's obligation to eliminate traditional customs that harm women's minds or bodies.

Additionally, the constitution guarantees fully paid maternal leave, including prenatal leave as part of women's rights to family planning, education, and access. Furthermore, women have full rights as participants in formulating development policies, especially in projects that affect their interests. This article also sanctioned property rights, permitting women full rights in acquiring, administering, controlling, using, transferring, and inheriting property on the same grounds as men. In the realm of employment, Article 35 also addresses women's rights in hiring, promotion, pay, and the transfer of pensions. Similarly, Article 42 underscores their equal right to equal work. Article 38 addresses women's political rights, including their voting rights.

These laws have also found traction in practice, especially in Tigray, Amhara, Oromiya, SNNP, and Benishangul-Gumuz regions. Despite the tremendous studies the Ethiopian Constitution has enabled in the march toward gender equality, it is still fraught with limitations. For instance, it overly empowers religious and customary laws as arbiters of family matters such as divorce and inheritance. Article 34's provision allows disputing parties to choose customary and religious courts if both agree undermines women's constitutional protection. Women are often under cultural and religious pressure to pursue the religious and customary courts that tend to uphold patriarchal values. Furthermore, when women's cases end up in the legal courts, they are met with challenges from the religious courts. That legislative power rests with the regional governments are also a problem for gender equity, as it leads to family laws that subjugate women and are in effect unconstitutional. For instance, the regional government of Oromiya had affirmed polygamy in its draft of family law, which it retracted only after women leaders and NGOs mounted an opposition.

2.2.4. Revised Family Law of Ethiopia

Ethiopia has revised many of its penal codes in order to redress gender-based legal discrimination. It revised the Family Law in 2000 by order of Proclamation No. 213 (2000), overturning the discriminatory Civil Code of 1960. The 1960 code permitted marriage at age 15, mandated that women live at their spouses' homes, and declared the husband the head of the family. It also naturalized gender hierarchy by stating that a wife "owes [her husband] obedience on all lawful things which he orders" (635:2), that "the husband was to give protection to his wife" (Article 644:1), and that the husband "watch over [the wife's] relations and guide her in her conduct" (Article 644: 2).

The 2000 revised family law raised the legal age of marriage to 18, ensured women's equal rights in selecting their family residence, and granted them equal footing in family administration and in decisions about family property. It removed divorce and property settlement powers from the cultural family arbitration systems and restored those powers to the courts of law, and it added provisions protecting women in

common-law marriages, granting them spousal property rights if they resided with their partners for three years or longer. Citizenship laws that relegated women to second-class citizenship have similarly been amended. For instance, the law no longer permits the denial of citizenship to Ethiopian women married to foreigners and their children.

2.2.5. Revised Penal Code of 1957

In 2004, Ethiopia amended the Penal code of 1957 to further protect women's rights, particularly attending to the issue of violence against them. The new code made sexual violence against women and minors punishable by law. It also outlawed Harmful Traditional Practices (HTPs) such as female genital mutilation (FGM), including the most extreme forms of the practice, punishable by six months imprisonment. It also prescribed early marriage and abductions, practices to which women and girls are especially vulnerable.

Despite these changes, the penal code has still faced criticism for its lack of provisions against domestic violence. There are, for example, no clear laws that grant restraining orders through court orders, and the absence of comprehensive anti-violence laws dissuades law enforcement from pursuing incidents of violence within marriage and cohabitation on the premise that there are no clear legal provisions.

2.2.6. Affirmative Action Policy

The Ethiopian Constitution enshrines affirmative action for women, declaring in Article 35(3), “[t]he historical legacy of inequality and discrimination suffered by women in Ethiopia taken into account, women, in order to remedy this legacy, are entitled to affirmative measures. The purpose of such measures shall be to provide special attention to women so as to enable them to compete and participate on the basis of equality with men in political, social and economic life as well as in public and private institutions.” Article 89(7) also obligates the state to “ensure the participation of women inequality with men in all economic and social development endeavors.”

2.2.7. International Legal Instruments

The Ethiopian government is a signatory to most of the international instruments, including:

- *The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)*
- *The Beijing Platform for Action*
- *The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women*
- *The International Conference on Population and Development*

Other international legal tools ratified by Ethiopia include the International Labor Standards Conventions C100 Equal Remuneration, which guarantees equal remuneration and calls for ending workplace discrimination, and C111 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), which promotes the rights of working women as well as C156 Workers with Family Responsibilities. Ethiopia has also endorsed the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

2.2.8. Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP)II

The GTP was the Government of Ethiopia's main development plan for the period 2010–15. It aimed to implement the MDGs and to transform the country into a middle-income country by 2025 through the expansion of agricultural and rural development; industrial growth, infrastructure and human development; good governance; democratization; and the adoption of technology and an increased STEM capacity. It also introduced a new education target: a 70% science and mathematics enrollment rate at the tertiary education level as a way to cultivate a population capable of managing science and innovation systems effectively.

The GTP considers the promotion of women, youth, and other vulnerable groups a critical step in accomplishing its development goals. It emphasizes increasing female enrollment as well as the number of female teachers in education and ensures rural women's ability to participate in the economy by increasing extension services to

women farmers as well as providing resources to transition women from micro-entrepreneurship to small- and medium-scale business ownership and management. The GTP also plans to target women and youth to participate in non-farm income-generating activities and gives a clear directive to ensure the rights of women, children, and people living with HIV/AIDS. It also outlines plans to reduce the rate of abduction, early marriage, female genital mutilation, and sexual assault, labor abuse of children, and illegal child migration and trafficking.

In addition to explicating how women will be integrated into specific sectors such as health, education, and the economy, the GTP further devoted a chapter on what it called “Cross-Cutting Sectors,” which articulated specific ways gender and children’s issues intersect with various sectors and how the government will implement and monitor gender mainstreaming.

2.2.9. Sustainable Development Goals

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) or Global Goals are a collection of 17 interlinked global goals designed to be a *"blueprint for achieving a better and more sustainable future for all."*²The SDGs were set in 2015 by the United Nations General Assembly and are intended to be achieved by the year 2030. They are included in a UN Resolution called the 2030 Agenda or what is colloquially known as Agenda 2030.

As shown in Figure 2.1 below, the 17 SDGs are (1) No Poverty, (2) Zero Hunger, (3) Good Health and Well-being, (4) Quality Education, (5) Gender Equality, (6) Clean Water and Sanitation, (7) Affordable and Clean Energy, (8) Decent Work and Economic Growth, (9) Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, (10) Reducing Inequality, (11) Sustainable Cities and Communities, (12) Responsible Consumption

² United Nations (2017) Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 6 July 2017, Work of the Statistical Commission pertaining to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (A/RES/71/313 Archived 28 November 2020 at the Wayback Machine)

and Production, (13) Climate Action, (14) Life Below Water, (15) Life On Land, (16) Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions, (17) Partnerships for the Goals.

Figure 2.1: Sustainable Development Goal



Achieving gender equality and women's empowerment is integral to each of the 17 goals. It is only by ensuring the rights of women and girls across all the goals that women and girls will get justice and inclusion, economies that work for all, and sustaining our shared environment now and for future generations.

In Ethiopia, only 29.6% of indicators among 62 gender-specific SDG indicators to monitor the SDGs from a gender perspective are available, with gaps in key areas such as Key Labor Market indicators such as Gender Pay Gap, Skills in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and Women in Local Governments (UNICEF, 2016³). In addition, many areas such as gender and poverty, women's access to assets including land, physical and sexual harassment, and gender and the environment currently lack comparable methodologies for comprehensive and periodic monitoring. Addressing these gender data gaps is a prerequisite for understanding the situation of women and girls in Ethiopia and for achieving the gender-related SDGs commitments.

³ UNICEF Ethiopia and Ministry of Women, Children and Youth, Gender Equality, Women's Empowerment and Child Wellbeing in Ethiopia, 2016

The gender disaggregated data is compiled from different published and unpublished reports, and studies that foundational mapping of gender data gaps across five key areas of development: economic opportunities, health, education, political participation, and human security. The following table indicated to us that the key identified indicator for measuring the key varies.

2.3 Gender Data Aggregation Variable

Table 2. 1: key indicators for key sectors

Sector	Outcome	Indicators
Agriculture ; Rural Development	protection and care services Improved socioeconomic status and wellbeing for rural women, men, and families; Improved productivity for agricultural production and rural enterprises for both women and men	- Percentages of rural women receiving vocational education and training, - Share of women/men with land titles - Percentage of women producers benefitting from and participating in extension activities - Percentage of registered rural enterprises managed by women - Percentages of women in non-agricultural wage employment, disaggregated by age and socio-economic status - Percentage of women producers benefitting from and participating in extension activities - Percentage of registered rural enterprises managed by women - Percentages of women in non-agricultural wage employment, disaggregated by age and socio-economic status
School enrollment	Equitable school enrollment rates by socioeconomic grouping and sex; Improved status of girls and boys from poorer groups, in terms of education; Equitable shares of female and male	- Net enrollment ratios of girls and boys in primary, secondary, and tertiary education - Number of girls and boys completing their education - Number of girls and boys in vocational and technical education and training - Improved perceived gender-responsive content in the curriculum - The proportion of women and men teachers

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Sector	Outcome	Indicators
	teachers	
Health	Reduced infant, child, and maternal mortality and morbidity rates; Improved status and productivity of women through better health Water and Sanitation	• Number of women/men with access to and using reproductive health services; • Number of deliveries assisted by trained birth attendants. • Number of immunizations and vaccines provided to women and men • Maternal mortality rate /100,000 live births • Infant mortality rate/1000 live births • Under-5 mortality rate /1000 live births
Water and Sanitation	Reduced daily average time spent by women, girls, and boys on fetching water; Proportion of women in the management of water boards, water authorities, private operators, etc., increased.	• Access to safe water and incidence of water-borne and sanitation related diseases (diarrhea, dysentery, cholera); • The proportion of female and male-headed households with latrine; • Share of households with less than 1 kilometer's distance to a safe water source
Energy	Improved access to electricity by poor rural and urban households, Increased number of women having access to renewable energy supplies and non-polluting technologies, and Improved affordability for	• Access: number of poor households connected to energy services (number or percentage of poor households headed by women among them can also be monitored) • Affordability: number of poor households subsidized (or credit provided) for connection (number or percentage of poor households headed by women among them can also be monitored) • Energy and technology use: number of households adopting clean cook stoves and other workload-saving technologies • User knowledge: number and percentage of

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Sector	Outcome	Indicators
	poor households; (including those headed by women).	households familiar with efficient use of clean energy (with the percentage of training in which women participated) • Employment opportunities: number of jobs (by number of employees and days worked) generated for women by the project and percentage of total jobs generated by the project construction work • Number of women-owned or women-managed energy sector enterprises established or trained (and percentage of total) number and amount of microfinance or small- and medium-sized enterprise finance accessed by women for energy-based enterprises (and percentage of total) number of women receiving technical and skills development training provided to women (and percentage of total) • Percentage of women that participated in policy formulation public consultation meetings gender awareness training

Chapter Three

Education

3.1 Introduction

The general objectives of creating access to education are increasing preschool involvement and ensure better access, quality, equity & relevance of education; ensure primary education access for all school-aged children; based on market demand, producing quality middle level and higher-level skilled human resources as well as ensuring equity and expanding functional adult-oriented education to strengthen the country's overall development activities (MoE, 2019).

Education is at the center of the government's policies, and it must provide capable citizens with core literacy and numeracy skills and the middle- and higher-level capacities needed by the emerging productive sectors.

This chapter presents the analysis of gender differences with respect to educational attainment across different levels (primary, secondary, tertiary, TVET and tertiary level). A large volume of sex disaggregated statistics of the educational sector is published annually by the Ministry of Education (MoE), technical and higher education institutions, and CSA to understand trends across the different levels. For this analysis, data were obtained from the ministry of education (MoE), Central Statistics Agency (CSA), EMIS datasets, and various reports and research publications.

3.2. Key Indicators of Education Performance

Gross Enrolment Rate (GER), Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Apparent Intake Rate (AIR), and Net Intake Rate (NER) are the key indicators of the performance of the education system in any particular area.

Gross Enrollment Rate (GER): denotes total enrolment in a level or cycle of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage (sometimes exceeding 100%)

of the population in the officially defined school-age group for the level or cycle. The indicators reveal the performance of the education system in terms of coverage (MOE, 2019).

Net Enrollment Rate (NER): refers to the number of pupils in the official school-age group expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. The indicators reveal the performance of the education system in terms of coverage (MOE, 2019).

Apparent Intake Rate (AIR) and Net Intake Rate (NER):NER is used to measure the education system performance in terms of access to school. While AIR measures the percentage of new entrants (irrespective of the age) compared against the population of official school admission age (age of 7 in Ethiopia), NER only looks at those children who are of the correct age to enter grade 1 (MOE, 2019).

3.3. Education Access and Coverage Indicators

In this session, access and coverage of education disaggregated by sex is presented. The coverage is assessed based on the level of the education system of the country, i.e., early Childhood Care and Education, primary education, secondary education, and college education. The detail about the coverage and access measured using GER, NER, AIR, and NER at all levels is described below using sex and regionally disaggregated data.

3.3.1. Pre-school or pre-primary education

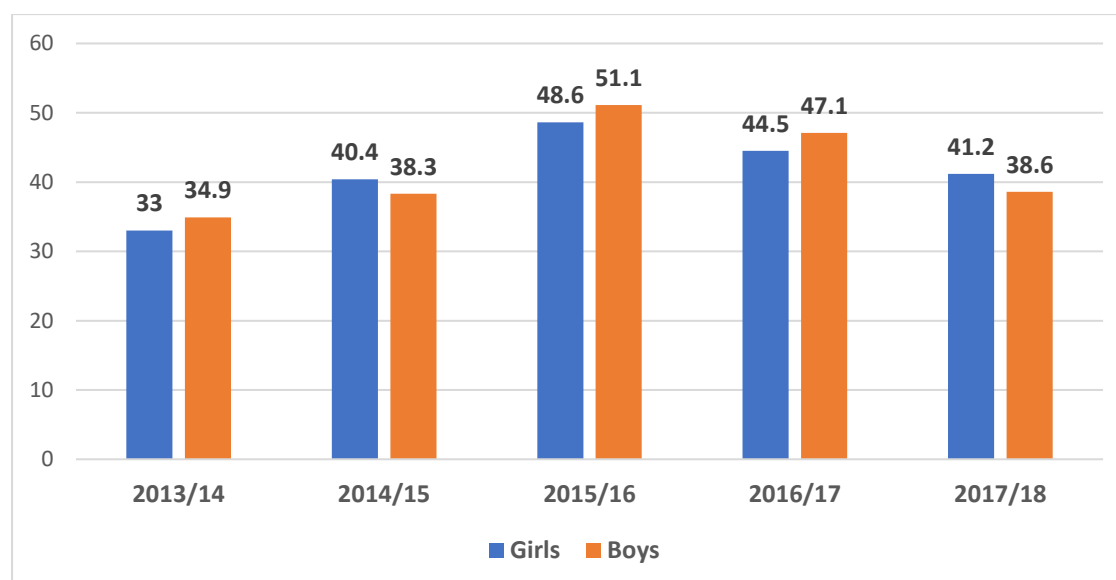
The Pre-school programs, also known as pre-primary education, are delivered through three modalities in Ethiopia: Kindergarten, non-formal pre-school service, and O-class (MOE, 2017/2018).

3.3.1.1. Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) at pre-primary education

The gross enrolment rate (GER) is calculated by dividing the total pre-primary enrolment by the predicted official pre-primary school-age population.

Figure 3.1 below shows the gross enrolment rate for pre-kindergarten (KG) education by sex for the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18). The result shows that, over four years (from 2013/14 to 2016/17), the gross enrolment rate for girls in pre-primary schools was lower than the enrolment rate for boys. By 2017/18, however, the gross enrolment rate for girls (41.2%) had surpassed that of boys (38.6%).

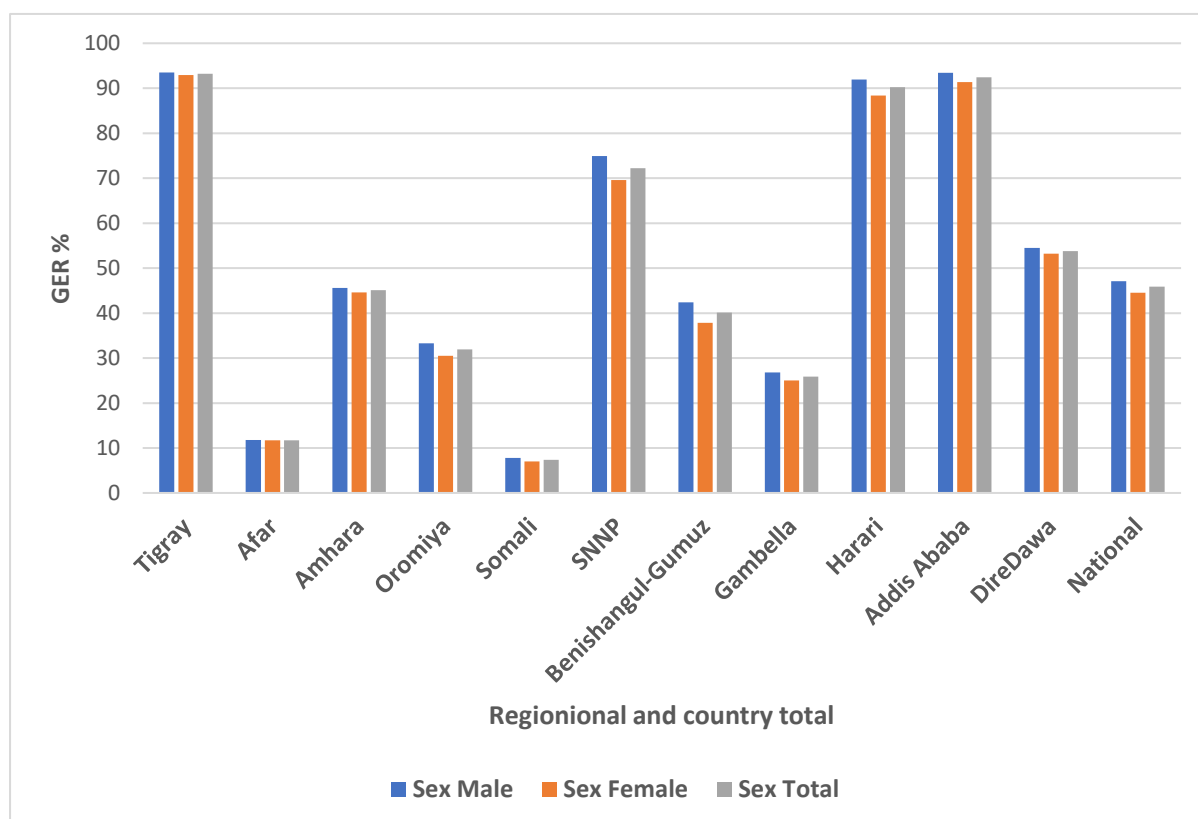
Figure 3. 1: Pre-primary (KG) GER by sex and years, Country Total



Source: MOE, 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

The statistics on student enrolment in each region are shown in Figure 3.2 below, including the official predicted population size. The data shows that pre-primary schooling has a Gender Parity Index of 0.94, implying the girl's enrolment is less than the boy's enrolment in primary education at country level. For instance, in 2016/17 GPI in Tigray, Harari, and Addis Ababa is above 0.9.

Figure 3. 2: GER of Pre-primary, 2009 E.C. (2016/17) by region



Source: Ministry of Education, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

As shown in *Table 3.1*, there are significant regional differences, with GERs of just 11.7% in Afar and 7.4% in -Somali region, respectively. Whereas over 90% of children aged 4-6 are enrolled in pre-primary school in Tigray, Addis Ababa, and Harari. The national gross enrolment rate for boys (47.1%) is greater than for girls (44.5%). By region, except Amhara and Afar, the GER of boys is higher than girls.

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Table 3. 1: Pre-primary School-Age Population (ages 4-6), Enrolment and GER by Region, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)

Region	Gross enrolment			Population age 4 - 6			GER %		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Fem ale	Total
Tigray	185,393	178,815	364,208	198,229	192,459	390,688	93.5	92.9	93.2
Afar	8,106	7,624	15,730	68,830	65,199	134,029	11.8	11.7	11.7
Amhara	403,245	380,509	783,754	883,539	852,987	1,736,526	45.6	44.6	45.1
Oromiya	514,860	461,746	976,606	1,544,731	1,514,279	3,059,010	33.3	30.5	31.9
Somali	20,047	17,692	37,739	258,455	252,677	511,132	7.8	7.0	7.4
SNNP	597,279	543,508	1,140,787	797,853	781,381	1,579,235	74.9	69.6	72.2
Benishang ul -Gumuz	18,519	15,976	34,495	43,725	42,274	85,999	42.4	37.8	40.1
Gambella	4,186	3,792	7,978	15,614	15,146	30,760	26.8	25.0	25.9
Harari	7,561	6,948	14,509	8,228	7,862	16,090	91.9	88.4	90.2
Addis Ababa	87,876	85,064	172,940	94,136	93,069	187,205	93.4	91.4	92.4
Dire Dawa	7,511	7,068	14,579	13,779	13,298	27,078	54.5	53.2	53.8
National	1,854,583	1,708,742	3,563,325	3,933,667	3,836,322	7,769,989	47.1	44.5	45.9

Source: Ministry of Education, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

Table 3.2 shows regional statistics by sex for the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18). Except for a few regions and reporting years, boys enroll in pre-primary (KG) classes is at a higher rate than girls. Furthermore, the gross enrolment rate for both sexes in the Tigray region is over 100% in 2015/16.

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Table 3. 2: Pre-primary (KG) GER by sex, region, and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girls	Boy
Country Total	33.0	34.9	38.3	40.4	48.6	51.1	44.5	47.1	41.2	38.6
Tigray	78.3	81.2	99.3	98.5	101.0	102.5	92.9	93.5	86.7	87.0
Afar	5.0	4.9	7.9	8.8	8.3	7.8	11.7	11.8	12.0	16.5
Amhara	41.3	42.4	40.5	41.6	51.5	53.1	44.6	45.6	48.6	44.7
Oromia	19.2	20.5	23.4	25.4	36.7	40.1	30.5	33.3	30.8	28.4
Somali	3.8	4.4	11.2	13.6	4.9	5.8	7.0	7.8	4.0	4.9
Benishangul-Gumuz	26.8	30.4	55.0	59.1	34.6	38.5	69.6	74.9	41.2	36.8
SNNP	44.6	48.6	36.4	39.8	68.6	71.3	37.8	42.4	70.9	65.5
Gambela	17.5	17.8	24.8	25.8	51.4	57.6	25.0	26.8	41.9	40.9
Harari	73.7	76.7	80.3	86.3	79.7	84.8	88.4	91.9	88.9	87.4
Addis Ababa	93.8	96.8	88.6	91.5	91.8	96.2	91.4	93.4	91.8	95.4
Dire Dawa	42.4	45.7	35.4	37.5	40.6	41.1	53.2	54.5	44.2	42.0

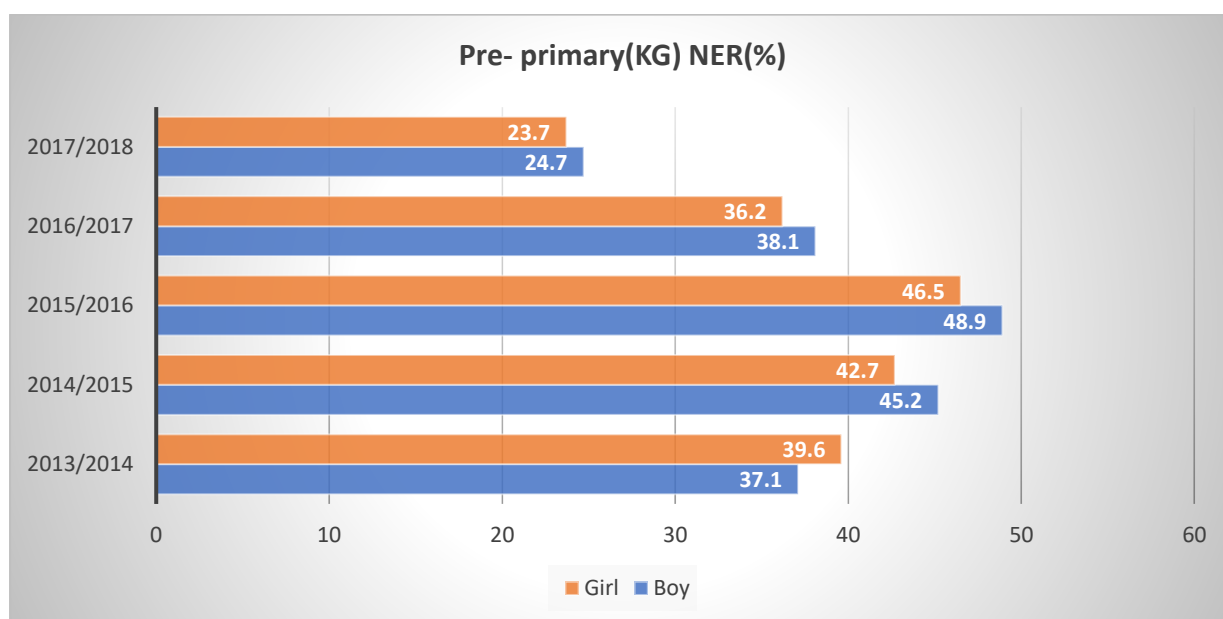
Source: MOE, 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

3.3.1.2. Net Enrolment Rate (NER) of pre-primary Education

The Net Enrolment Rate (NER) is a ratio calculated by dividing the number of appropriate-aged pupils enrolled in pre-primary school systems by the expected official pre-primary school-age population; it includes information from Kindergarten, Child to Child, and class enrolment.

As presented in Figure 3.4 below, the net enrollment rate for pre-primary (KG) by sex over five years (2013/14 to 2017/18), boy's enrolment is higher than girl's NER enrolment except for the year 2013/14.

Figure 3.3: Pre-primary (KG) NER by sex and years at a Country level



Source: MOE 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

As Table 3.3 clearly indicated, in almost all regions and the two city administrations and across the five reporting years, the net enrolment rate for boys is larger than for girls. Furthermore, between 2013/14 and 2015/16, there was an upward trend in the pre-primary net enrollment rate for both sexes across all regions but slightly declined in 2016/17 and 2017/18.

In comparison to other regions, the net enrolment rate for both sexes is highest in Tigray, Addis Ababa, and Harari and lowest in Somali region. But girls' net enrolment rate remains lower than boys in all locations and years, with a few exceptions such as in the year 2017/18 in Amhara region boy's enrolment is lower than girls enrolment.

Table 3. 3: Pre-primary (KG) NER by sex, region, and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Country Total	23.7	24.7	36.2	38.1	46.5	48.9	42.7	45.2	39.6	37.1
Tigray	62.2	63.3	97.8	96.9	92.9	94.4	91.6	92.3	85.5	85.7
Afar	4.8	4.2	6.9	7.3	6.8	7.3	10.7	10.7	10.7	15.2
Amhara	27.6	28.9	39.3	40.3	50.4	51.9	44.0	45.0	48.1	44.1
Oromia	13.3	14.1	22.1	24.0	35.4	38.5	29.2	32.0	29.4	27.2
Somali	1.2	1.1	9.5	11.4	4.7	5.6	4.7	5.1	2.7	3.3
Benis. Gumuz	20.7	22.7	51.8	55.5	33.7	37.5	66.8	71.7	39.6	35.5
SNNP	29.0	31.8	34.1	37.5	66.3	68.8	35.8	40.3	68.5	63.2
Gambela	22.3	22.7	24.6	25.5	40.6	42.7	21.3	22.8	36.2	35.0
Harari	51.4	60.6	71.1	75.6	69.0	74.9	78.4	83.0	79.2	76.5
Addis Ababa	94.4	102.4	72.4	75.0	77.8	81.1	79.7	81.7	81.1	84.0
Dire Dawa	29.0	29.0	29.7	32.1	35.0	35.2	45.3	46.9	37.2	35.0

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

The available data shows that gender inequality has been observed in enrolments at the pre-primary level, proportionally more boys attending than girls, with a gender parity index of 0.94 for the gross enrollment rate. Therefore, gender equity must be attained in pre-primary education to attain gender parity at higher levels of education.

3.3.2. Primary Education Enrollment Rate by Sex, Region, and Year

Primary education in Ethiopia lasts eight years and is divided into grades 1 through 8. It is further divided into two cycles: primary 1st cycle (grades 1-4) and primary 2nd cycle (grades 5-8). According to Ethiopian educational legislation, the official admission age is seven .

This section presents sex-disaggregated statistics for the primary education sector indicators such as gross enrolment rate (GER) at the national and regional levels (total enrollment in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population), net enrolment rate (NER) (ratio of official school-age children enrolled to the total population of official school-age children), apparent and net intake ratios.

3.3.2.1. Apparent Intake Rate (AIR) of Elementary education

In Ethiopia, AIR is the percentage of new entrants (of any age) relative to the number of children who have reached the official school entry age of 7. It gives a rough assessment of school access and includes both older and younger pupils in the enrolment.

Table 3.4 shows that the AIR was 149.9% (157.6% male and 142.1% female) nationally in 2016/7, indicating that many children who are not even seven years old are enrolling in grade one. It also demonstrates that grade 1 primary classes are in high demand across the country. Afar and Somali regions are the only regions with an AIR below 100 percent. Furthermore, the number of male students entering grade one is significantly larger than that of female children.

Table 3.4 Apparent Intake Rate (AIR) by Region and Sex, (2016/17)

Region	New entrants in to grade 1			Population age 7			AIR %		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Tigray	90,677	80,118	170,795	64,112	62,387	126,499	141.4	128.4	135.0
Afar	20,817	17,123	37,940	22,569	21,337	43,906	92.2	80.3	86.4
Amhara	334,819	290,434	625,253	282,571	273,294	555,865	118.5	106.3	112.5
Oromiya	882,234	771,448	1,653,682	495,126	486,236	981,362	178.2	158.7	168.5
Somali	77,865	58,382	136,247	82,032	80,453	162,485	94.9	72.6	83.9
SNNP	501,726	456,111	957,837	255,392	250,818	506,210	196.5	181.8	189.2
Benishngul-Gumuz	22,993	20,041	43,034	14,152	13,709	27,861	162.5	146.2	154.5

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Gambella	9,699	8,242	17,941	5,054	4,910	9,963	191.9	167.9	180.1
Harari	4,716	3,975	8,691	2,702	2,589	5,291	174.5	153.5	164.3
AddisAbaba	30,038	35,072	65,110	28,478	28,506	56,984	105.5	123.0	114.3
DireDawa	7,251	6,754	14,005	4,453	4,326	8,779	122.1	118.9	120.5
National	1,982,835	1,747,700	3,730,535	1,258,127	1,229,919	2,488,047	157.6	142.1	149.9

Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

In order to better understand the trend, *Table 3.5* and Figure 3.4 below provides an 18-year AIR for primary education in Ethiopia. Though there are minor variations, AIR increases over the periods considered from 92% in 1999/2000 to 175.8 in 2015/16. However, there was variations over the years.

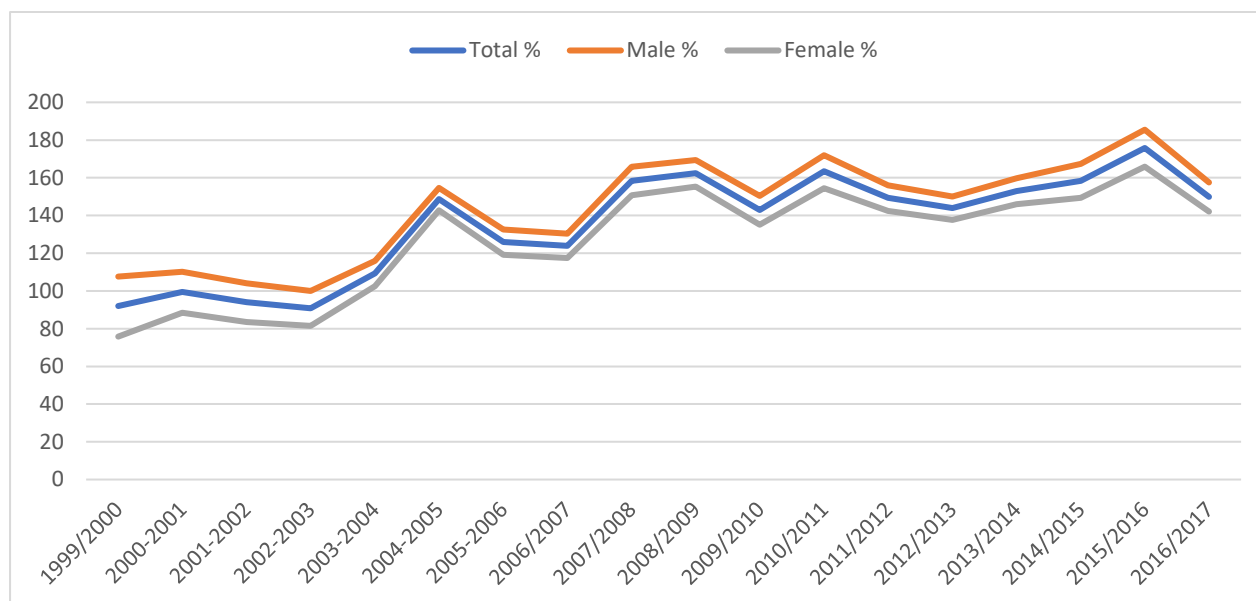
Table 3. 5: Apparent Intake Rate (AIR) Trends, 1999/00 to 2016/17

Year	Male %	Female %	Total %
1999/2000	107.7	75.8	92
2000/2001	110.1	88.5	99.5
2001/2002	104	83.6	94
2002/2003	100	81.4	90.8
2003/2004	116	102.6	109.4
2004/2005	154.7	142.8	148.7
2005/2006	132.5	119.2	125.9
2006/2007	130.4	117.4	124
2007/2008	165.8	150.8	158.4
2008/2009	169.4	155.4	162.5
2009/2010	150.4	135.2	142.9
2010/2011	171.9	154.5	163.4
2011/2012	156	142.4	149.3
2012/2013	150	137.6	143.9
2013/2014	159.7	145.9	152.9
2014/2015	167.3	149.3	158.4
2015/2016	185.5	165.9	175.8
2016/2017	157.6	142.1	149.9

Source: MOE, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

As shown in the figure male enrolment is higher than female enrolment in all the 18 years, implying a need for interventions to increase female students enrolment.

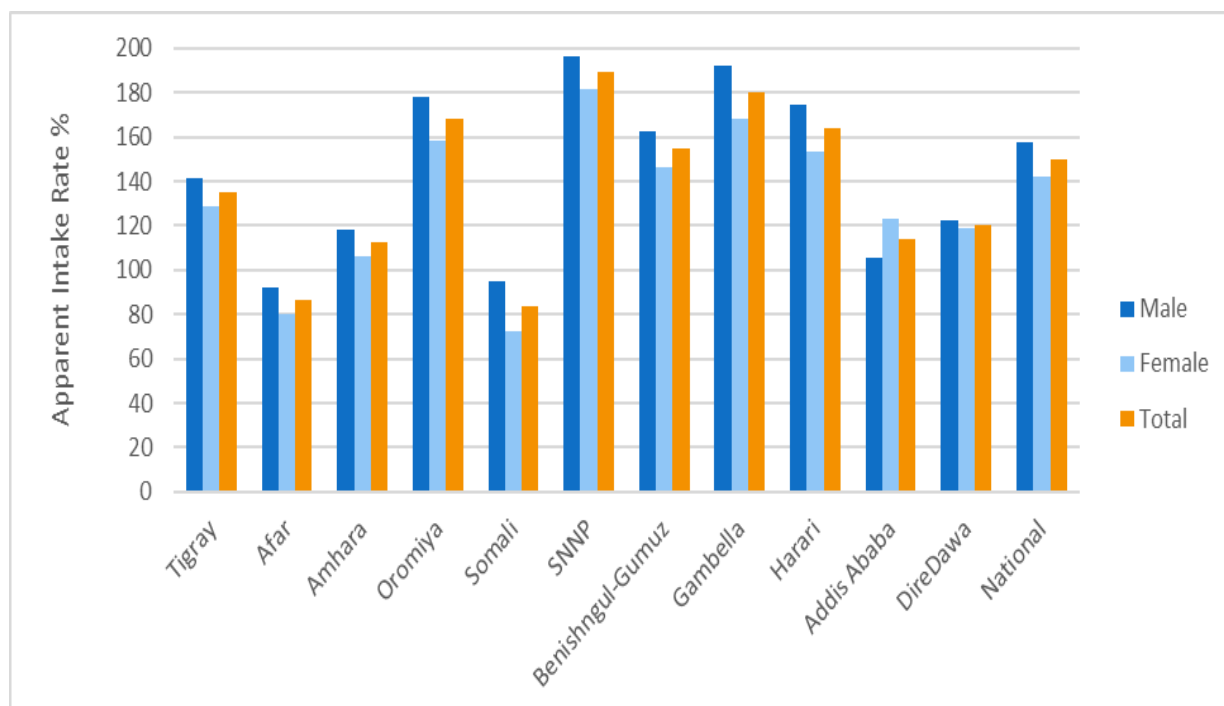
Figure 3. 4: AIR trends, from 1999/00 to 2016/17 of Elementary education



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

Since 2003/2004, AIR has constantly been above 100%, implying that more children than the population of 7-year-olds have enrolled in grade 1.

Figure 3. 6: AIR by Region and Sex, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

The AIR is 149.9% across the country, as can be observed. This demonstrates that many youngsters who are not even seven years old are enrolled in grade one. It demonstrates that grade 1 primary classes are in high demand across the country. Afar and Ethiopia-Somali are the only regions with an AIR below 100 percent. Furthermore, the number of male students entering grade one is significantly larger than that of female children. Inaccurate population estimations are likely to have a significant impact on these figures.

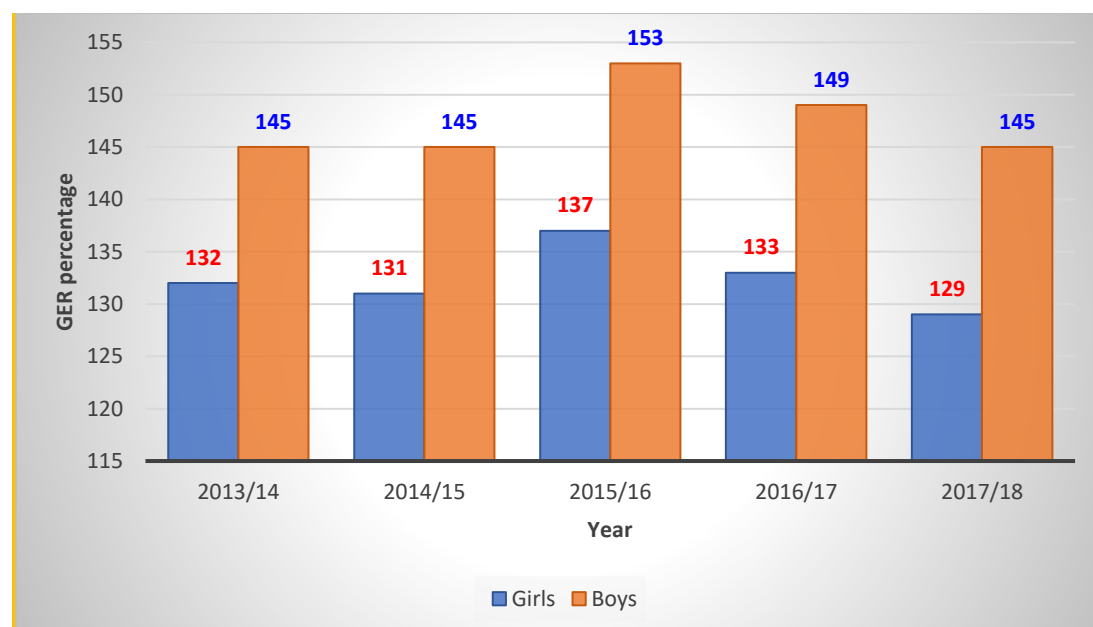
3.3.2.2. Gross Enrolment of Primary Education First-Cycle (1- 4)

Figure 3.7 below shows the gross enrolment rate for the primary first cycle (grades 1 - 4) by sex from 2013/14 to 2017/18. The result shows that the gross enrolment rate for females in the first cycle (grades 1-4) stays lower than for boys. For the first cycle (and peaking in 2015/16), the gross enrollment rate for both sexes was over 100%, with boys' gross enrollment out numbering girls in all reported years (2013/14 to 2017/18).

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For instance, in the 2017/18 academic year, the GER rate for girls was 129% compared to 145% for boys. This shows that the enrolment gap is high, and there is a need to intervene and support girls' education focusing on the barriers to enrolment.

Figure 3. 7: Primary first cycle (1-4) gross enrolment rate (2013/14-2017/18)



Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18)

The regional sex-disaggregated primary first cycle (1-4) gross enrollment rate statistics for the years 2013/14 to 2017/18 is presented in Table 3-6. The statistics show that there was a high gross enrolment rate for males across all regions and years compared to girls. However, varying patterns of enrolment rate have been noted in all regions for both sexes.

Furthermore, the primary first cycle gross enrolment rate for girls in 2017/18 was the lowest in the Afar area (77%) and highest in Gambela (166%), followed by SNNP (147%) and Benishangul-Gumuz (140%), Oromia (136) and Addis Ababa (135%). The highest GER for boy was observed in 2013/14 in Addis Ababa (248%), and the lowest was observed in Afar in 2017/18 (77%). At the national level, 149% was the highest recorded in 2016/17.

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Table 3. 6: Primary first cycle (1-4) gross enrolment rate (%) by sex and years

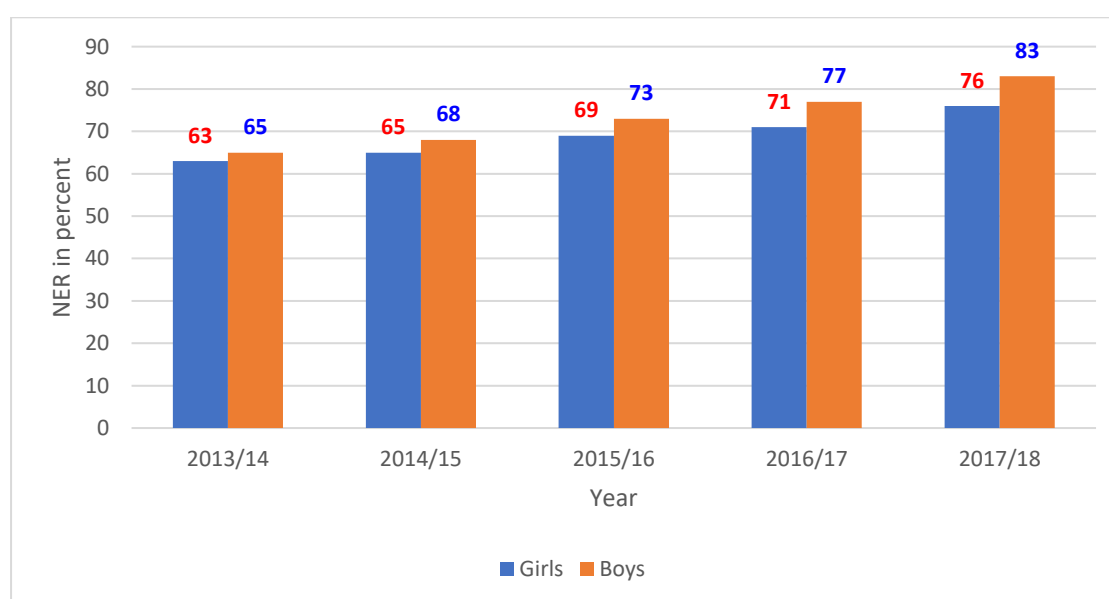
Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	132	145	131	145	137	153	133	149	129	145
Tigray	196	147	127	135	128	139	127	139	124	135
Afar	123	134	105	122	96	109	89	102	77	89
Amhara	136	146	137	149	132	145	123	135	111	123
Oromia	119	137	123	140	136	155	134	153	136	154
Somali	110	116	131	156	124	155	107	144	107	142
Benishangul- Gumuz	185	192	138	152	133	152	149	165	140	155
SNNP	128	138	131	148	149	165	138	158	147	162
Gambela	120	133	177	196	183	200	175	193	166	183
Harari	134	149	130	148	138	156	134	156	132	155
Addis Ababa	220	248	169	140	157	130	143	120	135	117
Dire Dawa	120	126	84	84	88	89	124	135	129	140

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18)

3.3.2.3. Gross Enrollment - Primary second cycle (5-8)

Figure 3-8 shows the gross enrolment rate by sex for the primary second cycle for 2013/14 to 2017/18 at the national level. The data shows that both sexes' gross enrollment rate is less than 100% during the second cycle, and it reaches its highest level in 2017/18. While disaggregated by sex, boys' gross enrolment slightly exceeds that of girls in all the reported years (2013/14 to 2017/18). However, the gender gap in enrolment rate in the second cycle was not significant compared to the enrolment gap in the first cycle. As a result, the gross enrolment rate for females in the second cycle (grades 5-8) remains lower than for boys, increasing from 63% in 2013/14 to 76% in 2017/18.

Figure 3.1: Gross Enrollment -Primary second cycle (5-8) at National level



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

The regional sex-disaggregated primary second cycle (5-8) gross enrollment rate statistics for five years (2013/14 to 2017/18) are presented in Table 3-7.

In Gambella, Addis Ababa, and Tigray, GER rate of girls exceeds that of boys in all the reporting years, with few exceptions. GER is lower in Afar and Somali regions than

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the rest of the regions in all five-year periods for which data is available. NER was greatest in Addis Ababa (156%), followed by Gambela (112%) and Tigray (104%) regions.

Table 3. 7: Primary second cycle (5-8) gross enrolment rate (%) by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Country Total	63	65	65	68	69	73	71	77	76	83
Tigray	179	146	93	91	94	95	99	101	104	107
Afar	23	23	22	28	23	27	28	30	27	31
Amhara	76	67	80	73	86	80	92	88	97	96
Oromia	62	79	53	60	57	66	59	69	62	74
Somali	64	76	32	37	37	43	37	45	46	53
Beni. Gumuz	106	116	66	75	65	85	70	81	78	99
SNNP	57	67	63	83	69	79	70	91	74	85
Gambela	51	56	108	122	110	121	111	120	112	119
Harari	65	72	57	70	61	75	64	78	69	85
Addis Ababa	37	45	157	136	163	135	156	133	156	135

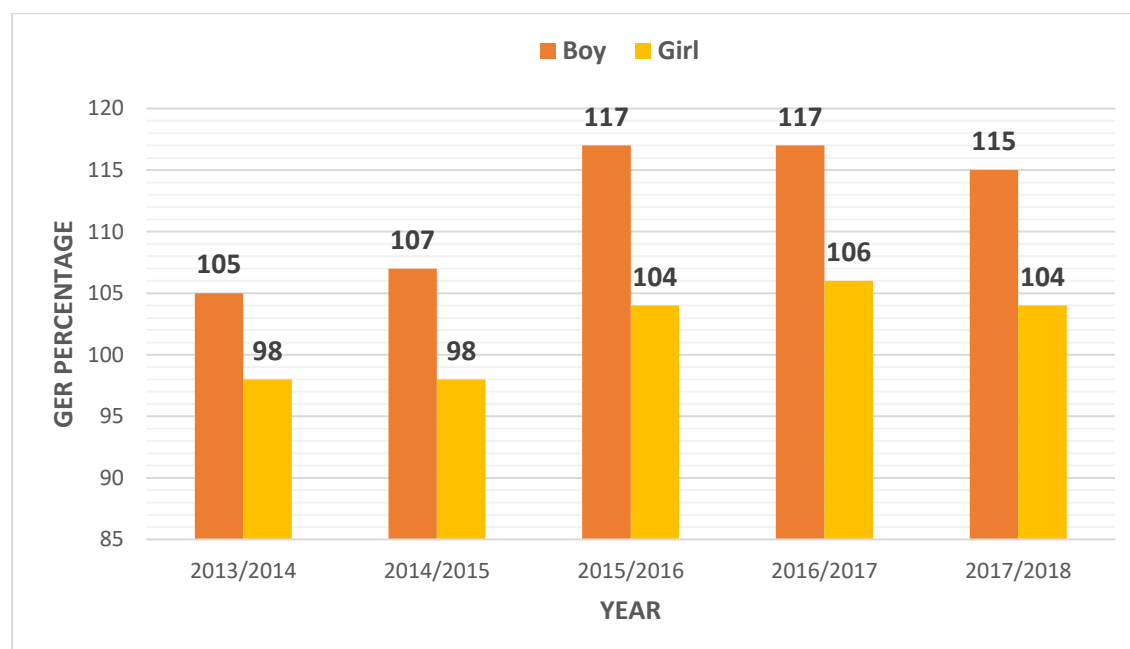
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Dire	91	86	49	53	49	53	68	77	74	83
Dawa										

Source, MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Figure 3.9 and Table 3.8 below summarize the GER of the primary cycle (1-8 grades). Though there is an increasing trend until 2016/17, girls' enrolment is lower than boys in all the five years.

Figure 3. 9: Primary cycle (1-8) gross enrolment rate (%) by sex and years, Country Total



Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 3-8 shows regional sex-disaggregated primary cycle (1-8) gross enrolment rate figures from 2013/14 to 2017/18. Except for Addis Ababa, where the girl enrollment rate was greater than the boy enrollment rate between 2013/14 and 2017/18, there is a high gross enrollment rate for boys in the primary cycle in the rest of the regions. The primary cycle gross enrolment rate for girls has gradually grown from 2013/14 to 2017/18 in regions like Tigray (106% to 114%) and Oromia (86% to 100%).

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Furthermore, whereas the Afar region had the lowest gross enrolment rate for girls (56%), Addis Ababa had the highest (144%), followed by Gambela (140%) and Tigray (140%) in 2017/18.

Table 3. 8: Primary Cycle (1-8) Gross Enrolment Rate (%) by Sex and Years, Country Total

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	98	105	98	107	104	114	106	117	104	115
Tigray	106	107	110	113	111	117	113	120	114	121
Afar	72	76	64	75	63	69	62	69	56	63
Amhara	106	107	109	112	110	114	110	114	105	111
Oromia	86	96	89	101	97	111	99	113	100	115
Somali	127	142	85	98	87	104	80	102	85	106
Beni. Gumuz	91	109	102	114	100	119	117	131	110	128
SNNP	97	107	97	116	109	122	107	128	110	123
Gambela	146	155	143	159	148	161	144	156	140	151
Harari	93	103	94	110	99	116	102	119	101	120
Addis Ababa	187	146	163	138	160	133	150	127	144	125
Dire Dawa	87	96	66	69	69	72	103	114	101	111

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

The trend of GER in primary education

As shown in Table 3-9 and Figure 3.10, the GER patterns of the two cycles over the preceding 16 years show that they have both grown. However, the second cycle GER

has been at a stop since 2000/2001, with just a little rate of increase compared to the first cycle, which has shown a fairly continuous increase throughout time. The problem of youngsters repeating first-cycle grades or dropping out entirely is highlighted by this gap. The first cycle enrolment data presented in Table 3.9 below also includes children enrolled in alternative basic education (ABE) modalities.

Table 3.9: Trends of GER split by Cycle, 2000/2001 – 2016/2017.

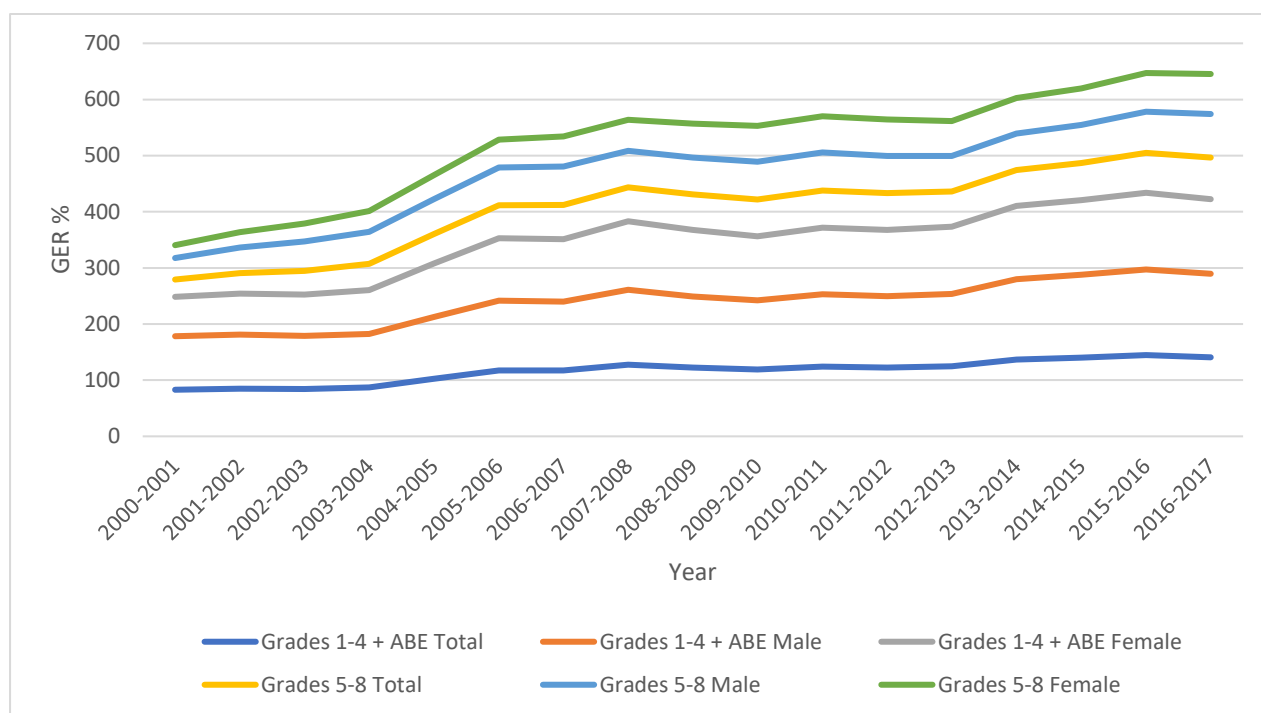
Year	Grades 1-4 + ABE			Grades 5-8		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
2000-2001	83	95.3	70.2	30.8	38.3	22.9
2001-2002	84.9	96.2	73.3	36.5	45.4	27.4
2002-2003	84.2	94.6	73.5	42.4	52.5	31.9
2003-2004	86.9	95.2	78.3	47.1	57	36.9
2004-2005	102.7	109.8	95.5	52.5	62	42.6
2005-2006	117.6	123.9	111.2	58.8	67.4	49.8
2006-2007	117.1	122.9	111.2	61.1	68.3	53.7
2007-2008	127.8	133	122.5	60.2	64.8	55.5
2008-2009	122.6	126.7	118.4	63.1	65.6	60.5
2009-2010	118.8	123.2	114.3	65.5	67.4	63.5
2010-2011	124	128.8	119.1	66.1	67.4	64.8
2011-2012	122.6	127	118.1	65.6	65.9	65.3
2012-2013	124.5	129.4	119.4	62.8	63.4	62.2
2013-2014	136.9	143	130.5	64.1	64.7	63.4

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2014-2015	140.3	147.6	132.7	66.3	67.8	64.8
2015-2016	144.7	152.5	136.6	71.1	73.3	68.9
2016-2017	140.8	148.8	132.7	74.4	77.3	71.4

Source: Ministry of Education, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

Figure 3. 10: Trend of GER split by Cycle, 2000/01 – 2016/17



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

3.3.2.4. Primary (grade 1-8) Net Enrolment Rate

The net enrolment rate (NER) estimates an enrolment ratio comparable to the GER. It differs from the GER in that it only considers the enrolment of the official age group for a certain educational level. That is, it only considers children aged 7 to 14 who are enrolled in primary school. Enrollment in Alternative Basic Education (ABE) centers and regular primary schools is included in this metric.

Table 3.10 illustrates the country-level net enrollment rate for the complete primary cycle (grade 1-8) by sex over the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18). The data shows that the net enrollment rate for boys growing from 95% in 2013/14 to 105% in 2017/18, a parallel growth though less than that in the case of boys, has been observed in the net enrollment rate of girls, too during this time (from 90% to 95%). Table 3.10 also shows regional variations in terms of NER, where the highest net

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enrolment rate was observed in the Addis Ababa, Gambella, Amhara, and Tigray regions.

Table 3. 10: Primary cycle (1-8) net enrolment rate (%) by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	90	95	91	98	96	104	95	104	95	105
Tigray	101	98	105	105	107	108	108	111	109	113
Afar	59	61	55	63	54	57	48	52	48	53
Amhara	98	97	100	101	101	103	102	105	94	98
Oromia	81	89	83	93	92	103	91	103	93	106
Somali	110	124	75	86	77	92	63	81	73	92
Benishangul-Gumuz	78	88	96	106	87	97	103	115	95	104
SNNP	90	99	84	94	103	114	90	101	105	115
Gambela	116	123	112	124	115	126	109	118	105	112
Harari	84	92	86	98	90	102	91	104	91	105
Addis Ababa	151	121	120	108	118	105	111	101	110	101
Dire Dawa	75	80	56	57	59	61	83	91	87	96

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Though encouraging results have been registered over the past years to ensure access to primary education to every citizen, the performance indicates that there are still gaps to be addressed to bring all school-age children and youth and girls to school.

3.3.2.5. Gender Parity Index

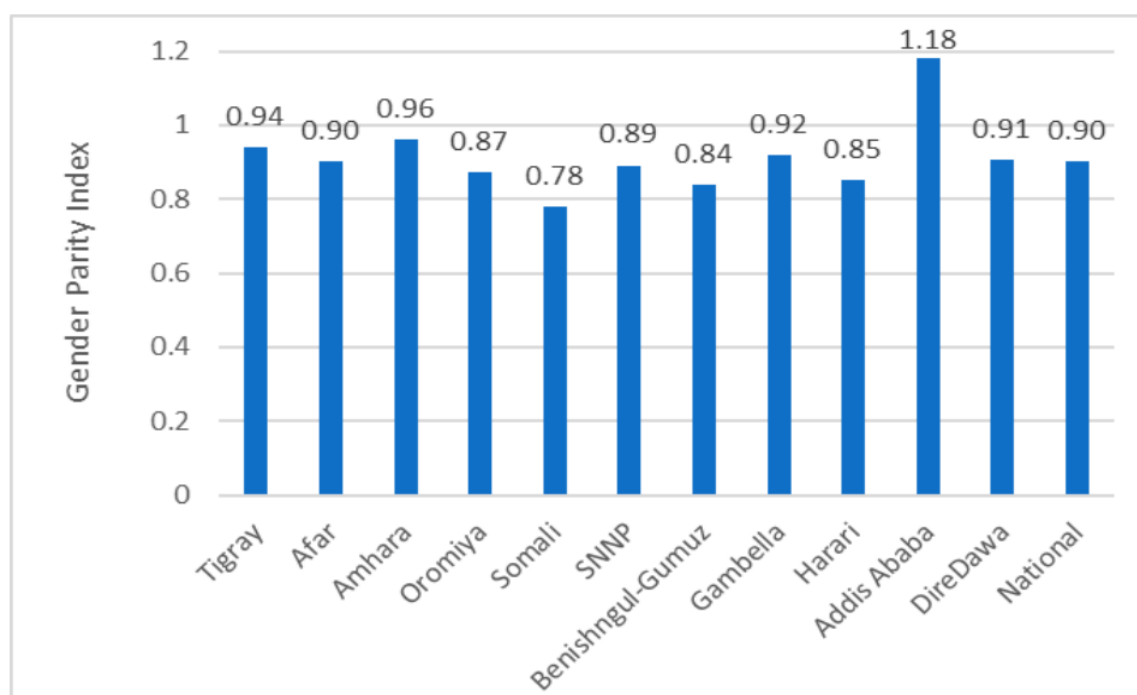
Gender Parity Index (GPI) measures the equity between girls and boys. It is the ratio of female to male values of a given indicator. GPI in GER, therefore, it can be defined as the female gross enrolment ratio divided by the male gross enrolment ratio for all

levels. GPI is an important indicator of balanced programs to boost enrolment and participation of girls in education.

GPI is used to measure the level of equity between boys and girls. In a situation of equality in enrolment, the gender parity index (GPI) is 1, whereas, with the highest disparity, it is close to 0. The following chart is presented to demonstrate GPI in the 2016/17 academic year regionally and nationally.

It can be seen that GPI is high in Addis Ababa (1.18), which shows that more females are attending school than males. At the same time, the lowest GPI is observed in the Somali region, whose GPI is 0.78. In all other regions, GPI is lower than 1, implying that girls' enrolment to primary school is lower than boys.

Figure 3. 11: Gender Parity Index, Grades 1-8, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

3.3.3. Secondary Education Enrolment by sex, region, and year

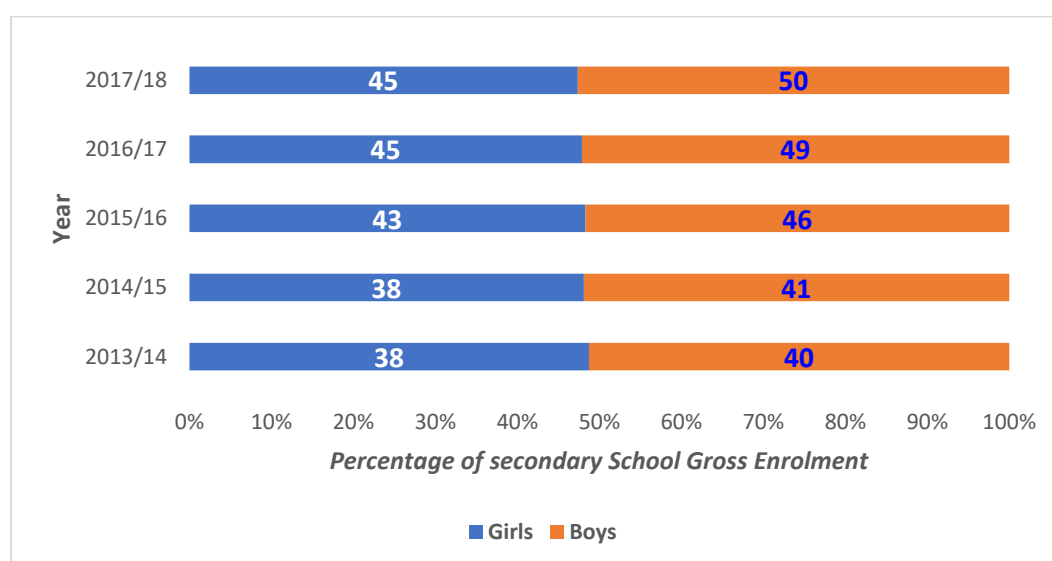
In Ethiopia, secondary education is split into two cycles: the first cycle covering grades 9-10 and the second cycle covering grades 11-12. About 80% of students are enrolled in the first cycle (grades 9-10). At the end of the first cycle of secondary education, when students complete grade 10 (general secondary education), they take the national examination (Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination) until 2020. This is used to certify completion of general secondary education and to select students who qualify for the next higher level of education called the preparatory level (grade 11 and 12). The preparatory level is the second cycle of secondary education and prepares students for university education. Those who do not fulfill the criteria for the preparatory level can be enrolled in colleges of teachers' education and technical and vocational education and training schools (TVET). This section presents various indicators in relation to secondary-level education.

3.3.3.1. Secondary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)

The Gross Enrolment Ratio shows the total number of children that have enrolled in grades 9-12, irrespective of their age, as a proportion of the school-age population. In Ethiopia, the official secondary school-age population is between 15 and 18 years. Secondary education is classified into grades 9 -10 and grades 11-12.

Accordingly, the gross enrollment rate for both sexes remained under 100%, though boys appeared to be in better condition across all the reported years. However, there is an increasing trend in gross enrollment of secondary school for girls from 38% in 2013/14 to 45% in 2017/18 and for boys 40% to 50%, respectively. Table 3-18 explores the statistics of regional sex-disaggregated secondary school (9-10) gross enrollment rate of the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18).

Figure 3. 12: Secondary school (9-10) Gross Enrollment rate (%) by sex, region and years



Source: MOE, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

As shown in Table 3-11, the statistics show that there was a high gross enrollment rate for boys in the secondary school across all the regions, except Addis Ababa City administration and Tigray and Amhara regions, between 2013/14 and 2017/18, where

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girl enrollment rate was higher than that of boys. A gradual increasing trend from 2013/14 to 2017/18 has been witnessed in the secondary school gross enrollment rate for girls, as compared to boys, in the regions like Benishangul-Gumuz (38% to 50%) and Harari (44% to 53%) and Addis Ababa City Administration (98% to 130%). Moreover, in 2017/18, while the secondary school (grade 9-10) gross enrollment rate for girls was the lowest in the Afar region (13%), whereas the highest enrolment was observed in Addis Ababa (130%).

The national enrolment rate has shown a slight increase during the stated periods of the report.

Table 3.11: Secondary school (9-10) Gross Enrollment rate (%) by sex, region, and years

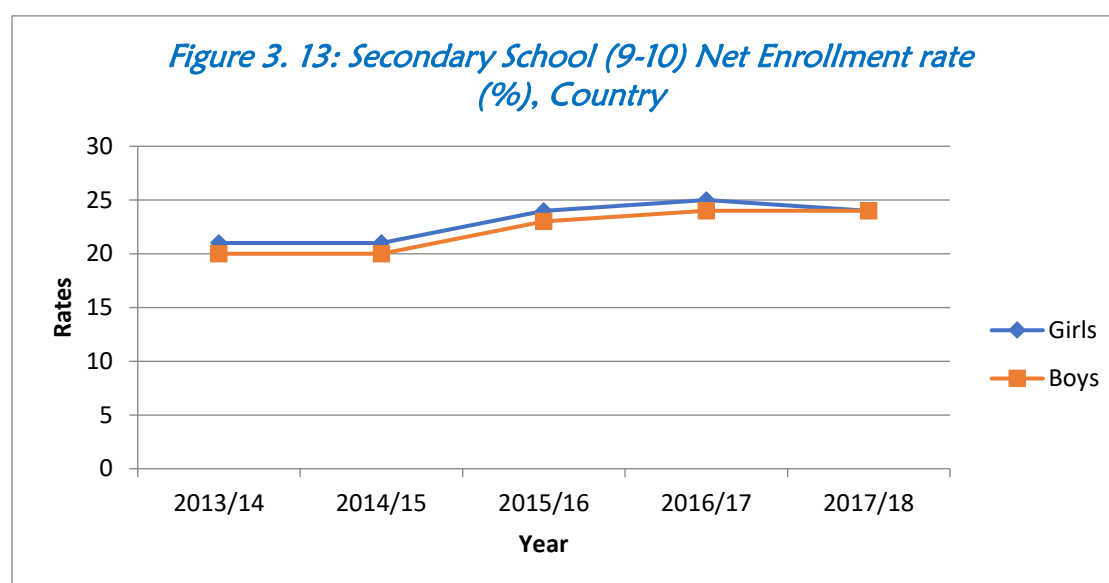
Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	38	40	38	41	43	46	45	49	45	50
Tigray	71	65	69	63	74	70	76	71	78	75
Afar	7	10	18	26	10	14	13	18	13	18
Amhara	46	41	45	41	53	47	56	50	58	52
Oromia	32	37	31	37	33	40	34	41	35	45
Somali	10	16	8	16	11	16	11	17	17	24
Benishangul- Gumuz	38	44	42	51	46	58	48	59	50	66
SNNP	34	41	38	45	44	54	46	61	42	53
Gambela	73	93	82	103	98	123	96	115	85	101
Harari	44	54	48	57	50	56	51	58	53	61
Addis Ababa	98	119	106	104	118	107	123	108	130	114
Dire Dawa	38	49	32	35	37	40	47	55	47	56

Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

3.3.3.2. Net enrollment rate for the secondary school (grade 9 -10)

Figure 3-13 describes the net enrollment rate for the secondary school (grade 9-10) by sex over the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18). Thus, the net enrollment rate for both sexes remained under 100%, though girls' NER is more than that of boys between 2013/14 to 2016/17 at the national level. However, there is a regional variation of this claim. In Somali and Afara regions, boys' enrolment is greater than girls' enrolment rate. On the other hand, the highest difference between girls' and boys' enrollment was observed in Tigray, i.e., girls' enrolment is higher than boys.

In terms of the overall trend, there exists an increasing trend in net enrollment of secondary school for both the girls from 21% in 2013/14 to 24% in 2017/18 and for boys 20% in 2013/14 to 24% in 2016/17.



Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 3-12 exhibits the regional sex-disaggregated statistics of secondary school (9-10) net enrollment rate during the reporting periods of 2013/14 to 2017/18. The statistics show that there is a high net enrollment rate for girls in secondary school in Tigray region, Harari region, and Addis Ababa City Administration between 2014/15 and 2017/18. A gradual increasing trend was observed from 2013/14 to 2017/18 in the

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secondary school net enrollment rate for girls compared to boys in regions like Oromia (16% to 18%) and Addis Ababa (56% to 70%), and others.

Table 3.12: Secondary school (9-10) Net Enrollment rate (%) by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
County Total	21	20	21	20	24	23	25	24	24	24
Tigray	54	47	52	45	58	50	61	53	62	55
Afar	1	3	9	10	4	5	6	7	5	7
Amhara	22	18	22	17	27	20	29	22	28	21
Oromia	16	16	17	16	17	18	17	18	18	19
Somali	4	5	3	5	4	5	4	6	7	8
Beni. Gumuz	19	16	23	26	20	17	30	34	21	18
SNNP	21	23	20	17	28	32	21	18	25	29
Gambela	18	24	17	23	24	33	21	26	20	23
Harari	27	31	29	29	28	26	29	28	23	22
Addis Ababa	56	72	56	53	63	57	65	57	70	61
Dire Dawa	19	19	17	13	17	14	23	20	22	19

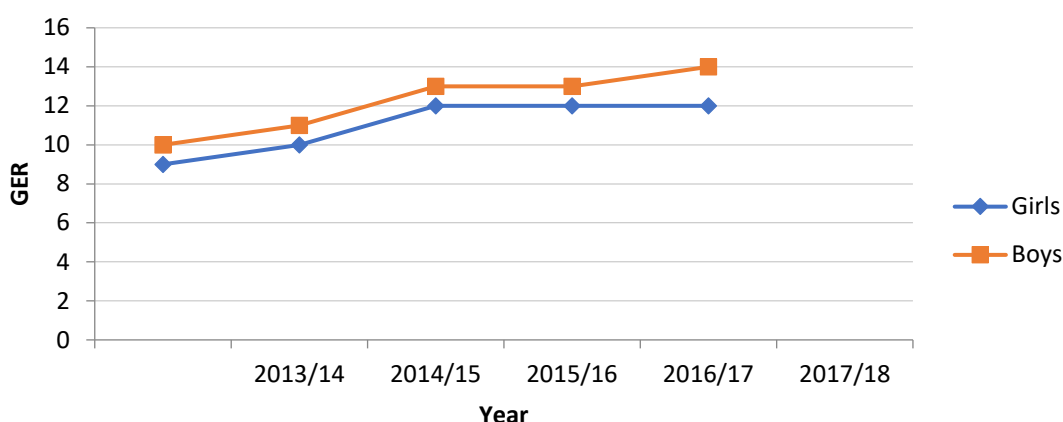
Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

3.3.3.3. The gross enrollment rate for the preparatory school (grade 11-12)

The gross enrollment rate for the preparatory school (grade 11-12) by sex over the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18). According to Figure 3-14, the gross enrollment rate for both sexes was found to increase over the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18). Specifically, the gross enrollment rate for preparatory schools for girls increased from 9% to 12% between 2013/14 and 2017/18, and for boys, it increased from 11% to 14% during that time, respectively.

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Figure 3. 14: Preparatory school (11-12) Gross Enrollment Rate (by years, Country Total)



Source: Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 3-13 shows that there was a high gross enrollment rate for boys in the preparatory schools across all the regions, except Addis Ababa from 2013/14 to 2017/18. Moreover, the gross enrollment rate for girls is the lowest in the Afar region (6%), and the highest enrolment was observed in Addis Ababa (54%), followed by Amhara (16%) and Dire Dawa (14%) regions/city administrations in 2017/18.

Table 3. 13: Preparatory school (11-12) Gross Enrollment rate (%) by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Country Total	9	10	10	11	12	13	12	13	12	14
Tigray	15	14	16	16	17	19	13	16	13	17
Afar	3	3	5	8	4	6	7	10	6	7
Amhara	11	12	11	12	15	16	13	14	16	17
Oromia	6	8	7	8	8	10	9	11	8	11
Somali	5	9	8	12	7	10	7	10	8	11
Benishangul-Gumuz	9	12	8	10	9	11	12	15	12	14

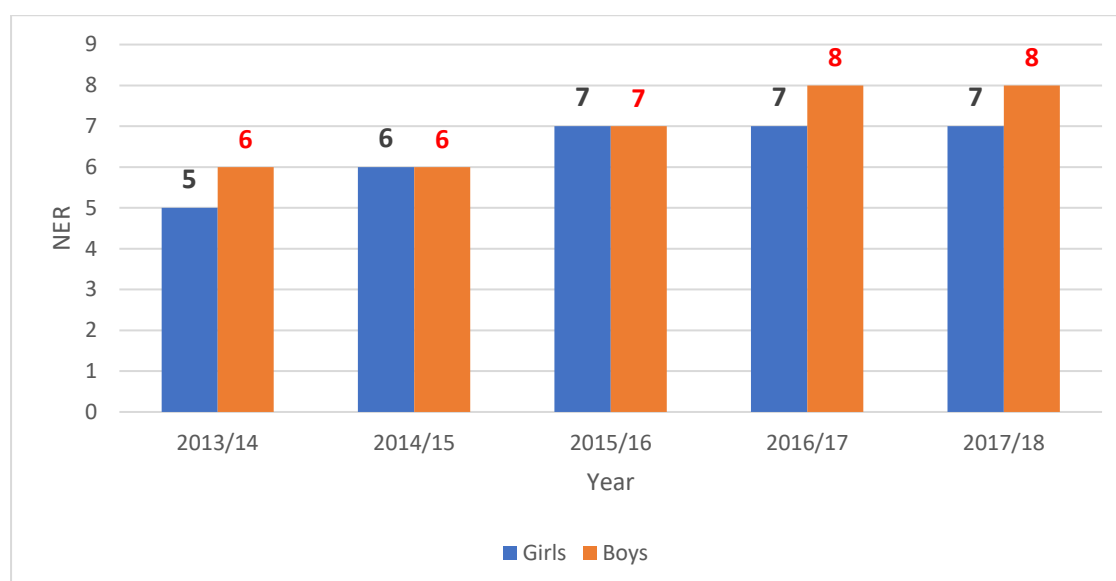
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SNNP	7	9	8	10	10	12	12	13	10	14
Gambela	9	33	12	35	16	50	11	39	11	35
Harari	14	16	17	19	19	19	16	16	14	15
Addis Ababa	53	51	53	50	54	53	50	47	54	49
Dire Dawa	13	16	11	13	14	16	15	19	14	16

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

As Figure 3-22 depicts, the net enrollment rate for the preparatory school (grade 11-12) by sex over the last five years (2013/14 to 2017/18), the enrollment rate for boys shows an increasing trend from 2013/14 (6%) to 2017/18 (8%), and no change was observed in the NER of girls between 2015/16 and 2017/18 (remaining 7%).

Figure 3.15: Preparatory school (11-12) Net Enrollment rate (%) by years, Country Total



Source: MOE-EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

As shown in Table 3-14, the regional sex-disaggregated statistics of preparatory school (grade 11-12) net enrollment rate shows that in the year 2017/18 the highest NER of girls registered in Addis Ababa City Administration (37%) while the lowest recorded

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by Afar region (1%). At the national level, there is no significant difference in the NER of girls and boys. The exception to this, in Addis Ababa, girls' NER is higher than boys during the reported period.

Table 3.14: Preparatory school (11-12) Net Enrollment Rate NER (%) by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	5	6	6	6	7	7	7	8	7	8
Tigray	11	10	12	12	13	14	10	11	10	12
Afar	1	1	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	3
Amhara	6	5	5	5	8	8	7	7	9	8
Oromia	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	5	6
Somali	2	4	3	5	2	3	3	4	3	4
Beni. Gumuz	5	6	6	6	7	6	8	10	7	6
SNNP	5	6	5	5	7	8	8	6	7	9
Gambela	4	8	3	11	6	14	4	8	4	9
Harari	10	11	12	13	12	12	13	12	11	11
Addis Ababa	36	30	34	31	36	34	34	32	37	34
Dire Dawa	7	9	7	7	8	7	9	9	8	8

Source: MOE-EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

3.3.3.4. The trend for GER in Secondary Schools

The trend for GER in secondary schools shows that there has been a large increase in enrolment in both cycles. Over the last few years, the GER trends in grades 9-10 have been observed as a plateau. Government targets in relation to grade 9-10 GER for 2016-2017, which was 50% for males and 48% for females, have not been met. Grades 11-12 GER also shows a slow increase since 2003/2004. For the details, see Table 3-15 below.

Table 3.15: Trends in GER for Grades 9-10 and Grades 11-12, 1999 – 2016/17

Year	Grade 9-10			Grade 11-12		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1999-2000	12.8	14.4	11.2	**	**	**
2000-2001	14.1	16.1	12.1	**	**	**
2001-2002	17.1	20.4	13.7	**	**	**
2002-2003	19.3	24.0	14.3	**	**	**
2003-2004	22.1	28.2	15.9	3.2	4.5	1.7
2004-2005	27.3	34.6	19.8	3.0	4.3	1.7
2005-2006	33.2	41.6	24.5	3.9	5.7	2.0
2006-2007	37.3	45.7	28.6	5.5	7.3	3.7
2007-2008	37.1	44.4	29.6	5.8	7.8	3.8
2008-2009	38.1	43.7	32.4	6.0	8.5	3.5
2009-2010	39.1	43.5	34.7	7.0	8.9	5.0
2010-2011	38.4	41.8	34.9	8.1	9.4	6.7
2011-2012	36.9	39.1	34.6	8.8	10.0	7.6
2012-2013	38.4	39.9	36.9	9.5	10.5	8.5
2013-2014	39.3	40.4	38.0	10.0	10.7	9.1
2014-2015	39.8	41.3	38.4	10.6	11.3	9.9
2015-2016	45.0	46.2	43.4	12.6	13.4	11.7
2016-2017	47.1	48.9	45.2	11.5	12.5	13.4

*** Data is not available Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

3.3.3.5. The trend for NER in secondary schools

As indicated in Table 3.16, the grade 9-10 NER shows that boys' enrolment was slightly higher than girls until 2010/11. However, a switch between male and female has been observed from 2011/12 until 2016/17, and female NER became higher than male NER. The trend for grades 11-12 is limited by its time period, but it can be seen that there is a small increase over the years considered for this analysis. However, there is no significant difference in the NER of boys and girls in grades 11 and 12.

Table 3.16: Trends in NER, 1999/2000 – 2016/2017

Year	Grade 9-10			Grade 11-12		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1999-2000)	6.8	7	6.6	*	*	*
2000-2001)	6.6	7.1	6.1	*	*	*
2001-2002)	7.4	8.6	6.2	*	*	*
2002-2003)	8.4	10.1	6.7	*	*	*
2003-2004)	9.8	12	7.5	*	*	*
2004-2005	11.8	14.2	9.3	*	*	*
2005-2006	13.2	15.5	10.7	*	*	*
2006-2007	14.7	16.8	12.6	*	*	*
2007-2008	13.8	15.4	12.2	*	*	*
2008-2009	13.5	15	11.9	*	*	*
2009-2010	16.4	16.8	16.1	*	*	*
2010-2011	16.3	16.4	16.2	*	*	*
2011-2012	17.3	16.9	17.6	*	*	*
2012-2013	19.4	18.8	20.1	5.4	5.2	5.3

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2013-2014	20.2	19.6	20.9	5.5	5.5	5.5
2014-2015	20.7	20.1	21.2	6	6	6
2015-2016	23.7	23	24.4	7.4	7.5	7.3
2016-2017	24.6	24.1	25.1	7.4	7.6	7.2

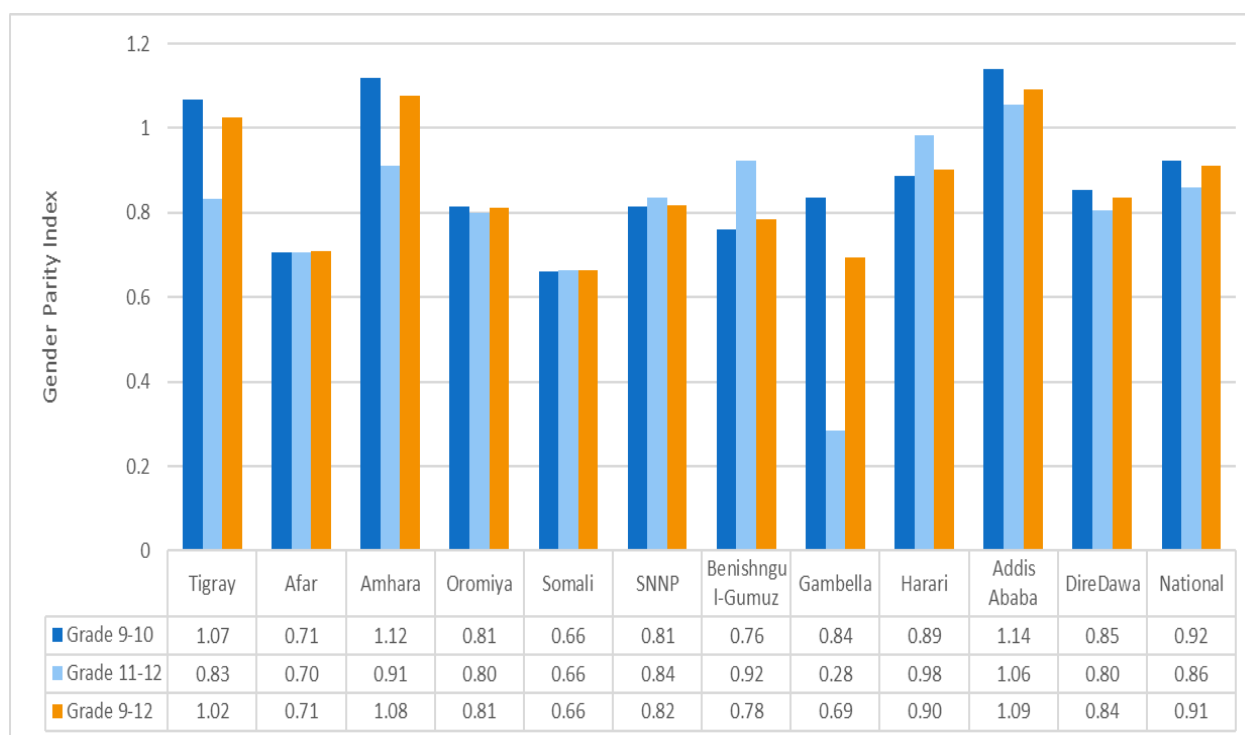
Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

- *Data is not available*

3.3.3.6. Gender Parity Index

The GPI for grades 9-12 has not met the government's target of 0.94 in most regions and at national level too in the year 2016/17, except, Tigray, Amhara and Addis Ababa that have achieved a GPI higher than 0.94. Equity is higher in grades 9-10 compared to grades 11-12, implying that as the grade increases, the gender parity index decreases. In the same year, Gambella has the biggest difference in GPI between the two cycles, dropping to 0.28 for grades 11-12. This shows that many females are leaving secondary school after grade 10 in this region. GPI is higher for grades 11-12 in Addis Ababa, followed by Harari and Benishangul Gumuz showing that more females in this region continue onto second cycle secondary grades compared to males than other regions.

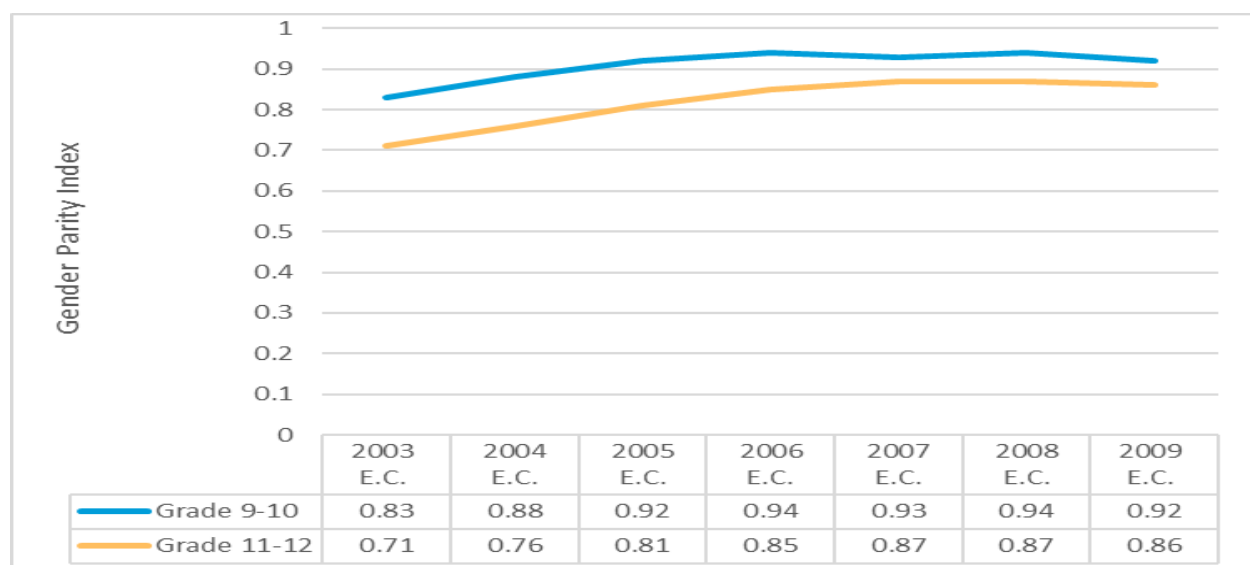
Figure 3.17: GPI for Secondary Schools by Region, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18

GPI for grades 9-10 has been flat and has not increased by a substantial amount since 2005. GPI for grades 11-12 has increased over time but also looks like starting to plateau over the last few years.

Figure 3. 18: Trends in GPI, 2003 - 2009 EC



Source: Ministry of Education, 2017

3.3.4.Higher Education

In 2018/19, it was planned to increase enrollments of regular undergraduate students to 1,022,102, and the actual performance has reached 873,008, which is 85% of the target. In the post-graduate program, there was a plan to increase the master's degree acceptance level to 50,000, and actual performance reached to 31,744. Similarly, the enrollment rate for third-degree programs was targeted at 1,250 and the performance reached only to 354.

More than 2,511 people with disabilities have been admitted to higher education as part of the plan to promote equity in higher education. As shown in Table 3-17, although encouraging results have been registered in the higher education program, the shares of female students in postgraduate studies (both enrolment and graduation) are still below the target set by the government. The result shows that concerned stakeholders and the government should give attention to people with disabilities and female.

Table 3.17: Performance of major targets in Higher education

	2014 /15 Base Year	2015/16 Actual	2016/17 Actual	2017/18 Actual	2018/19		2019/20 Actual
Indicator					Target	Actual	
Total number of students admitted to undergraduate degree program	755,244	722,498	788,033	895,675	1022102	873,008	1,106287
Number of graduates in undergraduate program in higher educational institutions	103,000	130,377	141,700	108,437	153,065	145,641	168,372
Female graduates in (%)	26	31	33	36	34	35.7	35
Total number of students admitted to postgraduate /second degree/ program	28,140	51,752	68,976	76,795	50,000	31,744	56,000
Female admitted to postgraduate program in (%)	20	16	18	18	24	19	25
Number of graduates in postgraduate/second degree/program	11,495	8,976	15,210	11,645	21,000	17,694	24,000
Share of Female graduates in (%)	20	18	19	24	28	18	32
Total number of students admitted to post graduate /Third degree/ program	3,808	2,747	3,369	4,225	5,900	4,355	6,500
Number of graduates in postgraduate/Third degree/program	309	290	2,806	237	1,250	354	1,650
Share of female graduates in (%)	7	4	13	8	10	7	10

Source: Ministry of Science and Higher Education, 2017

3.3.5. Adult and Non-Formal Education in Ethiopia

In several countries of the world, Adult and Non-formal Education have been given for adults who are over 15 and under 60. Governments have used Adult and Non-formal Education to assist development in other sectors of the economy. A literate population is a precondition for any nation to become competitive within a global

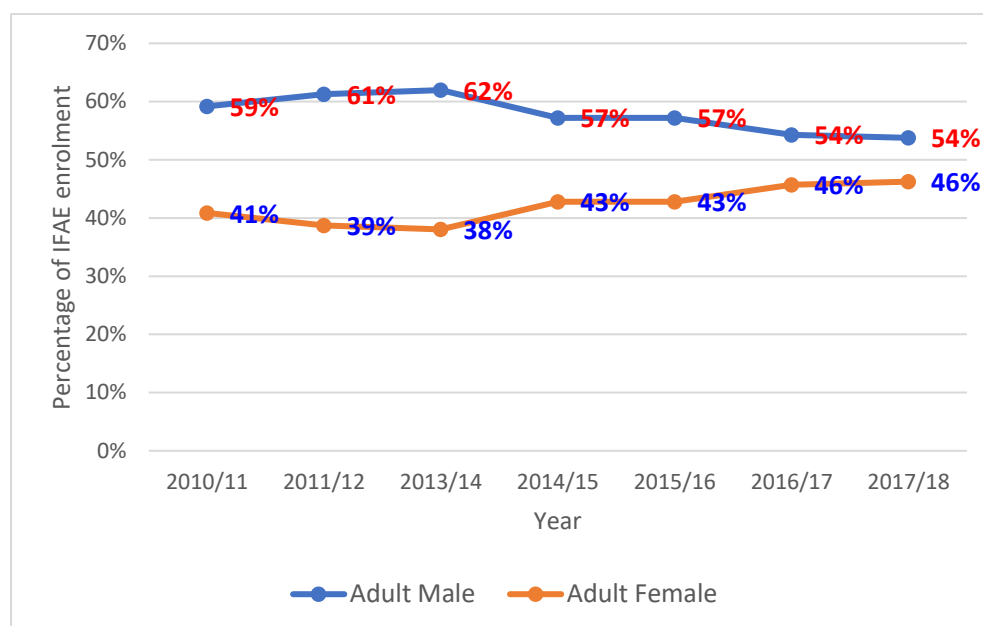
economy. Therefore, an Adult and Non-Formal Education program has been used to combat illiteracy and focuses on literacy, numeracy, and life skills training. This is to enable adult learners to develop problem-solving abilities and to change their mode of life.

In with the above claim, the Government of Ethiopia initiated Adult and Non-Formal Education, particularly the IFAE program. The Integrated Functional Adult Education (IFAE) aims to enhance the participation of the community in the national development and poverty reduction struggle and makes adult learners more productive and self-reliant. The IFAE program empowers communities to utilize their money in a better-planned way. It also has positive impacts on children's school enrolment and gender issues and also initiates adult learners to use new technologies and inputs according to their livelihoods.

The available data on adult enrollment in the IFAE program from 2011/12 to 2016/17 academic year in all regions of the country disaggregated by sex shows that adult female participation in the IFAE program is significantly lower than their male counterpart, with the exception to some regions and city administrations. For example, in 2017/18, female enrolment in IFAE was 46%, whereas male enrolment was 54%. Therefore, attention should be given to women's enrollment to meet the program's objectives and help women benefit from the program and contribute to the national development efforts.

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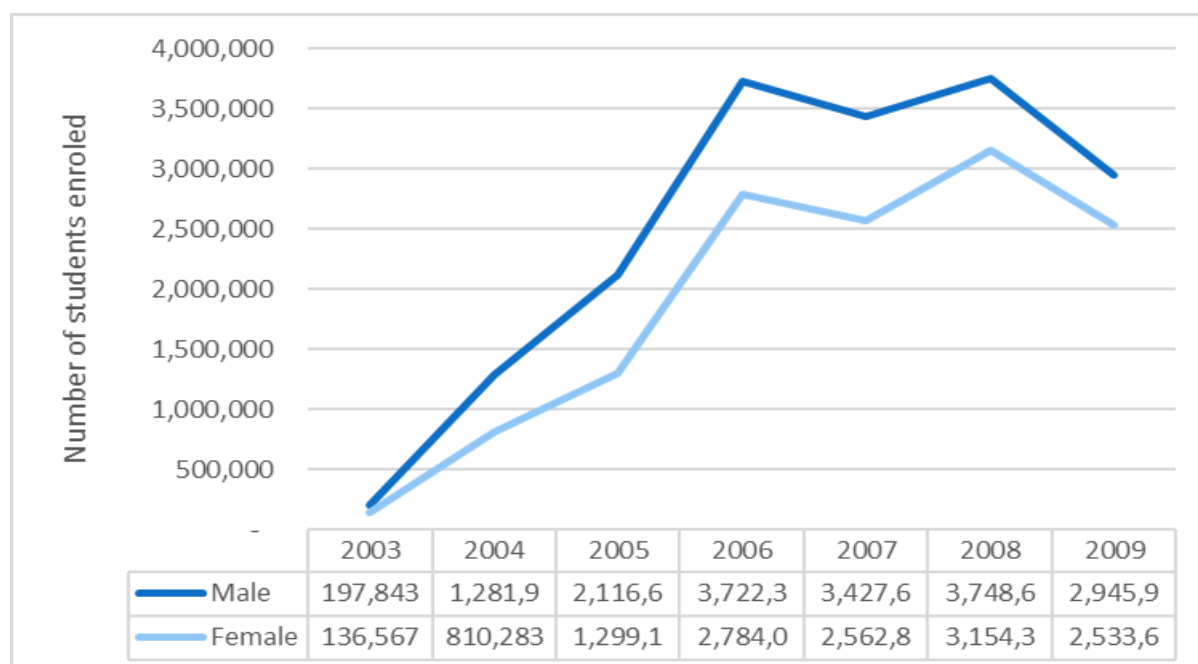
Figure 3.19: Adult Enrolment Trend in IFAE Program from 2010/11 to 2016/17



Source: CSA, 2017

Figure 3-20 below shows the national adult enrolment trend from 2003 to 2009. The result shows that the trend significantly increase until the 2008 from 197,843 to 3,748,600 but slightly declined in 2009.

Figure 3.20: National Adult Enrolment Trend



Source: Ministry of Education, 2017

3.3.6. Special Needs Education

Special needs education is the education (SNE) of students with special needs in a way that addresses the students' individual differences and needs. Ideally, this process involves the individually planned and systematically monitored arrangement of teaching procedures, adapted equipment and materials⁴. While inclusive education refers to an education system that is open to all learners, regardless of poverty, sex, ethnic background, language, disabilities and impairments⁵. Inclusion emphasizes that all children and students can learn. It requires identifying barriers that hinder learning and reducing or removing these barriers in schools, vocational training centers, higher education, teacher education, and education management. It also gives emphasis on groups of learners at risk of marginalization, exclusion or underachievement. The educational environment must be adjusted to meet the needs of all learners

⁴ <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK554622/>

⁵ <https://www.unicef.org/education/inclusive-education>

(UNESCO, 2005). That means, inclusive education is based on an assumption that all children can learn if they are given the right learning environment and support. It is about practical changes of the school and its system including the attitude of the school community, the teaching style or instructional adaptation, educational provisions, curriculum modification and physical adaptation of the school environment to cater for all children with diverse backgrounds and abilities (MoE, 2012).

The available statistics on special needs education in Ethiopia and the gross enrolment rate nationally for pre-primary was 0.7% in the 2016/17 academic year. This shows that there are many hundreds of thousands of children with disabilities that are not attending pre-primary education.

Table 3-18 below summarizes the gross enrolment rate for kindergarten with special needs education for 2016/17 academic year in Ethiopia.

Table 3.18: Gross Enrolment Rate for Kindergarten with SNE, 2016/17

Region	Population age 4-6			Population with SNE age 4-6			Number of students with SNE			GER		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Tigray	198,229	192,459	390,688	29,734	28,869	58,603	49	40	89	0.2	0.1	0.2
Afar	68,830	65,199	134,029	10,325	9,780	20,104	12	6	18	0.1	0.1	0.1
Amhara	883,539	852,987	1,736,526	132,531	127,948	260,479	138	98	236	0.1	0.1	0.1
Oromiya	1,544,731	1,514,279	3,059,010	231,710	227,142	458,852	375	300	675	0.2	0.1	0.1
Somali	258,455	252,677	511,132	38,768	37,902	76,670	7	4	11	0.0	0.0	0.0
SNNP	797,853	781,381	1,579,235	119,678	117,207	236,885	822	600	1,422	0.7	0.5	0.6
Beni. Gumuz	43,725	42,274	85,999	6,559	6,341	12,900	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambella	15,614	15,146	30,760	2,342	2,272	4,614	14	7	21	0.6	0.3	0.5
Harari	8,228	7,862	16,090	1,234	1,179	2,414	126	90	216	10.2	7.6	8.9
Addis Ababa	94,136	93,069	187,205	14,120	13,960	28,081	2,927	1,903	4,830	20.7	13.6	17.2
DireDawa	13,779	13,298	27,078	2,067	1,995	4,062	109	62	171	5.3	3.1	4.2
National	3,933,667	3,836,322	7,769,989	590,050	575,448	1,165,498	4,579	3,110	7,689	0.8	0.5	0.7

Source: EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

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Table 3.19 below summarizes the GER of students with SNE in the year 2016/17 in primary education, i.e., first cycle and second cycle disaggregated by sex and region. The reader should note that the population with SNE has been calculated by taking 15% of the total population based on work from the World Health Organization (WHO).

The result shows that GER of girls with SNE is lower than that of boys in primary education at national and regional level. It can also be seen that GER of students with SNE is very high in Tigray as compared to other regions. It is the lowest or non-existent in Somali region.

These shows that government and non-governmental organizations should give due attention to the issue disability and gender.

Table 3.19: Gross Enrolment Rate for primary Grades for Students with Disabilities, 2016/17

Region	GER 1-4			GER 5-8			GER 1-8		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Tigray	26.0	21.0	23.5	14.4	11.8	13.1	20.2	16.4	18.3
Afar	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.5
Amhara	4.7	3.8	4.3	1.8	1.3	1.5	3.3	2.6	3.0
Oromiya	7.3	5.8	6.6	2.6	1.9	2.3	5.0	3.9	4.4
Somali	0.2	0.2	0.2	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1
SNNP	27.5	23.1	25.3	13.8	11.5	12.6	20.6	17.3	18.9
Beni. Gumuz	15.9	14.8	15.4	8.6	7.6	8.2	12.3	11.3	11.8
Gambela	11.4	8.3	9.9	5.2	5.6	5.4	8.3	7.0	7.7
Harari	16.2	10.3	13.3	9.7	5.3	7.5	13.0	7.8	10.5
Addis Ababa	5.1	4.5	4.8	3.5	2.8	3.1	4.4	3.7	4.0
DireDawa	19.3	15.3	17.3	5.8	4.0	4.9	12.4	9.6	11.0
National	11.5	9.5	10.5	5.5	4.5	5.0	8.6	7.0	7.8

Source: MOE, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017/18*

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Statistics about SNE shows that about 28,776 students with SNE were attending secondary school in 2016/2017 academic year, which shows an increase from the 18,969 students enrolled in 2008. Out of the total number of students with special education needs 12,573 are females and 16,203 are males. The number of children with special education needs who are currently attending schools is expected to exceed this figure as there is a lack of available data from some regions on students with SEN, such as Ethiopia-Somali and Afar. The most common disability reported in Ethiopia is a visual impairment, with 24% of SNE students at secondary level having this disability.

The reader should note that in general, under reporting is assumed and this has an impact on the calculated figures for both primary and secondary SNE students.

3.4. Education Internal Efficiency (Flow Rates)

Internal efficiency is the extent to which resources made available to the educational system are being used to achieve the objectives for which the educational system has been set up, such as the unit cost of producing one unit of educational output, which may be a graduate of that level of education or a student who has attained some minimum level of knowledge. Thus, the internal efficiency of an education system is revealed by grade promotion, repetition, and dropout rates, whereas repetition and dropout rates are considered to be two components of educational wastage⁶.

While dropout is leaving a school before completion of a given stage of education or some intermediate or non-terminal point in the level of education, many students repeat a grade because they did not attend school frequently (if at all) the previous year, because of more serious health, nutrition problems or because their family requires them to assume work responsibilities. Since internal efficiency is calculated based on dropout, repetition, and promotion rates, the higher the promotion and

⁶ <https://learningportal.iiep.unesco.org/en/glossary/internal-efficiency>

completion rates, the better the system's efficiency. Below is a brief description of these efficiency measures.

- **Completion Rate-** total number of students who successfully completed the final year's grade of primary schools, expressed as a percentage of the total population of the school leaving age.
- **Promotion Rate-** the percentage of pupils promoted to next grade in the following school year.
- **Repetition Rate-** proportion of students who have remained in the same grade over one year and used additional resources (materials etc.) for the grade.
- **Survival Rate-** percentage of a cohort of pupils, who enroll together in the first grade of primary education, which reaches a given grade (e.g., grade 5) or the final grade of an education cycle either with or without repeating a grade.
- **Dropout Rate-** leaving the system without completing the grade.

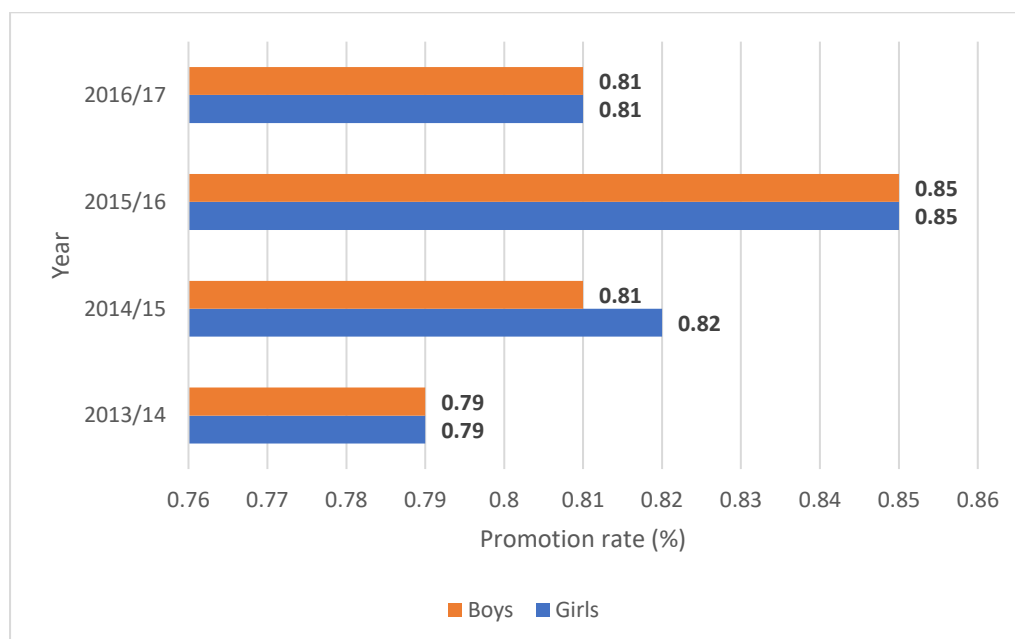
3.4.1. Sex Disaggregated Promotion Rate

The promotion rate measures the proportion of pupils from a cohort enrolled in a given grade at a given school year who study in the next grade in the following school year. It helps to measure the education system's performance in promoting pupils from a cohort from grade to grade and its effect on the internal efficiency of educational systems. Ideally, a high rate reflects the high internal efficiency of the educational system. When compared across grades, the patterns can indicate specific grades for which there is low promotion.

Accordingly, Figure 3-21 reveals the promotion rate in the first cycle (grade 1-4) by sex for the years 2013/14 to 2016/17 academic year in Ethiopia and regional states. Therefore, the promotion rate for both sexes shows no significant differences except for the year 2014/15 where girls rate was higher than boys.

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Figure 3.21: First cycle (grade 1-4) promotion rate by sex and years, Country Total



Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

Table 3-20 highlights the statistics of the regional sex-disaggregated first cycle (grade 1-4) promotion rate of the show years 2013/14 to 2016/17. The data shows in 2017/18, while the first cycle (grade 1-4) promotion rate for girls appeared to be lowest in Afar (0.64%), the highest is observed in Addis Ababa (0.98%) followed by Tigray and Somali regions (each 0.95%). Overall, the promotion rate is high in Addis Ababa and Tigray, whereas it is the lowest in the Harari region.

Sex Disaggregated Statistics Report

Table 3.20: First cycle (1-4) promotion rate by sex, region, and Years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	0.79	0.79	0.82	0.81	0.85	0.85	0.81	0.81
Tigray	0.95	0.93	0.94	0.93	0.96	0.95	0.95	0.93
Afar	0.83	0.97	0.48	0.44	0.76	0.75	0.64	0.66
Amhara	0.81	0.78	0.86	0.83	0.90	0.86	0.87	0.85
Oromia	0.75	0.75	0.80	0.80	0.82	0.82	0.77	0.78
Somali	0.85	0.86	0.67	0.70	0.86	0.92	0.95	0.91
Beni. Gumuz	0.80	0.80	0.72	0.72	0.75	0.76	0.74	0.75
SNNP	0.73	0.74	0.81	0.81	0.88	0.91	0.77	0.77
Gambela	0.75	0.79	0.80	0.79	0.87	0.88	0.76	0.74
Harari	0.67	0.69	0.70	0.69	0.77	0.79	0.76	0.78
Addis Ababa	0.85	0.97	0.93	0.92	1.02	0.96	0.98	0.99
Dire Dawa	0.77	0.77	0.76	0.78	0.98	0.98	0.79	0.81

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

As Table 3-21 illustrates, in 2017/18, the second cycle (5-8) promotion rate for girls was lowest in Afar (0.72%), and the highest was observed in Addis Ababa (0.97%), followed by Tigray (0.94%) and Harari (0.91%) regions. In the same year, in most regions, boys' promotion rate is slightly higher than girls'. This is consistent in almost all regions and reported years. This implies that factors contributing to girls' low promotion rate should be identified, and an attempt should be made to minimize them.

Sex Disaggregated Statistics Report

Table 3.21: Second cycle (5-8) promotion rate by sex, region, and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	0.82	0.82	0.87	0.87	0.81	0.84	0.86	0.86
Tigray	0.91	0.91	0.93	0.93	0.95	0.95	0.94	0.92
Afar	1.03	1.36	0.52	0.53	0.94	0.95	0.72	0.80
Amhara	0.81	0.80	0.89	0.87	0.71	0.69	0.89	0.87
Oromia	0.81	0.79	0.86	0.88	0.88	0.89	0.82	0.84
Somali	0.81	0.81	0.59	0.60	0.73	0.80	0.91	0.90
Benishangul-Gumuz	0.81	0.84	0.85	0.82	0.99	1.02	0.86	0.84
SNNP	0.78	0.77	0.87	0.89	0.92	0.93	0.81	0.82
Gambela	0.85	0.90	0.91	0.91	0.91	0.95	0.82	0.84
Harari	0.90	0.91	0.92	0.90	1.05	1.00	0.91	0.92
Addis Ababa	0.79	0.83	0.97	0.93	1.04	1.00	0.97	0.98
Dire Dawa	0.81	0.80	0.87	0.87	1.10	1.08	0.88	0.86

Source, MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

3.4.2.Repetition Rate and Dropout Rate

Repetition and dropout rates help to understand how well the education system utilizes limited resources efficiently and in a timely manner. They are commonly used to measure the efficiency of the education system in producing graduates of a particular education cycle or level. A student has three paths in a particular academic year, i.e., promotion, repetition, or dropout. Repeating a grade means using more resources than allocated to a student, and leaving school (i.e., a dropout) before completing a particular cycle or level of education also results in a waste of resources.

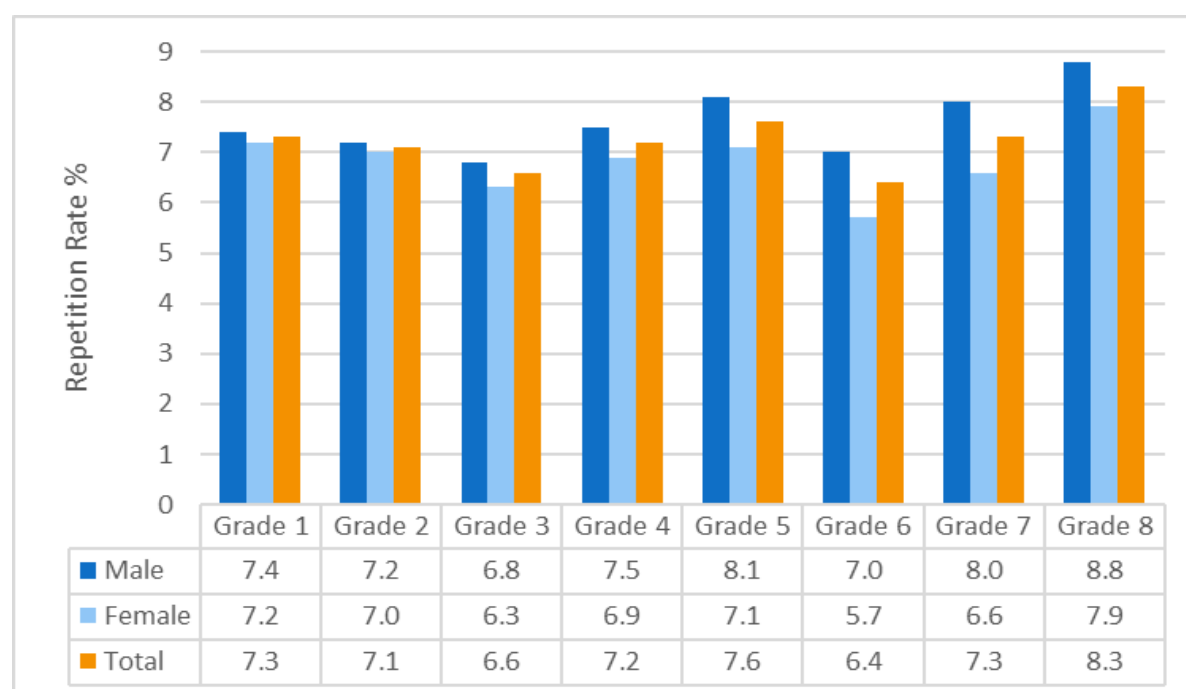
Overall lower repetition and lower dropout rates at each grade level are indications of the proper utilization of limited resources. Data concerning repeaters refer to the

year before the one in which data is collected. For instance, in 2010, it is only possible to collect information about students who repeated the grade they attended in 2009, and they are “repeaters of 2009.”

3.4.3.Repetition Rate

As shown in Figure 3-23 below, the repetition rate is slightly higher in males compared to females in primary education in 2008 E.C

Figure 3.23: Trends in Repetition Rates, Grades 1-8 in 2008 E.C



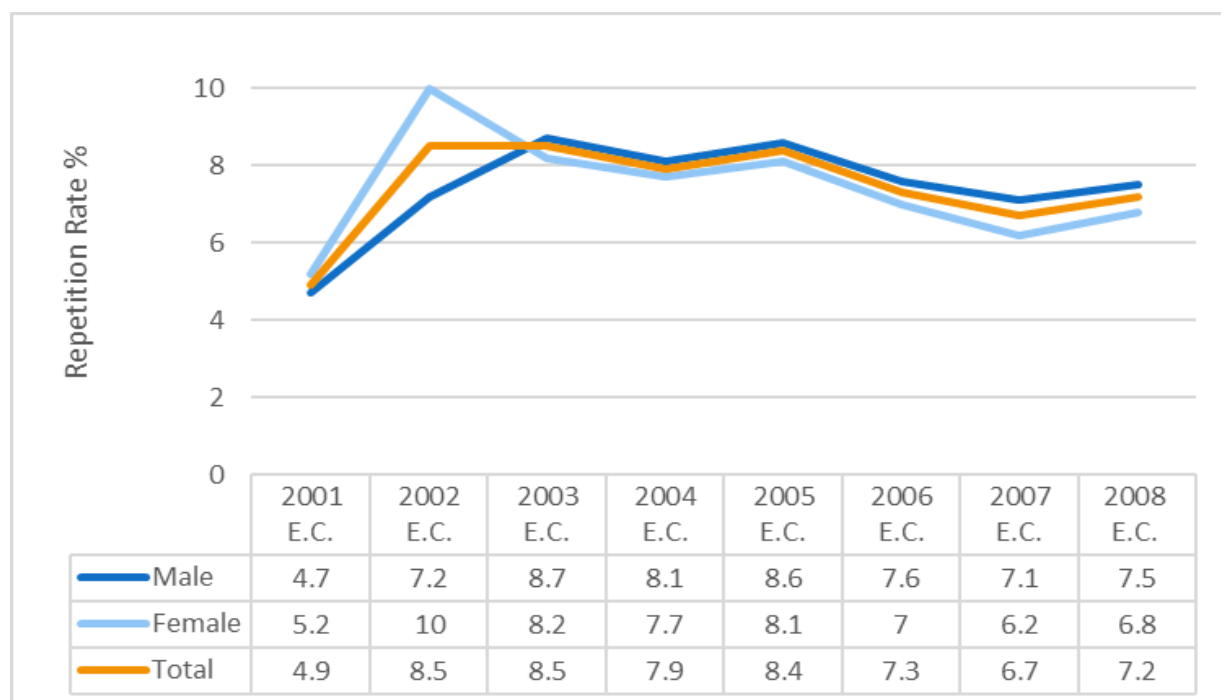
Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

As the grade level increases, the repetition gap increases. It can be seen that repetition rates are highest in grade 8, where students need to pass the grade 8 exam to complete primary education. Boys’ repetition is higher in every grade compared to females, with an increased difference between sexes in grades 5, 6, and 7.

Figure 3-24 shows the trend in the repetition rate. Male repetition rate is slightly higher over the years since 2003 E.C.

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Figure 3.24: Repetition Rates split by Grade, 2008 E.C. (2015/16)



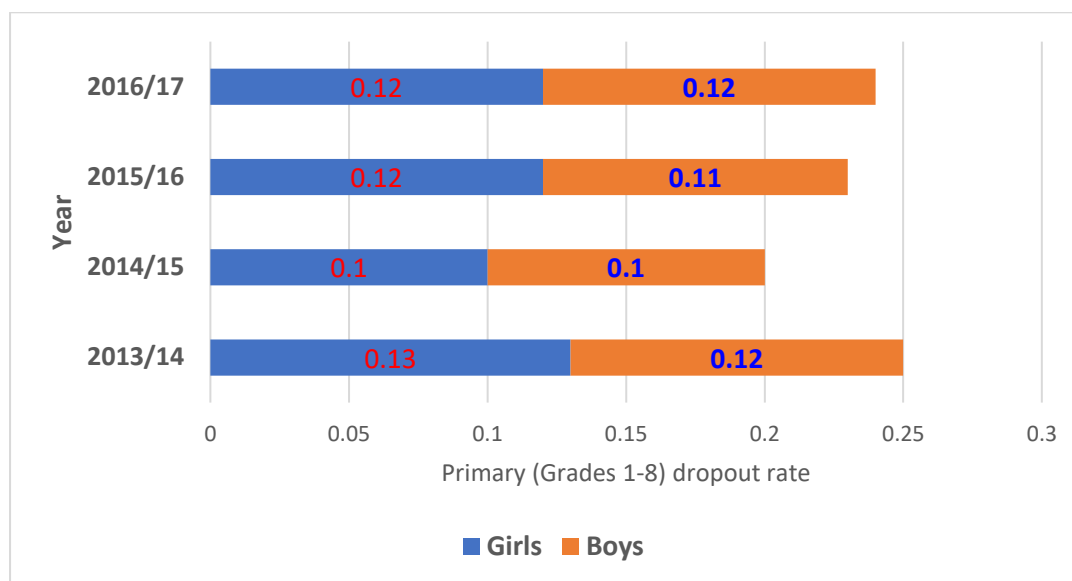
Source: Ministry of Education, 2017

3.4.4.Dropout Rate

As shown in Figure 3-25 below shows that there is no difference between girls and boys pertaining to the dropout rate in the primary cycle for the years 2014/15 and 2016/17; girls have a slightly higher dropout rate in the years 2013/14 and 2015/16.

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Figure 3.25: Primary (1-8) dropout rate by sex and years, Country Total



Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

Table 3-22 draws the sex-disaggregated statistics of primary cycle (grade 1-8) dropout rate for the last four years (2013/14 to 2016/17). It was observed that there was a relatively higher dropout rate for girl students in the primary level (1-8) in the majority of the regions and reported years. In 2016/17, there was no dropout for girls in Addis Ababa City Administration. The highest dropout rate was observed in the Afar region (0.27%), followed by Oromia (0.15%) region.

It can be seen that drop out becomes negative in Afar in 2013/14, SNNP in 2015/16, and in Addis Ababa City Administration and Dire Dawa Administrations in 2015/16. The reason may happen either due to double registration (a student may register in two nearby schools) or data quality problems.

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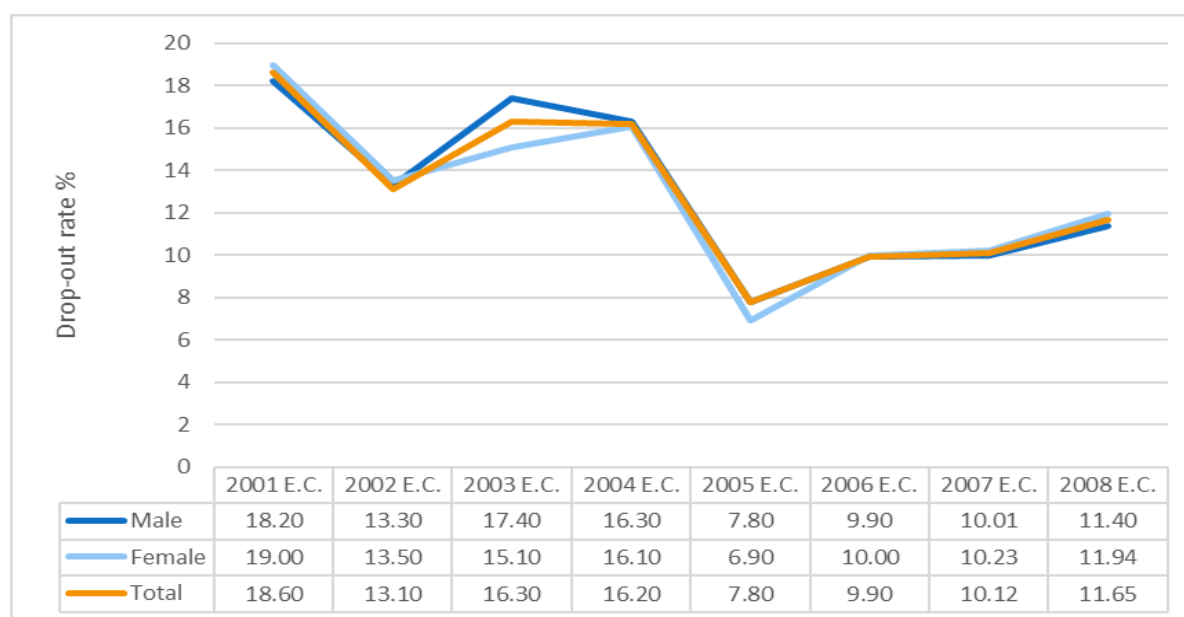
Table 3.22: Primary (1-8) dropout rate by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17	
	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
Country Total	0.13	0.12	0.10	0.10	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.12
Tigray	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.05
Afar	0.01	-0.16	0.42	0.47	0.12	0.13	0.27	0.24
Amhara	0.08	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.13	0.15	0.09	0.10
Oromia	0.16	0.16	0.10	0.08	0.13	0.12	0.15	0.14
Somali	0.15	0.15	0.35	0.33	0.17	0.11	0.06	0.09
Beni. Gumuz	0.14	0.12	0.08	0.07	0.16	0.15	0.09	0.09
SNNP	0.09	0.08	0.12	0.10	-0.03	-0.05	0.12	0.12
Gambela	0.11	0.07	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.12	0.14
Harari	0.13	0.09	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.11	0.09
Addis Ababa	0.15	0.07	0.01	0.03	-0.17	-0.11	0.00	-0.01
Dire Dawa	0.13	0.12	0.08	0.06	-0.07	-0.08	0.09	0.08

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

Dropout rates have increased slightly over the last years, and grade 1-8 dropout rates were 11.65% in 2016/17. Dropout is much lower than it was 6 years ago (2007/8). Dropout is highest in grade 1, at 18%. This means that many children join in grade 1 and then leave the education system within the next year. Dropout in the rest of the grades is around 9%.

Figure 3.26: Trends in Dropout Rates by Sex, Grade 1-8, 2001 E.C. to 2008 E.C.



Source: Ministry of Education, 2016

3.4.5. Survival Rate to Grade 5

The survival rate to grade 5 is used to estimate the percentage of students who will complete the first cycle of primary education. The completion of at least 4 years of schooling is considered a prerequisite for a sustainable literacy level. Survival rates approaching 100% indicate a high level of retention and low incidence of dropouts⁷. The reliability of this indicator depends on the consistency of data on enrollment and repeaters, both in terms of coverage overtime and across grades. A “synthetic cohort method” is applied to calculate this rate by assuming a group of pupils, typically 1,000 who are enrolled together and proceed to the 5th grade, sometimes with repetition up to two times, and sometimes without.

In this regard, Figure 3-27 shows that the survival rates of students to grade 5 in Ethiopia in 2016/17 for females and males were 53.4% and 53.6%, respectively. The

⁷ <http://uis.unesco.org/en/glossary-term/survival-rate-grade>

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statistics show that the trend in survival rate shows a very slight increase in the last three years.

Figure 3.27: Trends in Survival Rate to Grade 5 by Sex



Source: Ministry of Education, 2017

As shown in Table 3.23 below, the survival rate to grade 5 reaches 84% in Tigray and 80% in Addis Ababa, while in Gambella, SNNPR, Oromia, and Afar, the survival rate was less than 50%. Afar has a particularly the lowest survival rate at 28% for males and 30% for females.

Table 3.23: Survival Rate to Grade 5 by region, 2016/17

Region	Survival rate to grade five (%)
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	Male	Female	Total
Tigray	83	85	84
Afar	28	30	29
Amhara	70	77	74
Oromiya	47	45	46
Somali	58	45	52
Benishangul Gumuz	75	69	72
SNNP	46	45	46
Gambella	48	50	49
Harari	54	48	51
Addis Ababa	83	77	80
Dire Dawa	54	48	51
Total	54	53	53

Source: Ministry of Education, 2017

3.4.6.Primary Completion Rate (PCR)

Internationally the PCR is an established measure of the outcomes of an education system. It is used to compare the overall access and quality of the education system in a county.

The PCR is highly dependent on the accuracy of the single age population for both measurement points (for grade 5, age 11, and for grade 8, age 14) and the accurate measurement of repeaters in each grade. Considering adjustments for Ethiopian approaches to the calculation of both values, i.e., single age ranges and repeaters, a steady upward trend in completion rates is important.

The survival rate to grade 5 is used to estimate the percentage of students who will complete the first cycle of primary education. The completion of at least 4 years of schooling is considered a prerequisite for a sustainable literacy level. Survival rates approaching 100% indicate a high level of retention and low incidence of dropouts. The reliability of this indicator depends on the consistency of data on enrollment and repeaters, both in terms of coverage overtime and across grades. A synthetic cohort

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method is applied to calculate this rate by assuming a group of pupils, typically 1,000 who are enrolled together and proceed to the 5th grade, sometimes with repetition up to two times, and sometimes without.

For instance, the survival rate in 2016/2017 for females and males' students was 53.4% and 53.6%, respectively. The trend in survival rate shows a very slight increase. The government's target was 59% for females and 57% for males. However, these targets have not been achieved for either gender, and improvements in the retention of students need to be made.

Similarly, the government's target for grade 8 completion rate for 2017 was 55%, and as can be seen from the figures below, this target has been met only for males in the same year. Compared to 2009/2010, the completion rate for grade five has increased from 75.6% to 85.2% in 2016/17, and the completion rate for grade 8 has increased from 47.8% to 54.1% during the same period.

The gender disparity in terms of completion is also visible, and females' completion rate is lower than male students.

Table 3.24: Trends in Grade 5 and 8 Completion Rates (%)

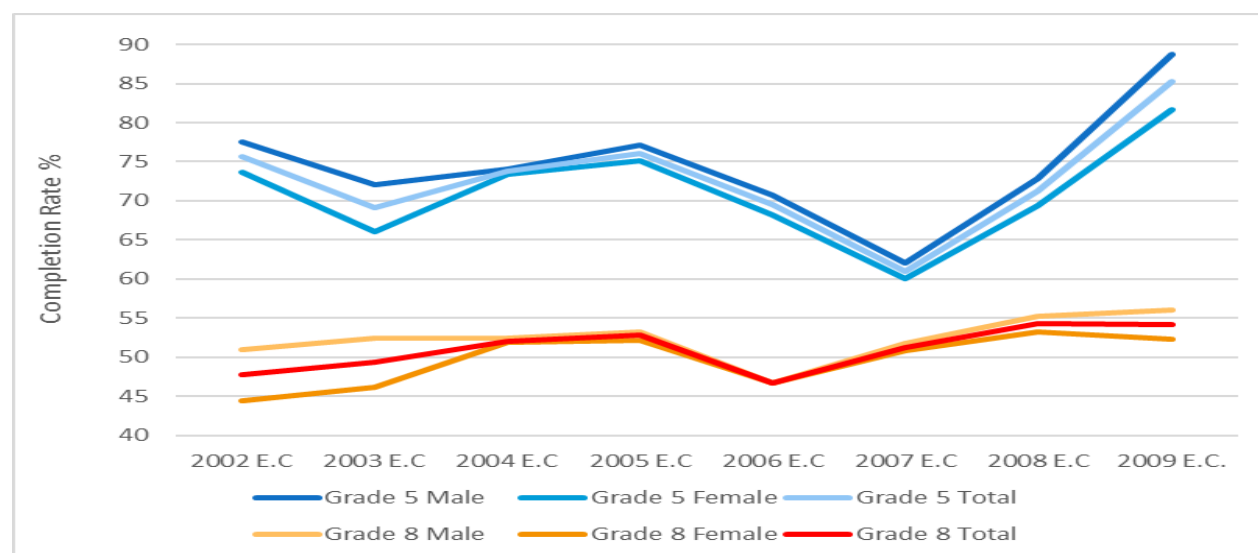
Year	Grade 5			Grade 8		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2009/10	77.5	73.7	75.6	51.0	44.5	47.8
2010/11	72.0	66.1	69.1	52.5	46.2	49.4
2011/12	74.1	73.4	73.8	52.4	51.9	52.1
2012/13	77.1	75.1	76.1	53.3	52.2	52.8
2013/14	70.7	68.2	69.5	46.7	46.7	46.7
2014/15	62.0	60.0	61.0	51.8	50.9	51.3
2015/16	72.8	69.4	71.2	55.3	53.3	54.3
2016/17	88.7	81.7	85.2	56.0	52.2	54.1

Source: MOE, EMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

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Figure 3-28 provides grade 5 and 8 completion rates from 2002 to 2009 E.C (2009/10 to 2016/17). Though there is variation, the data shows a slight increase in the completion rate. However, there is no significant difference between male and female completion rates.

Figure 3.28: Trends in Grade 5 and 8 Completion Rates



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017

As shown in Table 3.25 below, the survival rate to grade 5 reaches 84% in Tigray and 80% in Addis Ababa, while in Gambella, SNNPR, Oromia, and Afar, the survival rate was less than 50%. Afar has a particularly low survival rate at 28% for males and 30% for females. In this academic year, the female survivor rate was higher in Tigray and Amhara regions.

Table 3.25: Survival Rate to Grade 5 by region,2016/17

Region	Survival rate to grade five (%)		
	Male	Female	Total
Tigray	83	85	84
Afar	28	30	29
Amhara	70	77	74
Oromiya	47	45	46
Somali	58	45	52
Benishangul Gumuz	75	69	72
SNNP	46	45	46
Gambella	48	50	49
Harari	54	48	51
Addis Ababa	83	77	80
Dire Dawa	54	48	51
Total	54	53	53

Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017

3.4.7.Examination Results

According to the Ethiopian education and training policy, a regional examination is given at grade 8 to certify completion of primary education. The Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination (EGSECE) is given at grade 10 to certify general secondary education and select students who qualify for preparatory education. The Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination (EHEECE) is given in grade 12 to place students in higher education institutions.

The reader should note that a new educational system has been implemented since the 2020/2021 academic year, and the Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination (EGSECE) will not be given at grade 10.

3.4.7.1. Grade 8 Examinations

As it can be seen in Table 3-26below, nationally, 88% of students achieve a mark that allows them to be promoted and to proceed on to secondary school in the year 2015/16. Nationally slightly more males get promoted compared to females to secondary education. However, in Tigray, Somali, Benishangul-Gumuz, and Dire

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Dawa, proportionally more females are promoted out of those who sat for the exam during the same year.

Table 3.26: Grade 8 Examination Results (2015/16)

Region	Sat for Exam			Promoted			% Promoted		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Tigray	53,768	54,692	108,460	49,376	50,602	99,978	92	93	92
Afar	3,530	2,025	5,555	3,198	1,823	5,021	91	90	90
Amhara	143,640	156,247	299,887	123,379	135,803	259,182	86	87	86
Oromiya	193,617	164,725	358,342	184,491	154,199	338,690	95	94	95
Somali	16,613	8,195	24,808	14,101	7,414	21,515	85	90	87
Beni. Gumuz	9,652	6,357	16,009	7,205	5,399	12,604	75	85	79
SNNP	154,775	132,588	287,363	135,334	110,605	245,939	87	83	86
Gambella	7,988	5,504	13,492	6,657	4,589	11,246	83	83	83
Harari	1,401	1,173	2,574	1,260	1,151	2,411	90	98	94
Addis Ababa	27,566	37,179	64,745	20,908	24,846	45,754	76	67	71
Dire Dawa	2,775	2,342	5,117	2,139	1,920	4,059	77	82	79
Total	615,325	571,027	1,186,352	548,048	498,351	1,046,399	89	87	88

Source: MOE, *Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017*

3.4.7.2. Grade 10 Examinations

Table 3-27 and Figure 3-29 below show the trend over 8 years (from 2009/10 to 2016/17) for those that have achieved the pass mark. As can be seen from the trend, the percentage of students achieving the pass mark was only 63.3% in 2009/2010 and increased to 70.4% in 2016/17. However, female students scored less than male students in all the reporting periods. For instance, in the 2016/17 academic year, 74.3% of male students scored pass marks, whereas only 65.9% of female students were able to score the pass mark.

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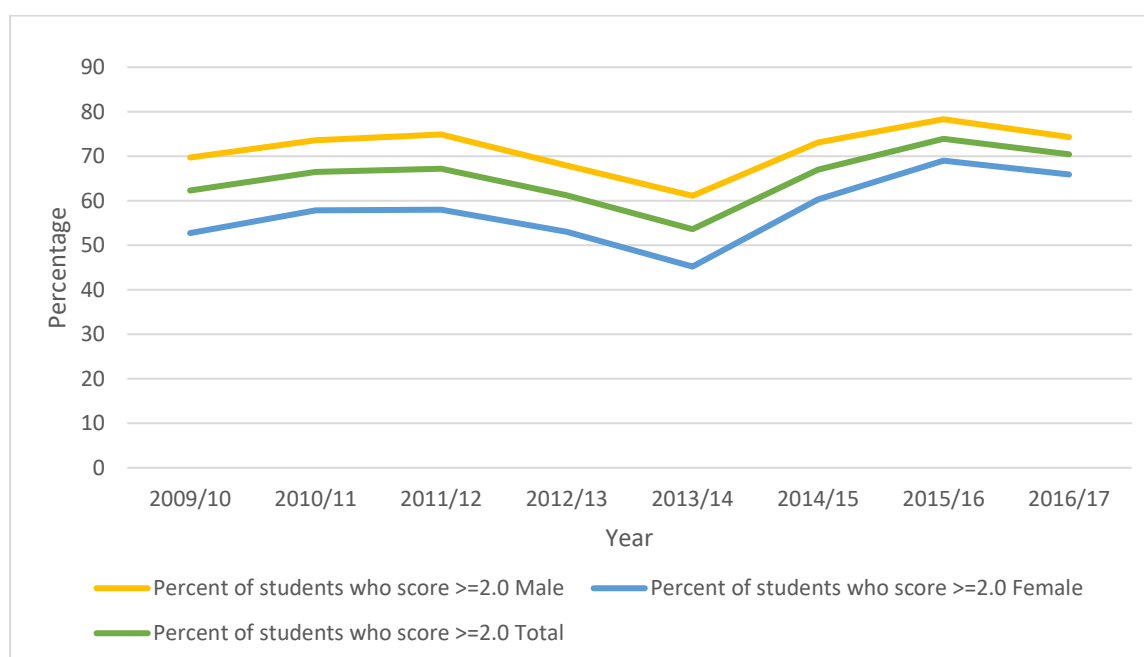
Table 3.27 Trends in Grade 10 Examination Results (2009/10 - 2016/17)

Year	Total Scored ≥ 2.0			Percent of students who score ≥ 2.0		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2009/10	206,641	120,860	327,501	69.7	52.7	62.3
2010/11	229,087	145,689	374,776	73.6	57.8	66.5
2011/12	212,521	137,093	349,614	74.9	58	67.2
2012/13	283,783	179,478	463,261	67.9	53	61.2
2013/14	282,214	183,558	465,772	61.1	45.2	53.6
2014/15	382,216	282,088	664,304	73.1	60.3	67
2015/16	421,707	339,054	760,761	78.3	69	73.9
2016/17	466371	366106	832477	74.3	65.9	70.4

Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017

In 2013/14 the score was the lowest observed.

Figure 3.29: Trends in Grade 10 Examination Results 2009/10 - 2016/17



Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017

3.4.7.3. Grade 12 Examination Results

Grade 12 Examination Results In 2009 E.C., 97.55% of students received a score over 200. This is a slight decline on the same statistics for 2007, where 99% of students received over 200, but a small increase since the 97.4% of 2008. 41.27% of students received over 350, which is the pass mark for the grade 12 examination. This shows a decline since the 49.5% achieved in 2008. Table 3:28 Grade 12 examination results, (2016/17).

Table 3.28: Grade 12 Examination Results, 2016/17

Score	Number	Score	Cumulative Number
<= 200	6,992	>= 0	285,628
201-225	10,163	> 200	278,636
226-249	16,651	> 225	268,473
250-275	25,686	> 249	251,822
276-300	32,150	> 275	226,136
301-325	37,821	> 300	193,986
326-349	38,296	> 325	156,165
350-375	38,063	> 349	117,869
376-400	29,152	> 375	79,806
401-425	21,367	> 400	50,654
426-450	13,614	> 425	29,287
451-475	7,602	> 450	15,673
476-500	4,033	> 475	8,071
501-525	2,259	> 500	4,038
526-550	1,046	> 525	1,779
551-575	501	> 550	733
576-600	187	> 575	232
601-700	45	> 600	45

Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2017

3.5. Gender Parity Index in Tertiary Education

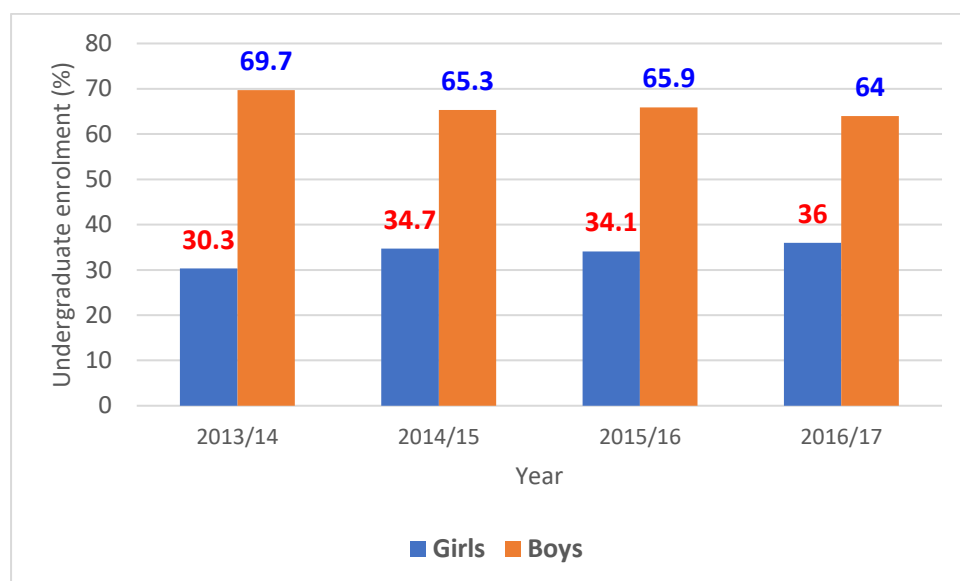
According to the latest data, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) for gross enrollment in tertiary education (university enrolment) in Ethiopia amounted to 0.48 as of 2014. This indicates that significantly more males were enrolled in tertiary education than females. Over the observed period, males were more advantaged in learning opportunities, with the ratio fluctuating between 0.27 in 2001 and 0.48 in 2014. Although it is a long way from closing the discrepancy in tertiary education, the gender gap between males and females in education is decreasing⁸.

A four-year data (2013/14 to 2016/17) given in Figure 3.30 below shows that females' admission to undergraduate programs in Ethiopia is far below than male students admission. For instance, female students' highest admission rate in undergraduate programs was 36% compared to 64% for males in the 2016/17 academic year. Moreover, no significant changes were observed in the enrolment rate during the stated periods. Similarly, few female students were admitted to the postgraduate program was below 25% and below 11% in PhD programs during 2013/14 to 2016/17.

⁸<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1261646/gender-parity-index-for-tertiary-school-enrollment-in-ethiopia/>

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Figure 3.30: Percent of students admitted to the undergraduate program by sex and year, Country Total



Source: CAS, MOE 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17

3.6. Teachers in General education

3.6.1. Distribution of Teachers by sex, Region, and Employer

There are 583,461 teachers in kindergarten, primary and secondary schools across Ethiopia. The 23,467 teachers work in kindergarten, 461,064 in primary schools, and 98,930 in secondary schools. Across all levels, the majority of teachers are male at 61.6%. However, in kindergarten schools, this is reversed, with 93% of teachers being female. Oromia, Amhara, and SNNPR have the greatest number of teachers, with the majority working in primary schools. Addis Ababa has the highest proportion of kindergarten teachers, with 25% of all teaching staff in the region working in this sector. Across all regions, except Ethiopia-Somali, the proportion of teachers in secondary schools stays fairly constant, with a range between 16%-22% of the teaching population working in the secondary sector. In Ethiopia-Somali, only 1% of teachers work in secondary schools. This low figure might be due to the under-reporting of teachers in this region.

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Table 3.29: Number of Teachers across all sectors, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)

Region	Kindergarten			Primary school			Secondary school			Total		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Tigray	16	791	807	17,068	16,500	33,568	6,265	1,705	7,970	23,349	18,996	42,345
Afar	24	62	86	1,931	642	2,573	447	47	494	2,402	751	3,153
Amhara	56	1,678	1,734	67,191	57,026	124,217	20,452	6,501	26,953	87,699	65,205	152,904
Oromiya	647	6,679	7,326	88,906	61,831	150,737	27,123	4,906	32,029	116,676	73,416	190,092
Somali	35	7	42	8,512	1,035	9,547	96	12	108	8,643	1,054	9,697
Beni. Gumuz	8	101	109	4,397	1,972	6,369	1,153	187	1,340	5,558	2,260	7,818
SNNP	446	2,638	3,084	74,033	31,893	105,926	17,749	3,766	21,515	92,228	38,297	130,525
Gambella	50	75	125	2,208	620	2,828	757	90	847	3,015	785	3,800
Harari	15	214	229	983	786	1,769	247	54	301	1,245	1,054	2,299
Addis Ababa	271	9,331	9,602	10,659	10,532	21,191	5,535	1,224	6,759	16,465	21,087	37,552
Dire Dawa	39	284	323	1,519	820	2,339	544	70	614	2,102	1,174	3,276
National	1,607	21,860	23,467	277,407	183,657	461,064	80,368	18,562	98,930	359,382	224,079	583,461

Source: Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2017

3.6.2. Government and Non-Government Distribution of Teachers

Most of the teachers in Ethiopia work in government schools, with 89% (518,542) teachers working in these institutions. At the kindergarten level, the inverse is true, with 90% of teachers working in non-government institutions. Table 3.30 shows the number of teachers in government schools.

Table 3.30 Teachers' Distribution in Government and Non-Government by Region, 2016/17

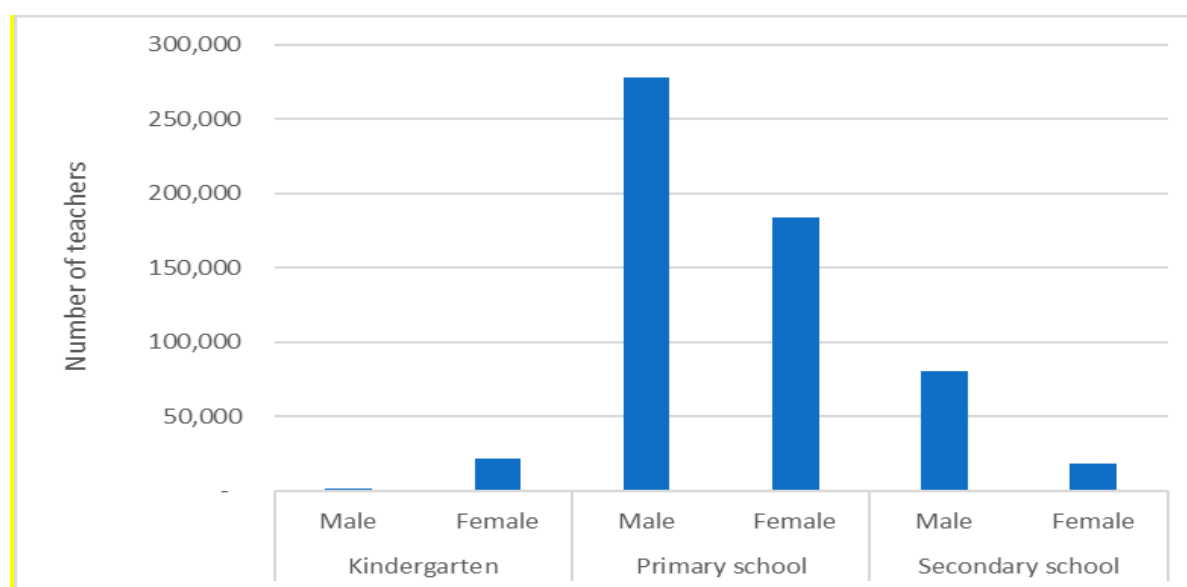
Region	Government		Non-government	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Tigray	22,440	17,816	909	1,180
Afar	2,309	674	93	77
Amhara	86,407	62,895	1,292	2,310
Oromiya	109,756	63,780	6,920	9,636
Somali	8,116	988	527	66
Benishangul-Gumuz	5,474	2,150	84	110
SNNP	80,930	30,315	11,298	7,982
Gambella	2,825	662	190	123
Harari	959	702	286	352

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Addis Ababa	8,412	8,523	8,053	12,564
Dire Dawa	1,652	757	450	417
National	329,280	189,262	30,102	34,817

Source: Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2017

Figure 3.31: Sex Disaggregation of Teachers by Sector, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)



Source: Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2017

Table 3.31 shows the split of teachers between the different cycles within primary and secondary schools in Ethiopia. Most teachers in Ethiopia are in the first cycle of primary education, with 79% of teachers in this cycle. In every region, there are more primary teachers in the first cycle of primary compared to the second cycle.

In Tigray, Amhara, Oromia, Harari, and Addis Ababa female teachers are higher than male in the first primary cycle schools. However, in other cycles, male teachers are higher than female teachers. This shows that school enrolment rate is also reflected in

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the teaching profession. This shows that the gender disparity is still high in the schools. Therefore, a lot has to be done to reduce the gender gap.

Table 3.31 Number of Teachers by Cycle, 2009 E.C. (2016/17)

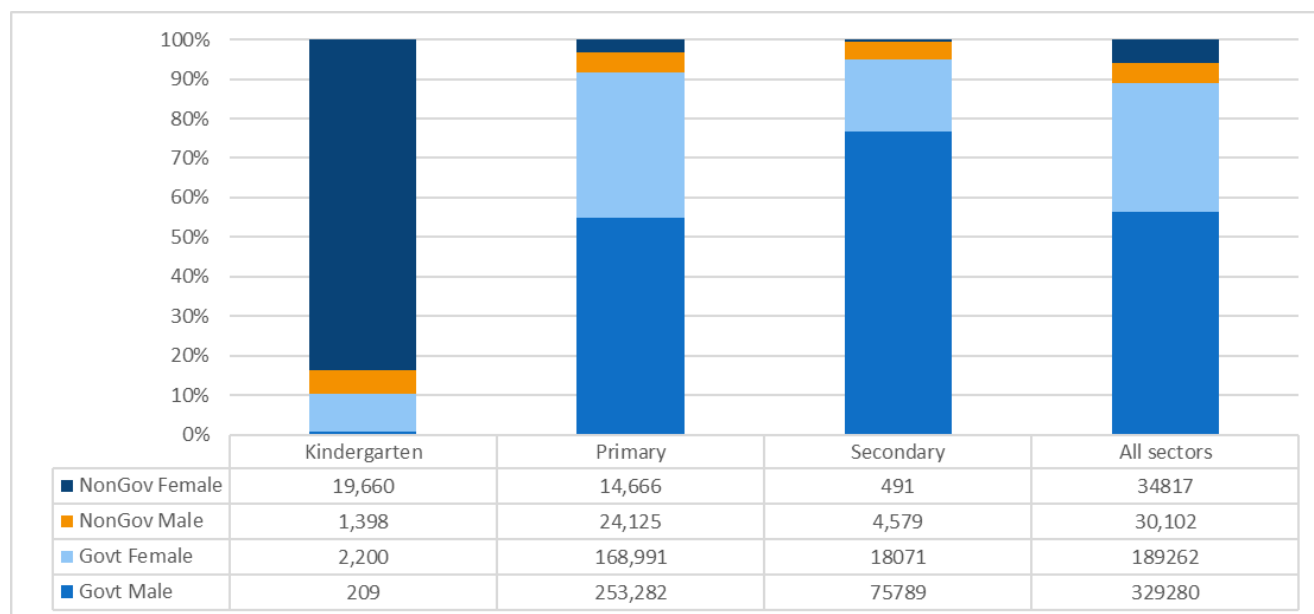
Region	1 to 4		5 to 8		9 to 10		11 to 12	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Tigray	7,080	9,715	9,908	4,873	4,787	1,517	1,478	188
Afar	859	311	674	212	316	36	131	11
Amhara	31,716	39,136	35,346	17,692	14,852	5,688	5,600	813
Oromiya	40,749	41,037	46,298	17,901	20,426	4,337	6,697	569
Somali	7,185	875	1,327	160	56	6	40	6
Benishangul-Gumuz	2,401	1,366	1,996	606	890	166	263	21
SNRP	33,306	17,685	33,968	9,848	13,962	3,313	3,787	453
Gambella	1,131	355	1,077	265	599	76	158	14
Harari	474	491	507	292	171	44	76	10
Addis Ababa	3,844	6,034	5,938	3,344	3,455	902	2,080	322
Dire Dawa	814	551	705	269	388	57	156	13
National	129,559	117,556	137,744	55,462	59,902	16,142	20,466	2,420

Source: Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2017

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Figure 3-32 below shows that the government was a major employer of teachers in its primary and secondary schools in 2017.

Figure 3.32 Number of Teachers in Government and Non-Government Schools by Sex, 2016/17



Source: Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2017

3.7. Concluding Remarks

From the above discussions, it can be concluded that females fall behind their male counterparts in almost all educational-related indicators such as student enrollment in primary and secondary education, involvement in teaching, and attendance in adult learning. Research shows that girls' access to primary and secondary education is deterred by factors such as early marriage, living in rural areas, financial barriers, cultural barriers, gender-insensitive school environments, and lack of political will⁹.

Regional disparity is another major factor in Ethiopia. For instance, net enrollment rates for primary education vary from 97% in Gambella to 32% in Afar in 2011. Afar and Somali regions have the lowest enrollment rates for basic reasons. The first is the history of access to education in Ethiopia, which has been limited to the urban and accessible areas in the country. The second is the settlement patterns in these regions. The Afar and Somali communities are predominantly pastoralists, with nomadic lifestyles. Consequently, ensuring sustainable enrollment patterns in these two regions is one of the long-standing challenges of education in the country¹⁰.

In Ethiopia, unlike the trends in developed countries, the participation of female students in higher levels of education (graduate and postgraduate levels) significantly decreases as we move upward. For instance, the highest percentage of female admission to graduate, postgraduate (masters), and PhD program programs was 36%, 25%, and 11% respectively during 2013/14 to 2016/17 academic years (MOE, 2018).

Therefore, attention should be given, and appropriate strategies should be designed to increase the participation of females in higher education both as a student and teacher.

⁹ Bolton, L. (2019). Gender parity in education in Ethiopia.K4D Helpdesk Report 719. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

¹⁰Abraha Asfaw. (2012). Gender Inequalities in Tertiary Education in Ethiopia: Mediating the Transition to University through the Development of Adaptive Competencies.

Chapter Four

Demography and Health

4.1. Demography and Health

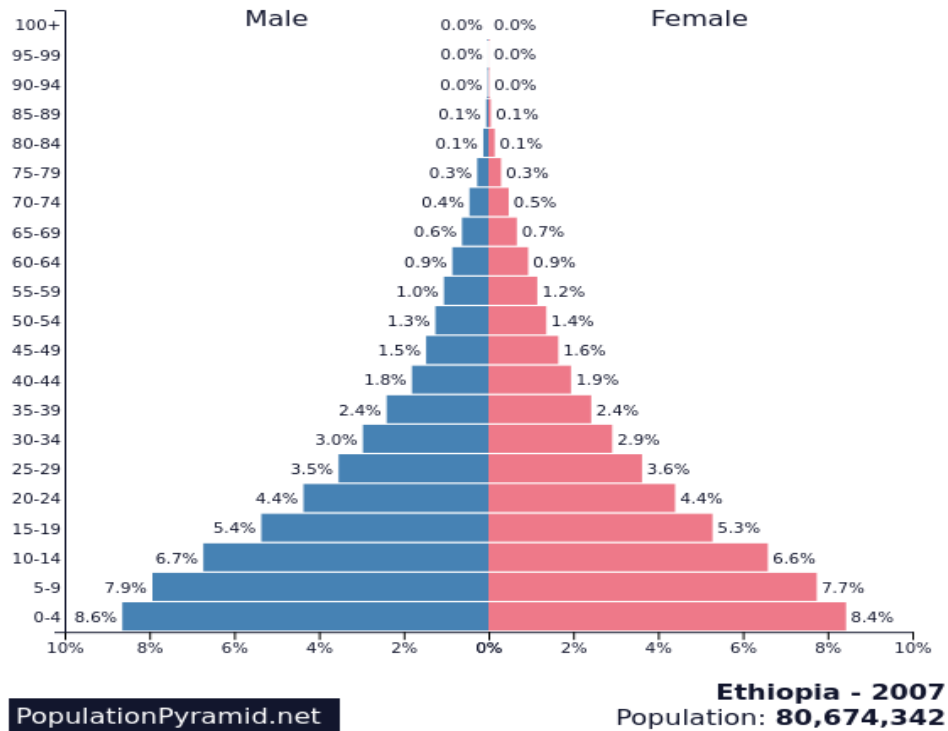
This section includes statistical sex-disaggregated statistics on female and male population demography and health-related indicators at the national and regional levels. Demographic/population-related indicators give us a broad picture of demographic developments in different cultures and locations. The population and housing census (conducted in 1994, 2007, and 2020 population projection) assess demographic trends and gender issues at the national and regional levels. The DHS survey conducted in 2000, 2005, 2011, 2016, and 2020 provide data on fertility, wasting, stunting, anemia, child immunization, adult and maternal mortality, contraceptive use and reproductive health, HIV prevalence, and violence such as circumcision and sexual violence is retrieved Population

The census of the population provides information on the age and sex distribution of the country in addition to demography composition and size, all of which are vital in determining the needs of different segments of the population, including women and men in different regions of the country.

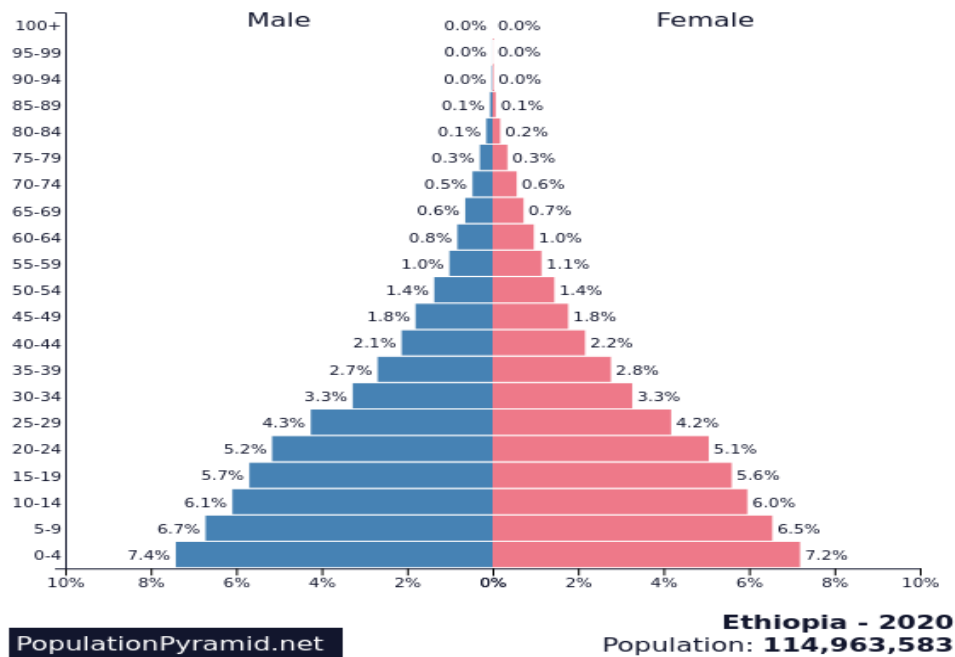
In Ethiopia, there was a population census in 1984, 1994, and 2007. Figure 4.1 depicts Ethiopia's population distribution by age groups, as per the 2007 and world bank 2020 population projections. As a result, for both sexes, a higher proportion of the population with younger ages (below 20 years) than older ages (65 years and above) have been recorded for the reported years. The highest population appears to be in the age category of 5-9 years in 2007 census and 2020 population projection, while the lowest appears to be in the age group of 70-74 years. Young females are increasing at nearly the same rate as young males, while there are fewer female-to-male ratios in older age groups.

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Figure 4.1: Population Pyramid of Ethiopia, 2007 and 2020



Source: Source: [CSA, 2007](#), [UN 2020 population project](#) and PopulationPyramid.net



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Source: *UN 2020 population project* and PopulationPyramid.net

It should be noted that The vertical axis represents the age category, whereas the horizontal axis represents the percentage of males and females in that particular age category from the total population. For instance, in the age category of 0-4 years, males represent represent 7.4% and 7.2% of the total population, respectively.

Furthermore, between 1994 and 2007, the 2020 world population project, there appeared to be an increase in the population of young people (Table 4.1). For Both the 1994 and 2007 census years, the male-female sex ratio is higher for age groups less than 20 years and over 55 years. Between the two censuses, this also demonstrates a rising population trend. In addition, the female population in the middle age group (30-44 years) is growing faster than the male population. However, between 1994 and 2007, there was a progressive fall in the female population in senior age categories (over 45 years).

Table 4.1: Sex ratio of the population by age group of Ethiopia: 1994 and 2020 projection

	2007 census (CSA)			2020 projection		
	Male	Female	M/F ratio	Male	Female	M/F ratio
All Ages	37,217,130	36,533,802	101.9	57516834	57446748	103.012
0-4	5,482,792	5,314,230	103.2	8520306	8271178	102.5905
5-9	6,106,788	5,874,976	103.9	7720508	7525556	102.1147
10-14	5,412,324	4,999,913	108.2	6999073	6854126	101.7194
15-19	4,454,710	4,293,338	103.8	6543197	6432598	101.9688
20-24	3,098,338	3,303,747	93.8	5930683	5816173	101.8176
25-29	2,622,759	3,039,429	86.3	4889739	4802450	100.1013
30-34	2,088,208	2,131,858	98	3761349	3757544	97.11927
35-39	1,827,296	1,949,346	93.7	3091148	3182837	98.27606
40-44	1,464,529	1,408,451	104	2445523	2488422	101.8813
45-49	1,150,017	1,097,287	104.8	2071480	2033228	94.3907

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50-54	928,294	962,472	96.4	1567789	1660957	88.04878
55-59	634,053	536,967	118.1	1159002	1316318	85.3041
60-64	646,359	588,641	109.8	946594	1109670	88.37345
65-69	446,242	359,019	124.3	735747	832543	83.24182
70-74	359,897	316,663	113.7	539874	648561	84.89766
	494,524	357,465	138.3	340207	400726	84.89766

Source: CSA 2007, population census

As indicated in the above table, the number of women in the last two census and world population projects at the age group of 20- 40 are greater than men counterparts than other age groups. However, the shape of the population pyramid is varied over the years in the country. Development policies and plans are formulated in the population pyramid to exploit the productive population group and plan the required needs of the huge population group as per the pyramid. The development actors and policymakers should plan to respond to the reproductive needs and empowerment needs of the huge number of youth and women.

Table 4.2: Percentage of population by sex, region and census Years

Region	1994		2007	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	47.8	52.2	48	52
Tigray	50.7	49.3	50.9	49.1
Afar	44.2	55.8	44.4	55.6
Amhara	49.8	50.2	50	50
Oromia	49.6	50.4	49.8	50.2
Somali	44.4	55.6	44.4	55.6
Benishangul- Gumuz	49.2	50.8	49.3	50.7
SNNP	50.3	49.7	50.4	49.6
Gambela	48	52	48.4	51.6
Harari	49.7	50.3	50.2	49.8

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Addis Ababa	52.4	47.6	52.8	47.2
Dire Dawa	49.8	50.2	50.2	49.8

Source: CSA 1994, 2007 population census

The percentage distribution of the population by sex across the regions and census years is shown in Table 4-2. As a result, males outnumber females in the areas, except for Addis Ababa city administration, Tigray, and the SNNP region. Between the two censuses, there is a general trend of increasing female population in all regions. The largest disparities in male and female populations may be seen in the Afar and Somali regions.

- The assessment team tried to triangulate why the number of women in Afar and Somali is much lower than men compared to other regions in Ethiopia. As per different studies, In Afar and Somali regions, the life expectancy of women is much lower than men, and the number of women and child mortality in these regions is higher due to harmful traditional practices and deep-rooted gender inequality, and less SRH coverage and utilization. Some of the study's findings: Based on the 2016 EDHS report, the Afar region takes the largest under-five mortality rate, in which 125 deaths of children per 1000 live births were recorded. Baby girl's under-five mortality is higher than baby boys' mortality.
- The life expectancy among women in the Afar region (47 years) is far less than that of males (53 years), adding to the concern above that the highly masculine sex ratio of 124 males (per 100 females) might be the result of excess female mortality. This is the reverse of the common finding, all around the world, of a higher female than male life expectancy.

The following table indicated the higher infant mortality, child mortality, and life expectancy in the Afar region than in another country.

Table 4:3 Sex Difference in Mortality & Life Expectancy

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Differences between males and females in mortality rates and life expectancy			
Region	Infant Mortality Rate (Male - Female)	Child Mortality Rate (Male - Female)	Life Expectancy (Male - Female)
Addis Ababa	18	26.4	-3.7
Afar	-26	-56	6.1
Amhara	20	19	-2.6
Benshangul	14	7	-1.0
Dire Dawa	15	11	-1.7
Gambella	9	4	-0.7
Harari	2	-11	0.9
Oromiya	20	18	-2.5
Southern	20	16	-2.1
Tigray	23	23	-2.8

Source: EDHS 2016 and EHI

In the Somali region, the number of women in the Somali region is also far lower than in the other areas female- men disparities. Different reasons may explain the lower women number of women in the area as follows:

- In the Somali region, FGM prevalence is about 98.2%. It is beyond the national average, which is the Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (age 15-49) at the national level is 65.2% and, it increased the risk factor of maternal mortality at the time of delivery. Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C) remains a major concern in the Somali region. It is deep-rooted, having been practiced for perhaps thousands of years.
- By region, teenage childbearing is highest in Afar (23%) and Somali (19%) and lowest in Addis Ababa (3%) and Amhara (8%) (EDHS 2016)
- As per the 2016 EDHS, the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) is highest in the Somali region in Ethiopia (7.2 children per woman), which is far above the national, which is 4.6. if the TFR of a woman is higher with a lack of skilled delivery, the probability of maternal mortality increases.

4.2. Life expectancy at birth and Mortality

4.2.1. Life expectancy

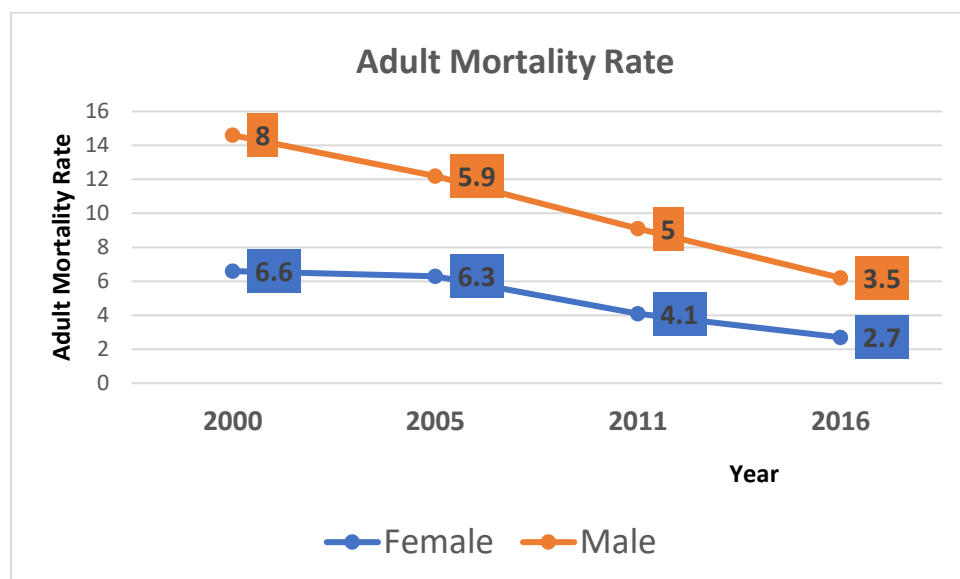
In the 2020 UN report, life expectancy at birth for Ethiopia was 66.95 years. Over the last 50 years, life expectancy at birth of Ethiopia grew substantially from 43.21 to 66.95 years, rising at an increasing annual rate that reached a maximum of 1.98% in 2007 and then decreased to 0.53% in 2020. In 2020, life expectancy at birth for women in Ethiopia was about 68.91 years, while life expectancy at birth for men was about 65.04 years on average. In Afar and Harari regions, life expectancy at birth was higher for males than that of a female, unlike the rest of the regions where the female has scored higher life expectancy.

4.2.2. Adult Maternal Mortality

Adult maternal mortality indicators can be used to assess the health status of the population. Estimation of these mortality rates requires complete and accurate data on adult and pregnancy-related deaths. As per the 2016 EDHS adult mortality report, Women and men who have reached age 15 have a probability of dying before age 50 of 10% and 12%, respectively. Figure 4-2 shows the adult mortality rate (age 15-49) per 1000 population by sex and survey year at the country level (2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016). Between 2000 and 2016, there appears to be a steady downward trend in adult mortality for both sexes. In particular, the female adult mortality rate fell from 6.6 percent in 2000 to 2.7 percent in 2016.

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Figure 4. 2 Adult Mortality (Age 15-49) rate per 1000 Population by sex and year, Country Total



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2015

Similarly, the adult mortality rate for both sexes looked to be dropping consistently across the regions (Table 4-4). Male adult mortality in the Somali region has increased somewhat (from 4.3 percent in 2000 to 5.4 percent in 2016). Furthermore, females' lowest adult mortality rate was found in the Benishangul-Gumuz region (2.3 percent) in 2016, while the lowest rate for males was found in Harari (2.3 percent).

Table 4. 4 Adult Mortality (Age 15-49) rate per 1000 Population by sex, region, and year

Region	2000		2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	6.6	8.0	6.3	5.9	4.1	5.0	2.7	3.5
Tigray	6.2	8.7	4.6	6.7	3.8	3.9	2.9	3.4
Afar	14.7	10.6	8.2	7.6	7.9	5.3	4.7	4.5
Amhara	7.9	7.7	8.5	6.1	3.9	5.2	2.4	3.2
Oromia	6.4	7.4	5.6	5.4	3.9	4.7	2.8	3.2
Somali	7.2	4.3	3.6	5.5	4.8	5.3	3.5	5.4

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Benishangul-Gumuz	7.0	7.0	10.2	9.4	4.6	4.0	2.3	3.7
SNNP	5.5	8.1	5.7	5.4	3.9	4.3	2.5	4.2
Gambela	12.4	12.2	8.6	13.5	5.9	7.3	3.9	7.5
Harari	6.9	8.1	6.0	6.5	4.4	3.8	2.8	2.3
AddisAbaba	6.8	8.7	5.8	6.0	5.8	6.9	2.8	3.4
DireDawa	5.8	7.8	5.5	6.1	3.1	5.4	4.0	3.9

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Pregnancy-related mortality

According to the WHO definition, a pregnancy-related death is defined as the death of a woman while pregnant or during delivery, or in the 42 days after the delivery or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, if the death is not due to an accident or violence.

Table 4:5 shows that in the 2016DHS result, the pregnancy-related mortality rate among women aged 15-49 is 0.66 deaths per 1,000 woman-years of exposure. By 5-year age groups, the pregnancy-related mortality rate is highest among women in the 30-34 age group (1.10), followed by women in the 40-44 age group (0.78). The overall percentage of female deaths due to pregnancy-related causes is 25%; this percentage varies by age and ranges from 14% among women aged 45-49 to 30% among women age 30-34. However, this age-specific pattern should be interpreted with caution because of the small number of pregnancy-related deaths (118) among women of all reproductive ages.

Table 4.5: Pregnancy-related mortality rates

Direct estimates of pregnancy-related mortality rates for the seven years before the survey, by 5-year age groups, Ethiopia DHS 2016

Age	Percentage of female deaths that are pregnancy-	Number of pregnancy-related deaths	Exposure years	Pregnancy-related mortality rate ¹
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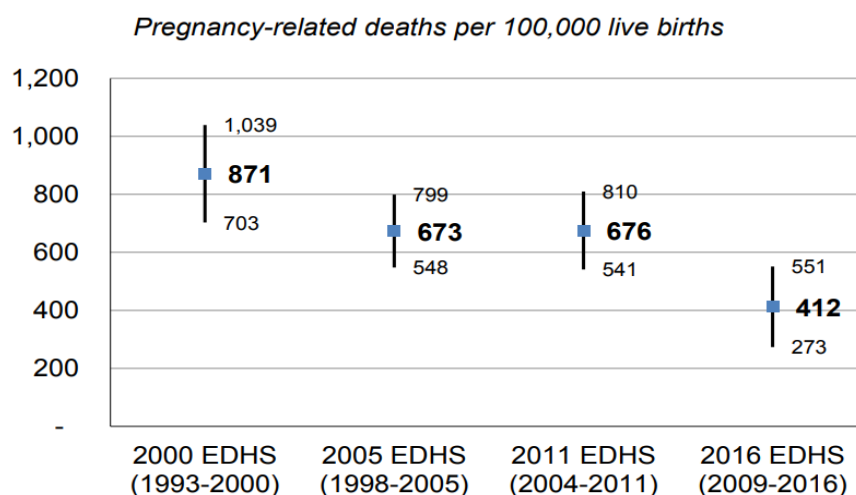
related				
15-19	17.4	13	34,543	0.39
20-24	28.7	25	38,862	0.64
25-29	29.3	24	35,159	0.68
30-34	30.0	32	28,985	1.10
35-39	24.4	11	20,199	0.54
40-44	20.3	9	12,023	0.78
45-49	13.7	4	6,714	0.62
15-49	25.1	118	176,485	0.66 ^a

Trends In Pregnancy-Related Mortality

Figure 4.3 indicates a substantial decline in the pregnancy-related mortality ratio in Ethiopia since 2000, from 871 deaths per 100,000 live births in the 7 years before the 2000 EDHS survey to 673 deaths per 100,000 live births in the 7 years before the 2005 EDHS survey, 676 deaths per 100,000 live births in the 7 years before the 2011 EDHS survey, and 2000 EDHS (1993-2000) and 412 deaths per 100,000 live births in the 7 years before the 2016 EDHS survey. The decline, both between 2000 and 2016 and between 2011 and 2016.

Figure 4.3 Trends in pregnancy-related mortality ratio (PRMR) with confidence intervals

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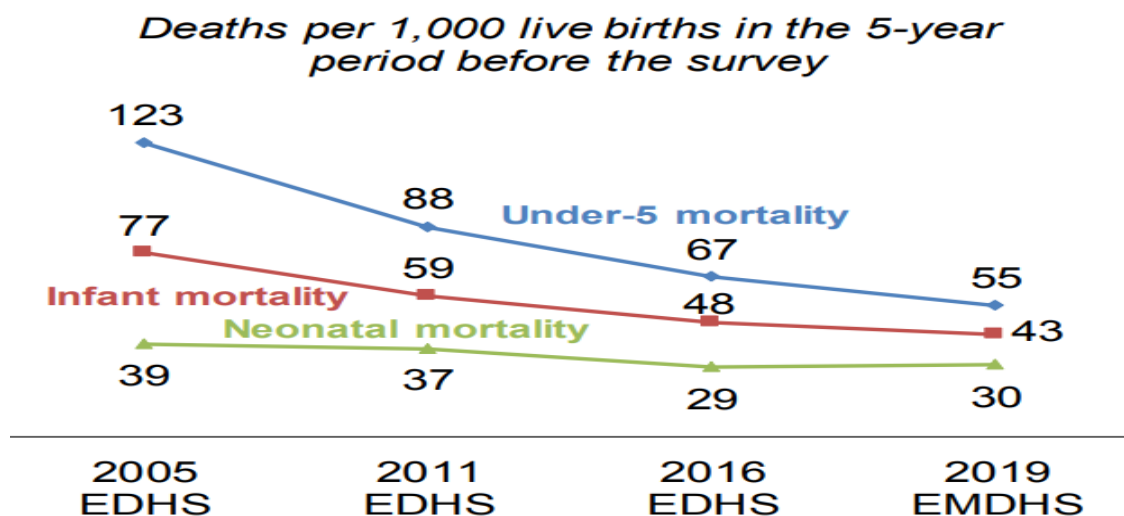
Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

4.2.2. Infant And Child Mortality

- *Neonatal mortality: It is the probability of dying within the first month of life*
- *Post neonatal mortality: The probability of dying between one month and the first birthday (computed as the difference between infant and neonatal mortality).*
- *Infant mortality: The probability of dying between birth and the first birthday*
- *Child mortality: The probability of dying between the first and the fifth birthday*
- *Under-5 mortality: The probability of dying between birth and the fifth birthday.*

The 2019 EDHS results show that the neonatal, infant and under-5 mortality rates for the 5 years before the survey are 30, 43, and 55 deaths per 1,000 live births, respectively. Trends from the previous surveys show a continuous decline in infant and under-5 mortality within the range of 0-4 years preceding each respective survey. For example, under-5 mortality rates for the 5 years preceding the survey declined from 123 deaths per 1,000 live births in the 2005 EDHS to 55 deaths per 1,000 live births in the 2019 EMDHS. Similarly, infant mortality decreased from 77 deaths per 1,000 live births in the 2005 EDHS to 43 deaths per 1,000 live births in the 2019 EMDHS. Neonatal mortality decreased from 39 to 29 between the 2005 and 2016 EDHS but has remained stable since the 2016 EDHS.

Figure 4.4: Death per 1,000 live births



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

4.2.3. Fertility and Family Planning

Fertility is associated with birth-giving behavior and practice. The use of contraception helps women avoid unplanned/unwanted pregnancies and prevent unsafe abortions¹¹. Such information is relevant for the family planning program planners in assessing the desire for children, unplanned pregnancies and to calculate the demand for contraception.

While family planning is one of the most effective strategies for reducing mother and child morbidity and mortality, contraceptive prevalence and unmet family planning needs remain important markers for assessing reproductive health access¹².

¹¹ <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/contraception-and-beyond-health-benefits-services-provided-family-planning-centers>

¹² <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/329884/WHO-RHR-19.18-eng.pdf?ua=1>

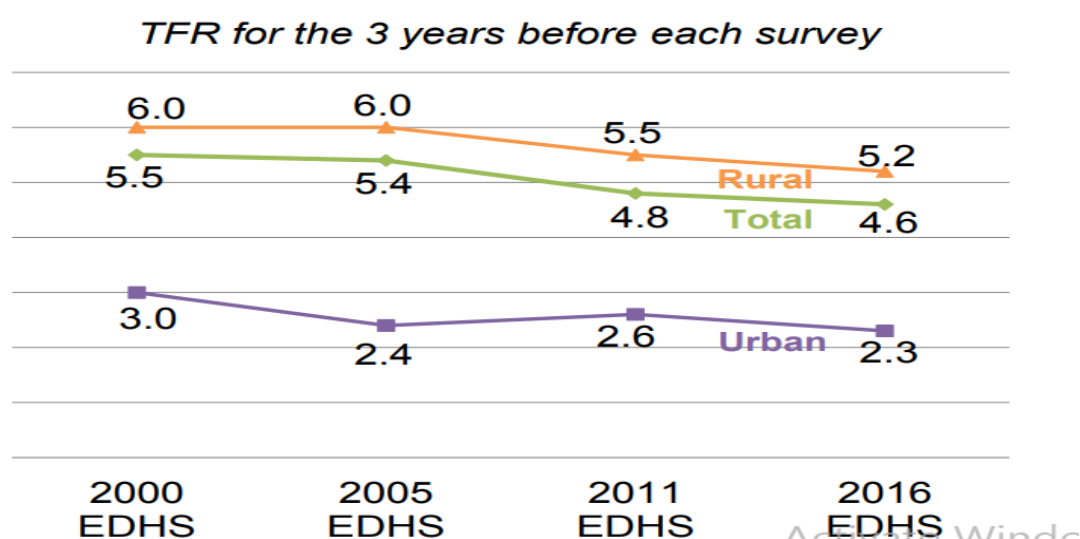
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Considering the above description of key variables, this section presents the national and regional information on the total fertility rate, modern contraceptive use, and teenage childbearing, which are important factors for family planning use and ensuring women's reproductive health.

Total fertility rate (TFR): The average number of children a woman would have by the end of her childbearing years if she bears children at the current age-specific fertility rates.

In Ethiopia, the national total fertility rate per woman aged 15-49 years 2016 EDHS survey is 4.6 children per woman (2.3 in urban areas and 5.2 in rural areas). TFR in Ethiopia has decreased over time, reducing from 5.5 children per woman in 2000 to 4.6 children per woman in 2016, a drop of 0.9 children. Between the two most recent 5-year periods, the drop is most noticeable. In rural areas, the TFR reduced from 6.0 children in 2000 to 5.2 children in 2016. The TFR in cities fell from 3.0 children in 2000 to 2.3 children in 2016.

Figure 4 :5: TFR for 3 years before the survey (Y-axis is percentage of TFR and X-axis year)



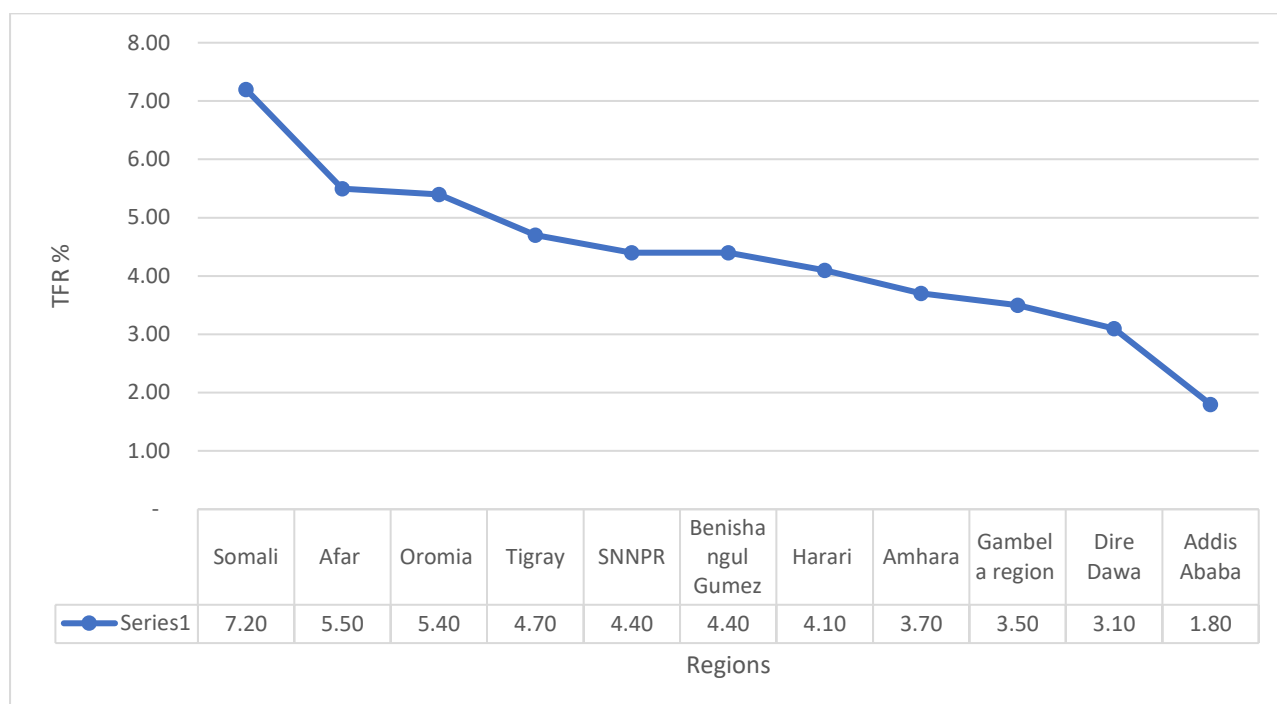
Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

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As it is indicated in Figure 4.5 above, TFR at the country level was found decreasing from 5.5 children in the year 2000 to 4.6 by 2016, such pattern of decreasing in TFR was also witnessed across most of the regions, except Somali and Afar, where growth has been observed during the same period. By region, the TFR is highest in Somali (7.2 children per woman) and lowest in Addis Ababa (1.8 children per woman). Specifically, in 2016, women in Addis Ababa City Administration (1.8), Dire Dawa administration (3.1), and Gambela region (3.5) maintained relatively lower TFR. However, Somali (7.2), Afar (5.5), Oromia (5.4), and Tigray (4.7) regions maintain it above the national average (4.6). Moreover, a decrease in TFR across the survey years has been observed in Amhara (from 5.5 in 2000 to 3.7 in 2016), SNNP (from 5.6 in 2000 to 4.4 in 2016), Oromia (from 6.1 in 2000 to 5.4 in 2016), and Tigray (from 5.3 in 2000 to 4.7 in 2016) regions.

Table 4.6: TFR across the region in 2016

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Source : CSA, EDHS , 2016 , Ethiopia

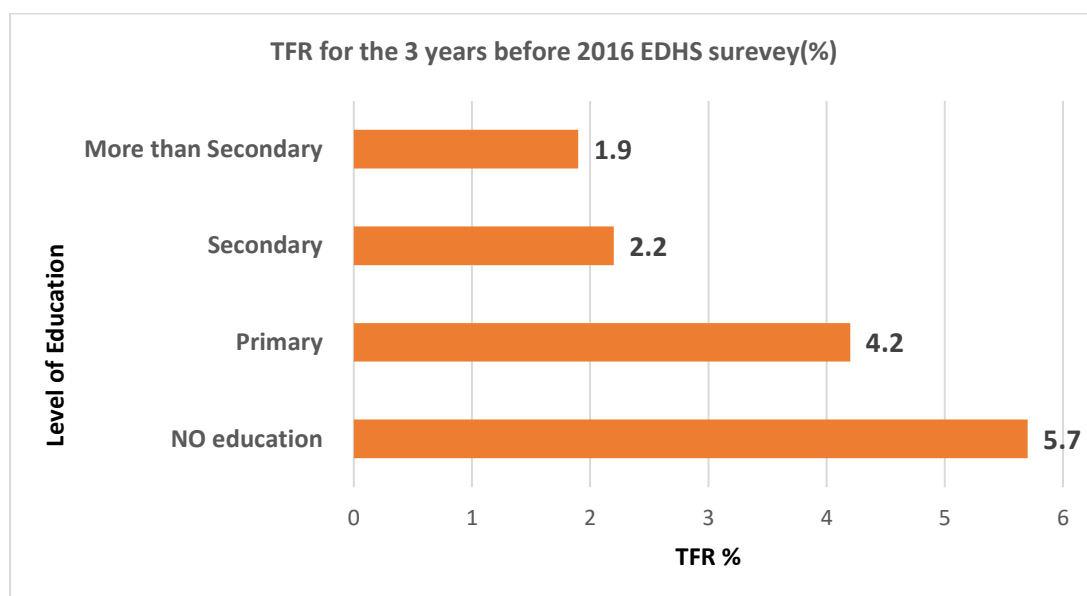
4.2.3.1 Total Fertility Rate (TFR) And Education

As per different studies, the fertility rate had a direct relationship with education and wealth. According to the EDH's 2016 findings, the number of children per woman decreases as education and wealth quantile increases.

As shown in Figure 4.6 below, women without a secondary education have 3.8 more children than women with secondary education (5.7 versus 1.9) (Similarly, women in the lowest wealth quintile have 3.8 more children than women in the highest wealth quintile (6.4 children versus 2.6 children).

Figure 4.6: TFR & Education

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Source : CSA, EDHS , 2016 , Ethiopia

4.2.3.2 Teenage childbearing

Teenage pregnancy is a major health concern because of its association with higher morbidity and mortality for both the mother and the child. Childbearing during adolescence is known to have adverse social consequences, particularly regarding educational attainment, as women who become mothers in their teens are more likely to drop out of school. In Ethiopia, 13% of women age 15-19 have begun childbearing: 10% have given birth, and an additional 2% are pregnant with their first child, as it is indicated in table 4.7 below.

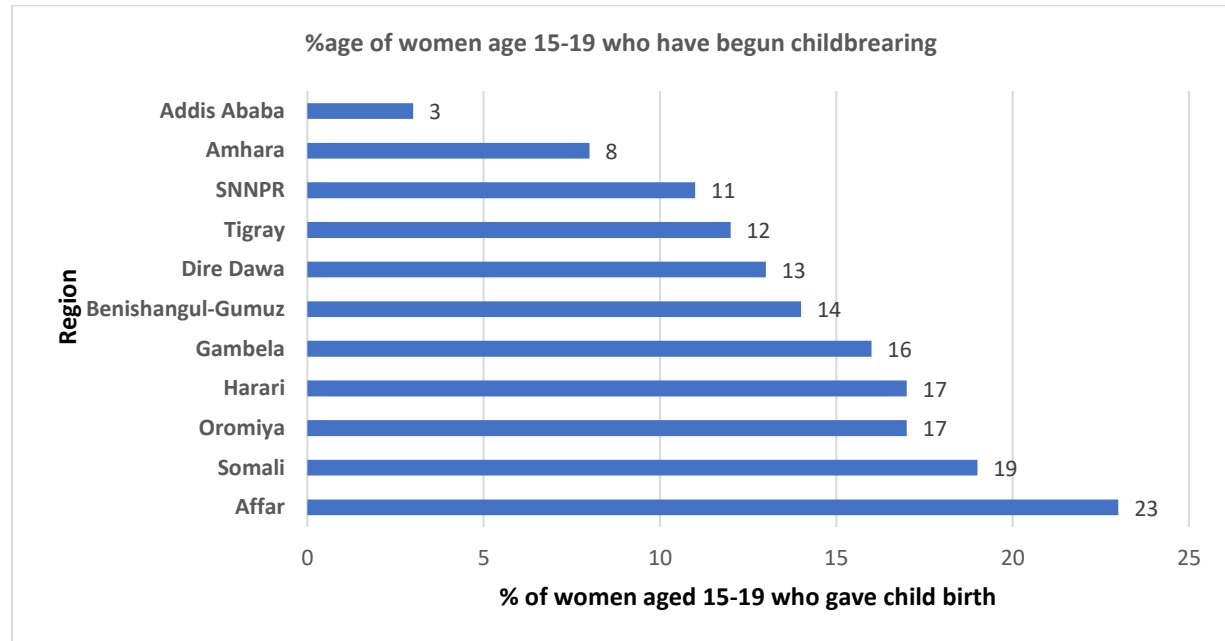
Teenagers in rural areas are three times more likely to have begun childbearing than their urban peers: 15% of rural teenagers have had a live birth or are pregnant, as compared with 5% of urban teenagers.

As shown in Figure 4.7, teenage childbearing is highest in Afar (23%) and Somali (19%) and lowest in Addis Ababa (3%) and Amhara (8%).

Teenage childbearing decreases with increasing education. The percentage of teenagers who have begun childbearing rises from 3% among those with more than secondary

education to 12% among those with a primary education and 28% among those with no education.

Figure 4.7: % of Women age 15-49 who have begun childbearing



Source: CSA, EDHS, 2016 findings

As per the EDHS 2016 result, teenage childbearing is less common in the wealthiest households: 6% of women age 15-19 from the highest wealth quintile have begun childbearing, as compared with 24% of those from the lowest quintile.

Table: 4.7: Percentage of women age 15-19 who have had a live birth or who are pregnant with their first child, and the percentage of those who have begun childbearing, according to background characteristics, Ethiopia DHS2016

Background characteristic	Percentage of women age 15-19 who:		Percentage who has begun childbearing	Number of women
	Have had a live birth	Are pregnant with first child		
Region				
Tigray	9.4	2.5	12	276
Afar	20	3.3	23.4	30
Amhara	7	1.3	8.3	767
Oromia	14.5	2.5	17	1,234
Somali	13.1	5.6	18.7	105
Benishangul-Gumuz	11.5	2.1	13.6	34
SNNPR	7.2	3.4	10.7	681
Gambela	14.7	1.5	16.2	9

Harari	15.3	1.6	16.9	8
Addis Ababa	1.9	1.1	3	217
Dire Dawa	9.3	3.2	12.5	20
Education				
No education	24.1	3.8	27.9	469
Primary	9.8	2.3	12.1	2,148
Secondary	2	2.1	4.1	678
More than secondary	3.4	0	3.4	87
Wealth quintile				
Lowest	18.8	5.2	24	478
Second	15	2.3	17.3	558
Middle	13.3	1.6	14.9	638
Fourth	6.4	1.7	8.1	716
Highest	3.6	2.2	5.8	992
Total	10.1	2.4	12.5	3,381

Source: CSA, EDHS, 2016 findings

4.2.3.2 Modern contraceptive methods

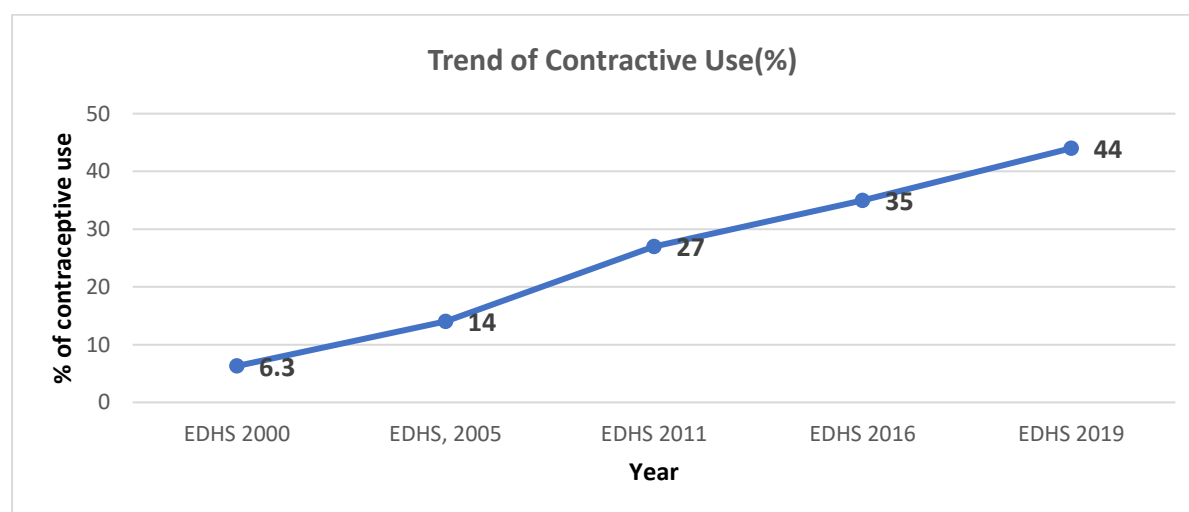
Contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR): Percentage of women who use some form of contraception. As per the findings of EDHS 2016, With the exception of geography,

knowledge of contraceptive methods is similar by most background variables. In Addis Ababa, all currently married women and men are aware of at least one contraception method, whereas, in Somalia, only 79 percent of currently married women and 83 percent of currently married men are aware of at least one contraception method.

The contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) for currently married women aged 15-49 in Ethiopia is 36%, with 35% using modern methods and 1% traditional methods. Fifty-eight percent of sexually active unmarried women use contraceptive methods, with 55% using modern methods and 3% using traditional methods (EDHS,2016)

As per the EDHS 2016, modern contraceptive use by currently married Ethiopian women has steadily increased over the last 20 years, jumping from 6% of women using a modern contraceptive method in 2000 to 41% in % in 2019, as indicated in Figure 4.8 below.

Figure 4. 8: Percentage of currently married women using a modern contraceptive method, Country Total



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Figure 4-8 illustrates the trends for married women's use of modern contraceptive methods for the years 2000, 2005, 2011, 2016, and 2019. Accordingly, the use of modern contraceptive methods has increased more than five times (from 6.3% in

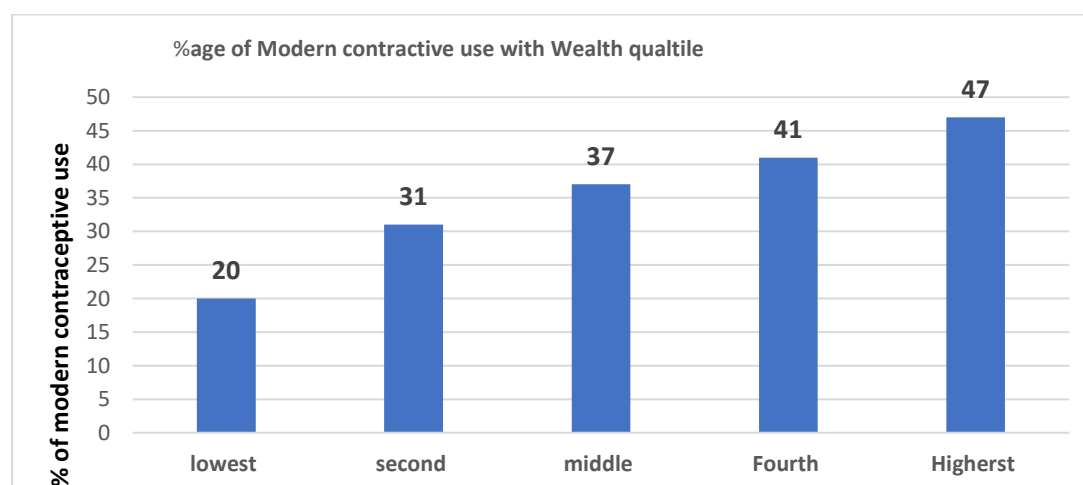
2000 to 44.3% in 2019) among the married women of the country. Moreover, the growth of using a modern contraceptive by married women increased at an increasing rate every five years.

According to DHS 2019, current contraceptive use varies by area, ranging from 3% in Somalia to 50% in both the Amhara Region and Addis Ababa. Contraception use rises in tandem with a woman's educational attainment and household affluence. In comparison to 32% of women without a secondary education, 58% of women with a secondary education use some form of contraception.

Similarly, only 28% of women in the lowest wealth quintile uses any kind of contraception, compared to 53% of women in the top quintile.

Women with no living children (28%) and those with five or more children (32%) are the least likely to utilize contraception, compared to those with 1-2 children (54%) and 3-4 children (32%), respectively (44 percent).

Figure 4.9: Percentage of modern contraceptive use



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Table 4-8 provides statistics on married women's use of modern contraceptives by region in 2000 and 2016 survey years. As can be seen, the Amhara region has had the greatest increase in modern contraceptive use (from 6.6% in 2000 to 43.3% in

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2016), followed by SNNR regional state (from 5% in 2000 to 39.6% in 2016). The lowest contraceptive use was observed in the Somalia region (2.4% in 2000 to 1.4% in 2016), and in Addis Ababa City Administration, contraceptive use was 34.3% in 2000 and increased to 50.1% in 2016.

Though the trend of contraceptive use since 2000 is increased, the increment in the contraceptive use rate is very low from 2011 to 2016, and there is also a reduction in Harari Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, and Somali regions.

Table 4. 8 Percentage of married women using a modern contraceptive method by region and year

Region	2000	2005	2011	2016	Change from 2000 to 2016	Change from 2011 to 2016
Country Total	6.3	13.9	27.3	35.3	29	8
Tigray	9.3	16.2	21.2	35.2	25.9	14
Afar	7.4	6	9.1	11.6	4.2	2.5
Amhara	6.6	15.7	33	46.9	40.3	13.9
Oromia	4.3	12.9	24.9	28.1	23.8	3.2
Somali	2.4	2.7	3.8	1.4	-1	-2.4
Benishangul-Gumuz	8.5	10.4	26.3	28.4	19.9	2.1
SNNP	5	11.4	24.7	39.6	34.6	14.9
Gambela	12.3	15.8	33.2	34.9	22.6	1.7
Harari	19	29.1	31.5	29.3	10.3	-2.2
Addis Ababa	34.3	45.2	56.3	50.1	15.8	-6.2
Dire Dawa	23.5	31.5	31.7	29.1	5.6	-2.6

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

4.2.4. Maternal Health Care

Antenatal Care Coverage

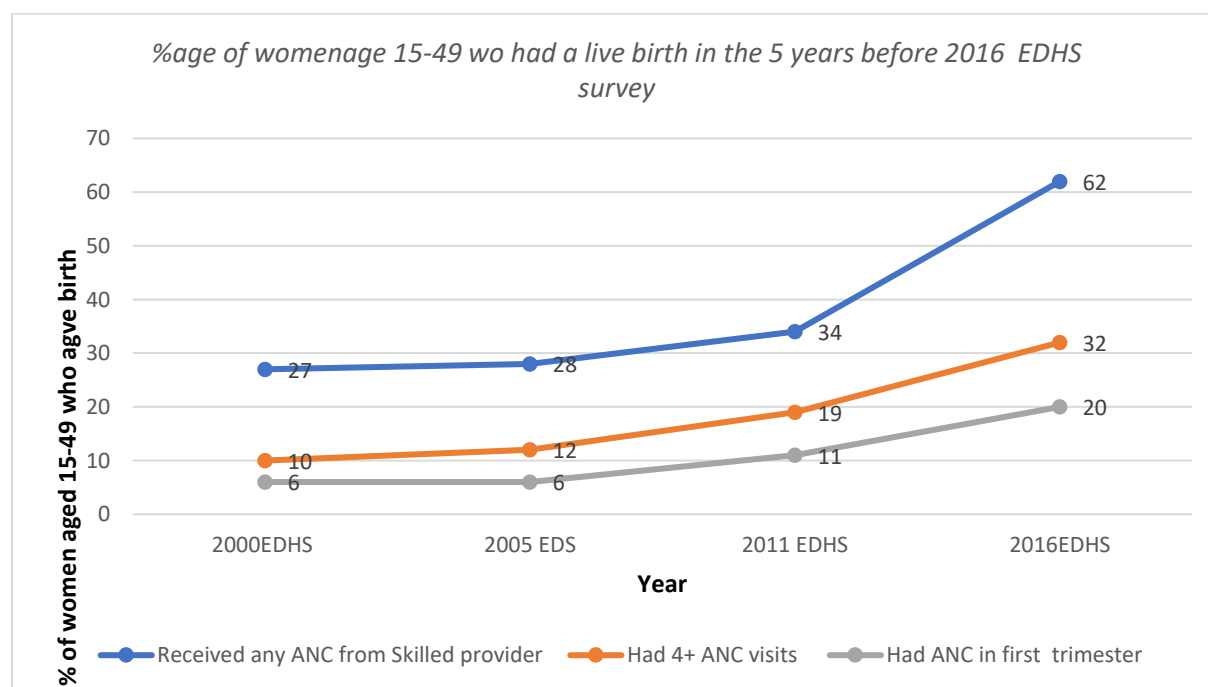
Health care services during pregnancy and after delivery are important for the survival and wellbeing of both the mother and the infant. Skilled care during pregnancy, and childbirth, are important interventions in reducing maternal and neonatal morbidity.

As per the 2016 DHS report, the proportion of women age 15-49 in Ethiopia who received antenatal care (ANC) from a skilled provider has increased from 27% in 2000 to 34% in 2011 and 62% in 2016. Thirty-two percent of women had at least four ANC visits during their last pregnancy.

The 2016 EDHS shows that 62% of women who had a live birth in the 5 years before the survey received ANC from a skilled provider at least once for their last birth

Trends: The proportion of women age 15-49 who received any ANC from a skilled provider has increased from 27% in 2000 to 28% in 2005, 34% in 2011, and 62% in 2016 (Figure).

Figure 4.10: Percentage of women age 15-49 who had a live bath



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

As family planning utilization, the ANC visit is varied across the education, urbanization and wealth quintile background of women, as per the 2016 EDHS report the following background variation are recontended in ANC:

- Use of a skilled provider for ANC services varies by residence: urban women are more likely than rural women to receive any ANC from a skilled provider (90% and 58%, respectively).
- Among regions, ANC coverage from a skilled provider is highest in Addis Ababa (97%) and lowest in Somali (44%).
- Use of a skilled provider for ANC services increases with mother's level of education. Fifty-three percent of women with no education obtained ANC services from a skilled provider, compared with 98% of women with more than secondary education.
- Women in the highest wealth quintile (85%) are more likely than those in the lowest quintile (48%) to receive ANC from a skilled provider.

Institutional Deliveries

Institutional deliveries variation is that occur in a health facility. Institutional deliveries are important for reducing maternal and neonatal mortality. However, access to health facilities in rural areas is more difficult than in urban areas because of distance, inaccessibility, and the lack of appropriate facilities.

Trends: Institutional deliveries have increased from 5% in 2000, 10% in 2011, and 26% in the 2016 EDHS. A sharp decline in home deliveries was observed during the same period, from 95% in 2000 to 73% in 2016. Institutional deliveries for women living in rural areas have substantially increased in the last 16 years, from 2% in 2000 to 20% in the 2016 EDHS. Facility delivery among urban women has also increased from 32% in 2000 to 79% in 2016.

Patterns by background characteristics

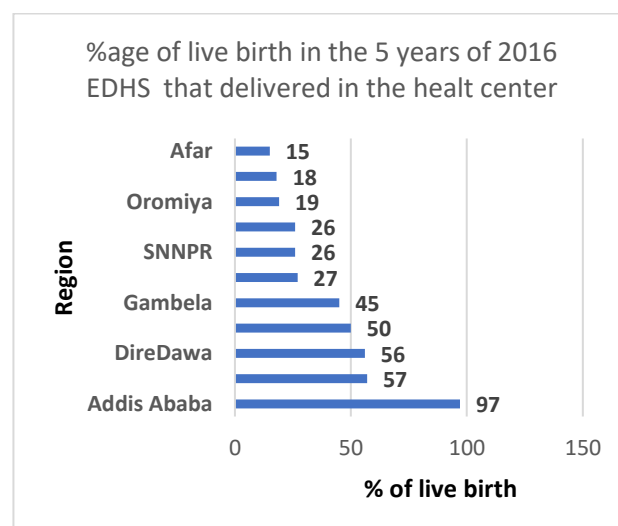
♣ Sixth and higher-order births are much more likely to be home deliveries; 84% of sixth or higher-order births occurred at home compared with 50% of first births.

♣ Antenatal care increases the likelihood of institutional delivery. Fifty-six percent of births to mothers who attended more than four ANC visits were delivered in a health facility compared to 8% of births to mothers with no ANC visits.

♣ Institutional delivery is lowest in Afar (15%) followed by Somali (18%) (Figure).

♣ Ninety-two percent of births to mothers with more than a secondary

education were delivered in a health facility compared with 16% of births to mothers with no education



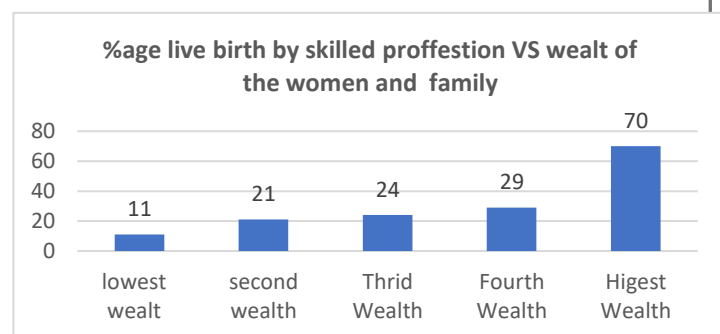
As per the EDHS 2016 finding, Ninety-two percent of births to mothers with more than a secondary education were delivered in a health facility compared with 16% of births to mothers with no education

Skilled assistance during delivery

Skilled assistance during births by doctors, nurse/midwives, health officers, and health extension workers is an important prerequisite to reduce maternal mortality. As per the 2016 finings,for all live births in the 5 years before the survey, 28% of the births were delivered by a skilled provider. The majority of births are attended by a traditional birth attendant (42%), nurses or midwives (20%) followed by doctors (6%), health extension workers (2%), and health officers (0.4%) (Figure 9.6). Trends: Skilled assistance during deliveries in Ethiopia has been increasing during the last 16 years. The proportion of births in health facilities assisted by a skilled provider increased from 6% in 2000 to 28% in 2016.

Patterns by background characteristics

- Fifty-eight percent of births to mothers who attended four or more ANC visits were delivered by a skilled attendant compared to 10% of births to mothers with no ANC visits.
- Births to urban women (80%) are more likely to have skilled attendance compared with women in rural areas (21%).
- There are large differences by region in the proportion of births assisted by skilled providers; these range from 97% in Addis Ababa to only 16% in Afar.
- Births in the highest wealth quintile are almost six times more likely than those in the lowest quintile to be assisted by skilled providers (70% versus 11%)



4.2.5.HIV/AIDS and Sexual Activity

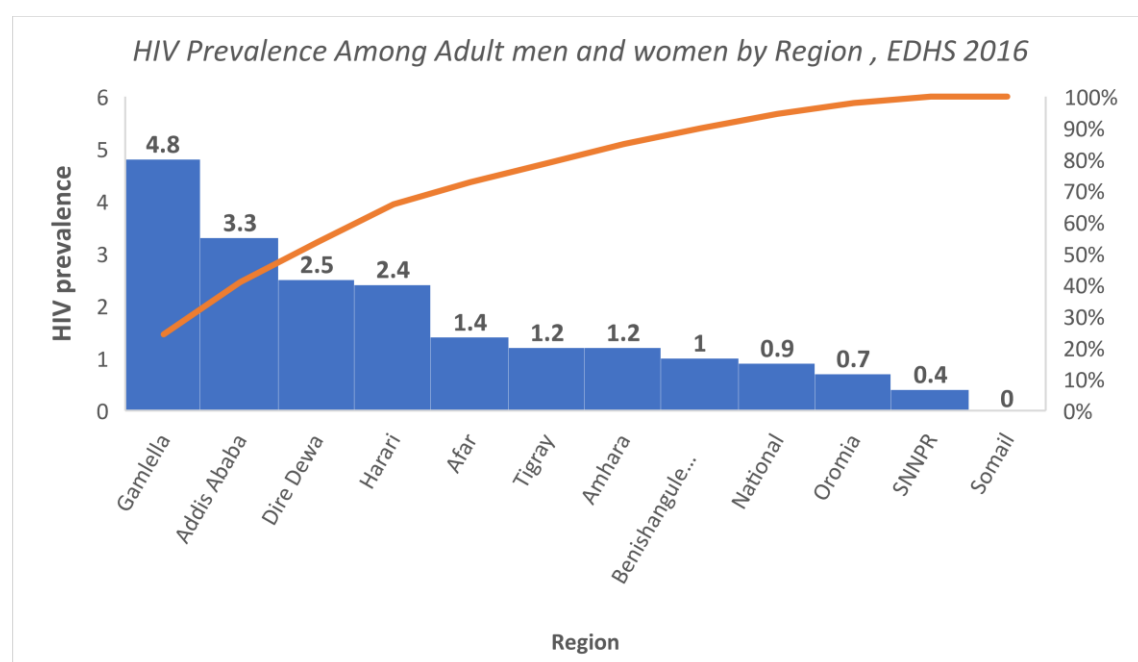
The Ethiopian government has prepared a five-year national HIV and AIDS strategic plan in response to the epidemic (2015-2020). This section assesses sex-disaggregated data for critical HIV/AIDS-related concerns such as HIV prevalence, HIV positivity, HIV knowledge, and sexual behavior.

HIV prevalence among women and men aged 15-49 in Ethiopia is 0.9 percent. HIV prevalence is higher among women than men (CSA and ICF, 2018).

HIV Prevalence among men ▪ <i>Age 15-49 is 0.6%</i> ▪ <i>Peak is 1.6% at the age group 40 -49 years</i>	HIV prevalence among women ▪ <i>Age 15-49 is 1.2%</i> ▪ <i>Peak is 3% at the age group 40-44 years</i>
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The HIV epidemic in Ethiopia is heterogeneous by sex, geographic areas and population groups. Among women and men combined, HIV prevalence is seven times higher in urban areas than in rural areas (2.9 percent versus 0.4 percent). HIV prevalence is 3.6 percent among women in urban areas compared with 0.6 percent among women in rural areas. Seven out of the nine regional states and two city administrations have HIV prevalence above 1 percent. Looking at HIV prevalence by region, it is highest in Gambella (4.8 %), followed by Addis Ababa (3.3%), Dire Dawa (2.5%), and Harari (2.4%) (CSA and ICF, 2018).

Figure 4-10: HIV prevalence among adults



Source: CSA, DHS: 2016

In 2017, there were an estimated 613,000 people living with HIV, of whom 62 percent female, in Ethiopia. Notwithstanding the different prevalence rates in the regions it is important to look at the absolute number of PLHIV per region as population size differs from one region to the other. Three-fourth (74%) of PLHIV are from Amhara, Oromia, and Addis Ababa. The following figure shows the distribution of PLHIV by region.

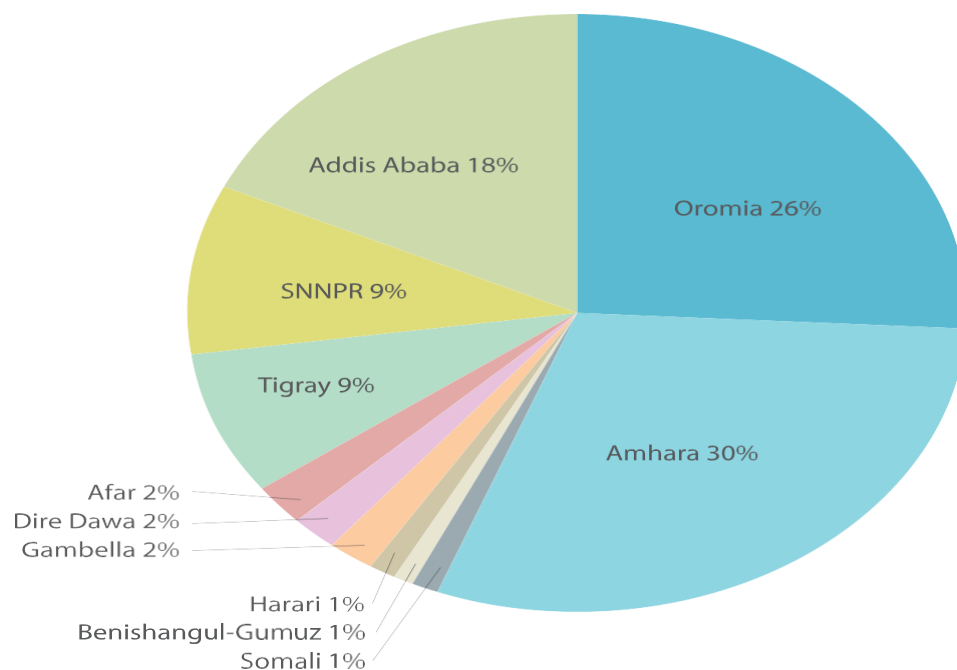


Figure4-11: PLHIV by region

Source: MOH, 2018 data

Forty-nine percent of women and 69 percent of men know that consistent condom use and having sex with only one uninfected partner can reduce the risk of HIV infection; 58 percent of women and 77 percent of men know that using a condom during sexual intercourse can reduce the risk of HIV. However, only 20% of women aged 15-49 and 38% of men aged 15-49 have comprehensive HIV transmission and prevention (CSA and ICF, 2018).

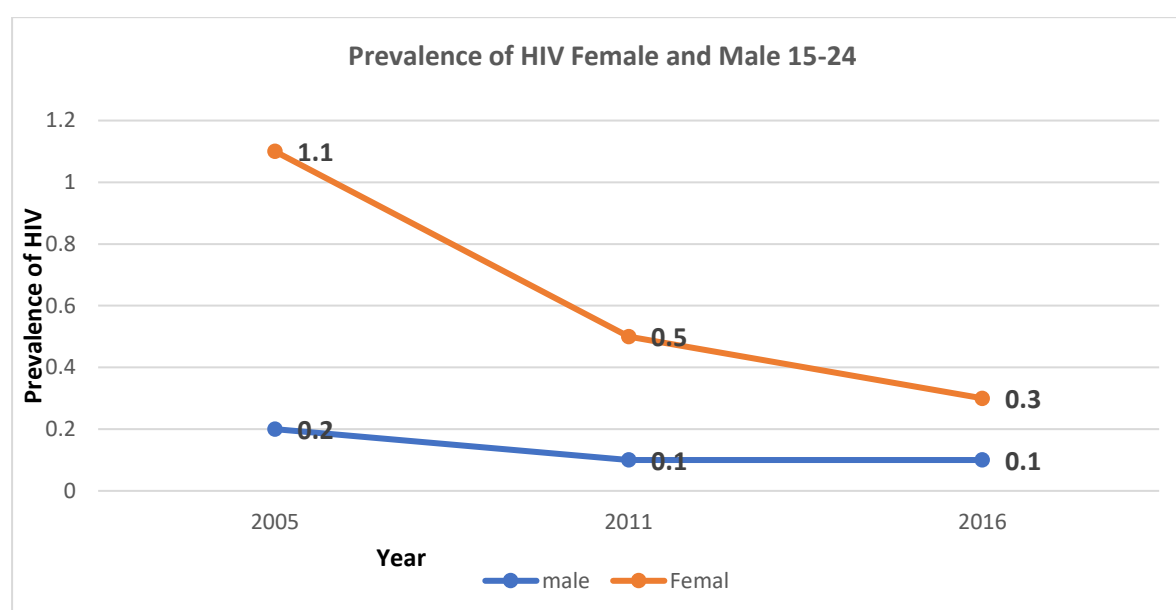
In EDHS 2016, 2% and 7% of women and men respectively reported that they had sexual intercourse in the past 12 months with a person who was neither their spouse nor lived with them. Condom use at last sexual intercourse among these adults with a non-regular and non-cohabiting partner in the past 12 months was 20 percent and 51 percent for women and men, respectively (CSA and ICF, 2018).

In Ethiopia, there is widespread HIV-related stigma and discrimination among the

population, which might adversely affect people's willingness to be tested as well as their initiation of and adherence to antiretroviral therapy (ART). For example, 55% of women and 47% of men said that they would not buy fresh vegetables from a shopkeeper who lives with HIV (CSA and ICF, 2018).

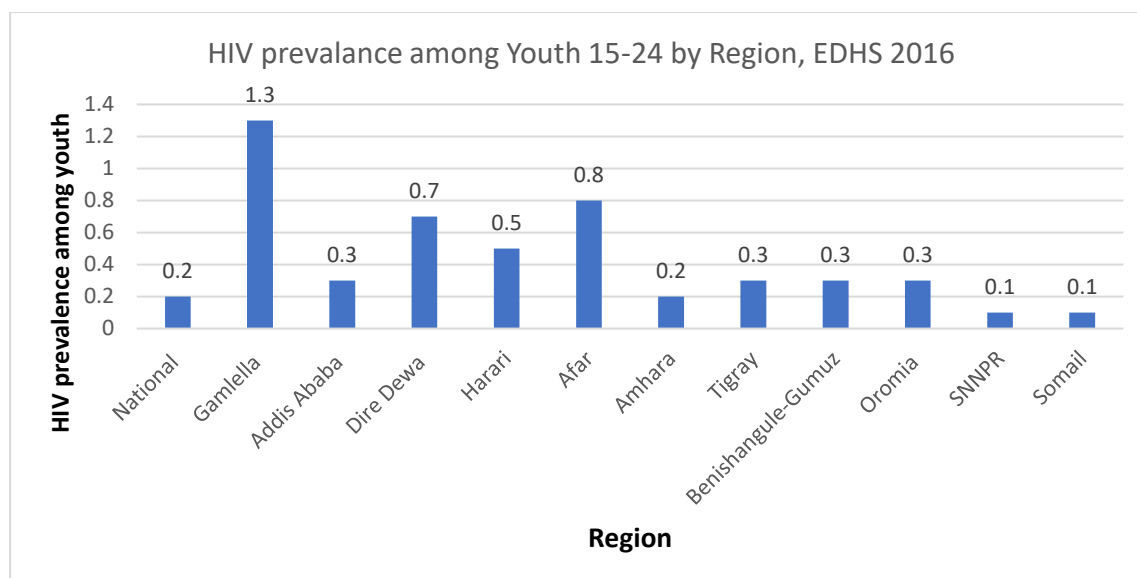
With respect to the prevalence of HIV among individuals (aged 15-24 years), Figure 4-12 displays the trends across 2005, 2011, and 2016 CSA's DHS. Even though a declining trend pertaining to HIV prevalence has been noticed for both sexes, among females (aged 15-24 years), a major decline has been observed from 1.1% (in 2005) to 0.3% (in 2016), and still, they are a more prominent victim as compared to male.

Figure 4. 12 Prevalence of HIV, female and male aged 15-24 interviewed and tested, get HIV positive, Country Total



With respect to the prevalence of HIV among individuals (aged 15-24 years), Figure 4-13 displays the trends across 2005, 2011, and 2016 CSA's DHS at regional level. The prevalence of HIV for youth aged 15-24 years is 2% at national level. There is variation among the regions, the highest (1.3) in Gambella and the lowest (0.1) in SNNP and Addis Ababa.

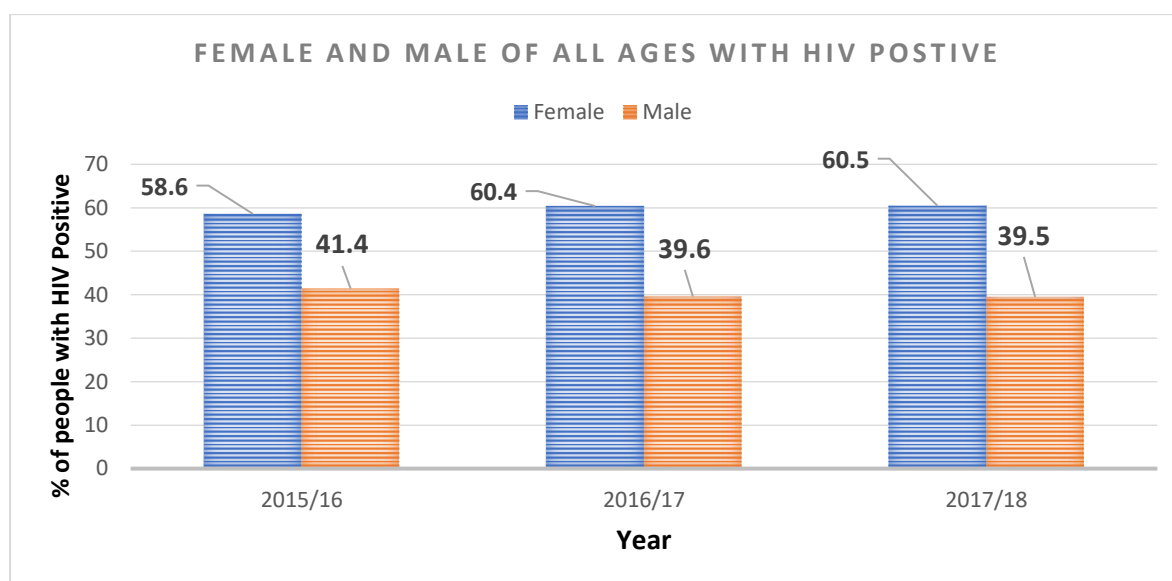
Figure 4. 13 Prevalence of HIV, female and male aged 15-24 interviewed and tested, get HIV positive, regional and national Total in 2016



Source: CSA-DHS: 2005, 2011 and 2016

The percentages of HIV-positive males and females of all ages in the country are shown in Figure 4-14. Across all three reporting years (2015/16, 2016/17, and 2017/18), more females than males seemed to be HIV victims. In the case of males (from 58.6% in 2015/16 to 60.5%), however, there was a progressive drop (41.4 percent to 39.5 percent) over the same timeframe.

Figure 4. 14 Percentage of female and male of all ages among tested who are with HIV positive by Years, Country Total



Source: MoH, HMIS: 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Similarly, Table 4-9 shows the sex-disaggregated figures for the percentages of females and males of all ages among tested who are HIV positive across the region between 2015/16 and 2017/18. Accordingly, in most regions, more females than men who were tested for HIV are HIV positive. Moreover, between 2015/16 and 2017/18, somewhat increasing trends were observed across all the regions, except in Tigray and Gambela, where HIV positive percentage of females declined from 61.2% to 57.8% and 56.5% to 56.3%, respectively. By 2017/18, the percentage of females with HIV positive remained highest in the Somali region (73.2%), followed by the Harari region (65.1%), Oromia region (62.9%), and Dire Dawa Administration (61.9%).

Table 4. 9 Percentage of female and male of all ages among tested who are with HIV positive by Region and Years

Region	2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	58.6	41.4	60.4	39.6	60.5	39.5
Tigray	61.2	38.8	58.9	41.1	57.8	42.2
Afar	46.9	53.1	51.0	49.0	57.1	42.9

Amhara	59.5	40.5	60.0	40.0	59.9	40.1
Oromia	61.0	39.0	62.5	37.5	62.9	37.1
Somali	49.2	50.8	56.5	43.5	73.2	26.8
Beni. Gumuz	51.5	48.5	57.0	43.0	60.9	39.1
SNNP	57.0	43.0	59.0	41.0	59.9	40.1
Gambela	56.5	43.5	56.0	44.0	56.3	43.8
Harari	53.9	46.1	56.6	43.4	65.1	34.9
AddisAbaba	59.0	41.0	61.3	38.7	60.2	39.8
DireDawa	56.0	44.0	64.1	35.9	61.9	38.1

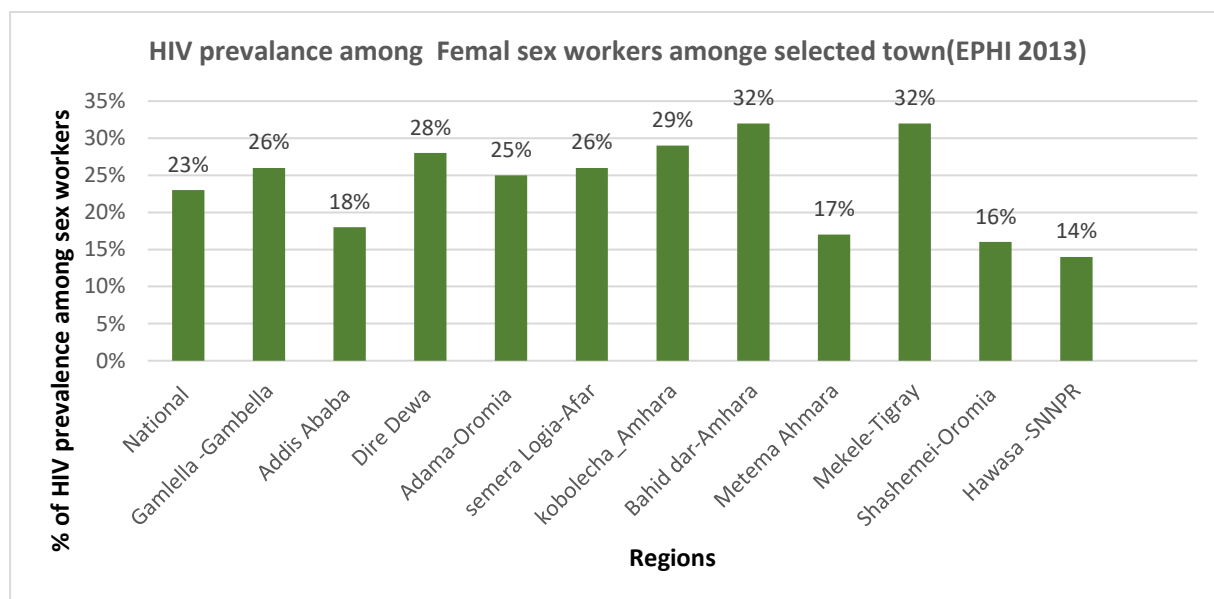
Source: MOH, HMIS: 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Prevalence of HIV in most at Risk population

Ethiopia has defined its key and priority population groups taking local epidemiology into consideration. The key populations are female sex workers and prisoners. Priority populations are widowed, separated, or divorced women; distance drivers; PLHIV and their partners; mobile and resident workers in hotspot areas. These population groups have a high risk of HIV infection, limited access to services, and some face stigma and discrimination.

HIV prevalence among key population groups varies in different geographic areas. The overall HIV prevalence among FSWs is 23 percent, and it varies in different towns, ranging from 14 percent in Hawassa town to 32 percent in Mekelle town (EPHI, EPHA, and CDC, 2014).

Figure 4-15: HIV Prevalence among female workers



Source EPHI, 2013

Comprehensive knowledge about HIV

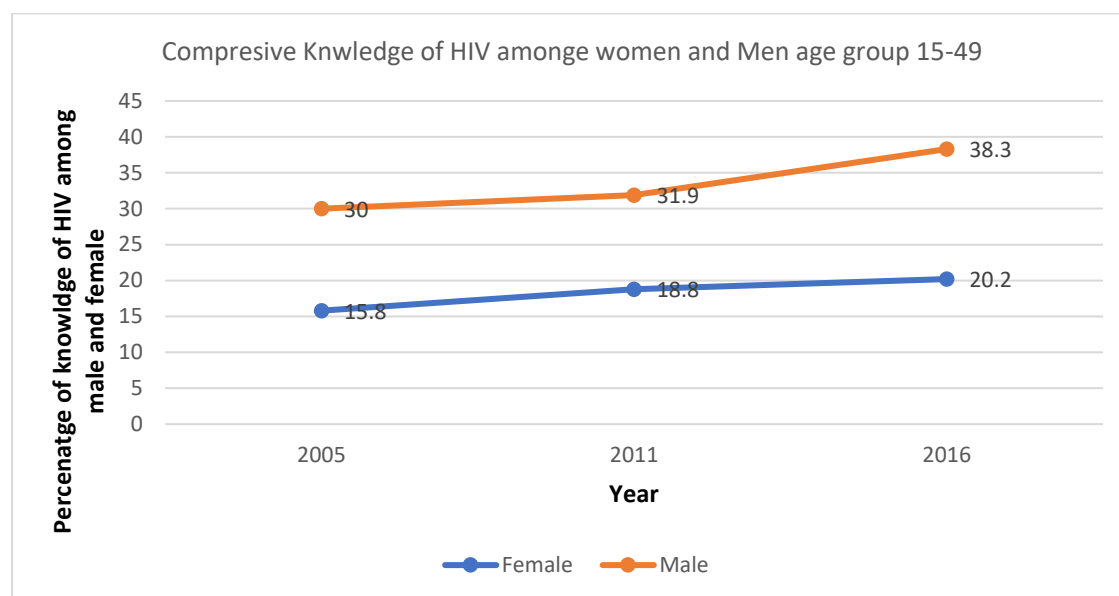
With regard to the existence of comprehensive knowledge of HIV, 20% of women age 15-49 and 38% of men age 15-49, 30% percent of women and 49% of men know that a healthy-looking person can have HIV and reject the belief that mosquito bites can transmit HIV and that a person can become infected by sharing food with a person who has HIV.

Trends: The percentage of women and men with comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS has only increased a few percentage points between 2011 and 2016, moving from 19% to 20% among women and 32% to 38% among men.

Figure 4-16 demonstrates the country level statistics of female and male aged 15-49 years with comprehensive knowledge about HIV.

Therefore, an increasing trend has been seen for both sexes on the knowledge about HIV between 2005 and 2016. However, male have more comprehensive knowledge about HIV than female.

Figure 4.2 Percentage of female and male aged 15-49 with Comprehensive knowledge about HIV, Country Total



Source: CSA-DHS: 2005, 2011 and 2016

As can be seen from Table 4-10 below, an increasing trend for comprehensive knowledge about HIV by both sexes, though varying patterns across the regions, can be observed.

Table 4. 10 Percentage of female and male age 15-49 with Comprehensive knowledge about HIV by region

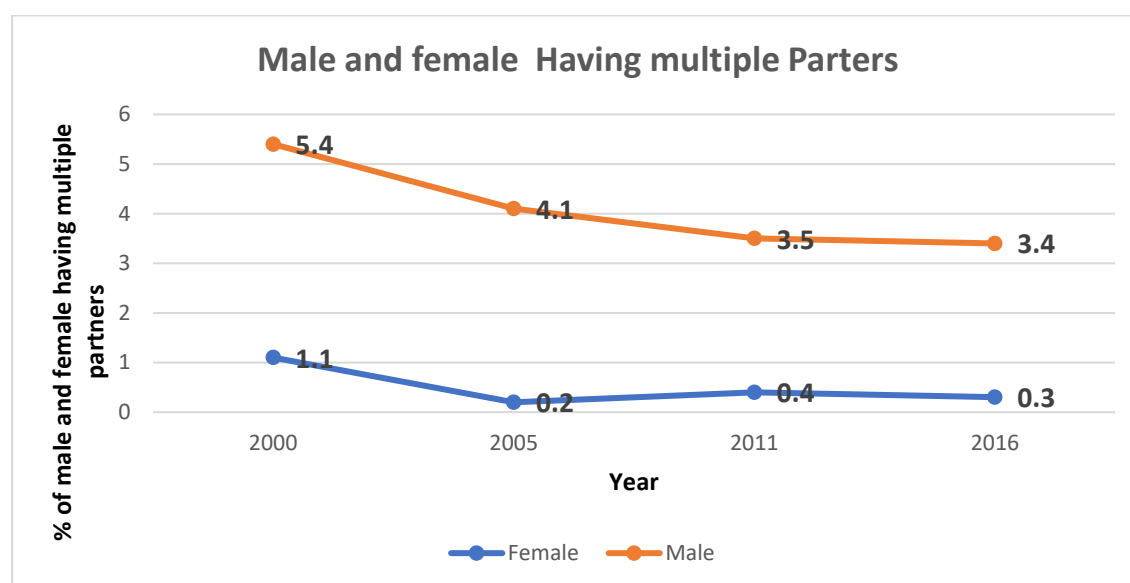
Region	2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	15.8	30.0	18.5	31.9	20.3	38.3
Tigray	13.1	36.5	22.1	41.0	24.9	43.5
Afar	12.8	20.2	4.0	19.8	12.2	32.3
Amhara	15.2	41.6	17.2	29.5	22.0	44.0
Oromia	15.3	22.2	16.7	28.2	17.3	35.3
Somali	3.9	8.5	3.5	6.4	3.5	12.1
Beni. Gumuz	11.1	31.7	18.4	31.5	14.0	30.9
SNNP	11.5	26.1	21.1	39.9	17.5	35.8
Gambela	8.9	22.0	14.5	34.9	22.8	41.8
Harari	28.3	53.0	23.2	21.6	20.1	34.8
Addis Ababa	50.1	53.8	31.8	43.7	44.1	51.5
DireDawa	27.2	40.6	18.7	44.5	22.0	44.0

Source: CSA, DHS: 2005, 2011 and 2016

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Figure 4-17 depicts country-level data for female and males aged 15 to 49 who had sex with numerous partners in the previous 12 months for each survey period. As a result, the percentages of both sexes have decreased significantly in relation to the issue. In particular, the percentage of men who have sex with many partners has decreased from 5.4 percent in 2000 to 3.4 percent in 2015.

Figure 4:17: Male and Female having multiple partners



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Table 4-11 across the survey years, shows regional statistics on female and male having sex with many partners. Although there appears to be a diminishing tendency in both sexes engaging in such behavior across locations, the percentage of males who have sex with several partners remains higher than that of females. In particular, in 2016, the Afar (5.9%), Benishangul-Gumuz (5.6%), and Gambela (5.5%) regions had relatively high percentages of males having sex with several partners. Furthermore, in the previous 12 months prior to each survey time, females from the same regions had a lower proportion than males from the same locations.

Table 4. 11 Percentage of female and male aged 15-49 having sex with multiple partners in the past 12 months prior to each survey by sex and region

Region	2000	2005	2011	2016
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	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	1.1	5.4	0.2	4.1	0.4	3.5	0.3	3.4
Tigray	1.2	8.9	0.0	4.5	0.9	1.7	0.5	2.6
Afar	2.4	19.7	0.7	7.1	0.0	7.7	0.2	5.9
Amhara	2.0	0.8	0.1	2.0	0.3	1.5	0.4	1.6
Oromia	0.4	8.3	0.2	3.5	0.2	4.1	0.3	4.2
Somali	0.8	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.6	6.2	0.1	4.7
Beni. Gumuz	1.8	2.1	0.7	12.7	0.5	8.4	0.2	5.6
SNNP	1.5	1.6	0.4	6.5	0.4	5.0	0.2	3.7
Gambela	1.9	12.4	0.6	12.4	11.2	8.5	0.7	5.5
Harari	0.3	9.1	0.4	2.2	0.1	1.7	0.2	2.2
AddisAbaba	1.3	11.4	0.3	6.1	0.2	3.2	0.5	4.7
DireDawa	1.9	7.0	1.5	7.6	0.1	2.7	0.3	2.5

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

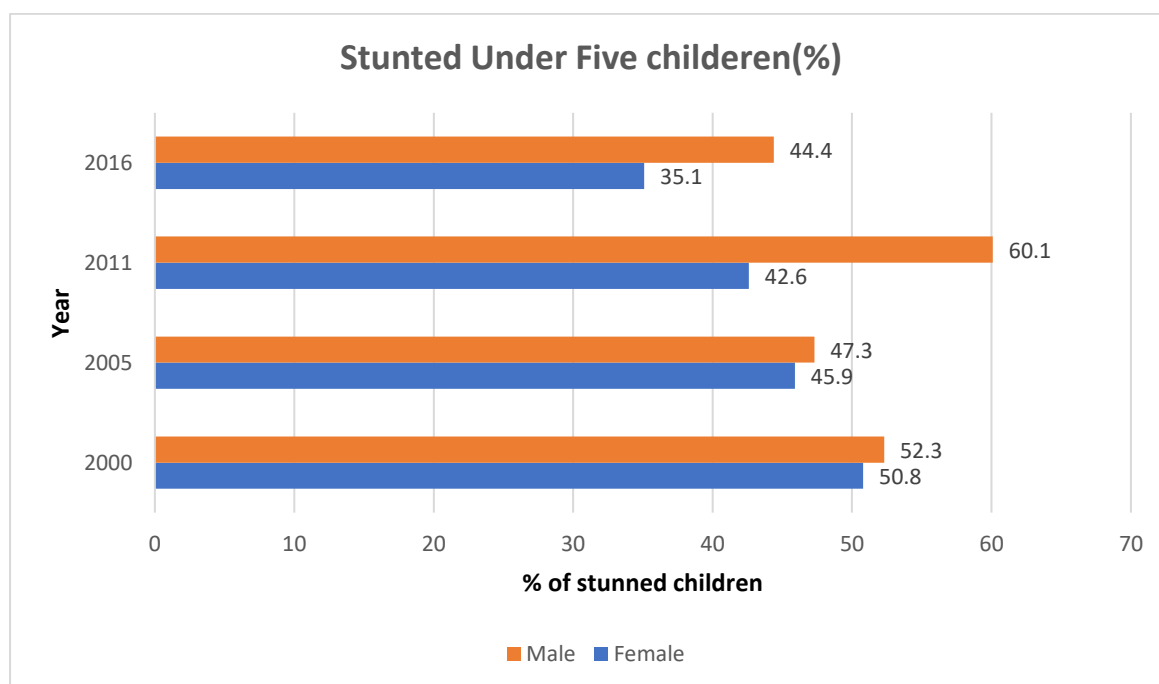
4.3. Nutrition and quality of life

The GoE has taken a number of steps to promote improved nutrition in community. Nutrition metrics are incorporated in the GTP in a broader perspective. This section examines the nutritional status of children (under the age of 5) and adults (women and men aged 15-49 years) at both the national and regional levels, using indicators such as under five stunting rate, wasting rate, obesity or overweight according to BMI, and anemia.

With respect to stunting of children under age 5, Figure 4-9 depicts the trends from the survey data of 2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016. A decrease in children under age 5 who are stunted has been observed for both sexes across the survey years. Among females a major decrease has been seen from 50.8% (in 2000) to 35.1% (in 2016).

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Figure 4.3: Percentage of children under age five who are stunted by sex and year, Country Total



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005 and 2016

Table 4-5 displays the sex-disaggregated statistics of children under five who are stunted across the regions. Accordingly, a decrease in the percentages of children under age five who are stunted for both sexes are observed by year and across the regions, except in Benishangul- Gumuz (increased from 42.2% and 40.4% for male and female respectively in 2000 to 42.6% and 43%, respectively in 2016)

Table 4-5 shows the sex-disaggregated statistics for stunted children under the age of five in each region. As a result, the percentages of children under the age of five who are stunted for both sexes are decreasing year after year and across regions, with the exception of Benishangul-Gumuz (which increased from 42.2 percent and 40.4 percent for male and female respectively in 2000 to 42.6 percent and 43 percent in 2016) and Dire Dawa Administration (which increased from 42.2 percent and 40.4 percent for male and female respectively in 2000 to 42.6 percent and 43 percent in 2016) and Dire Dawa Administration (from 29.1% and 31.9% for male and female respectively in 2000 to 34.1% and 44.7% respectively in 2016). However, in other

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regions, a more consistent decrease in the percentage of children under age five who are stunted for females has been observed as compared to males.

Table 4.3: Percentage of children under age five who are stunted by sex, region and year

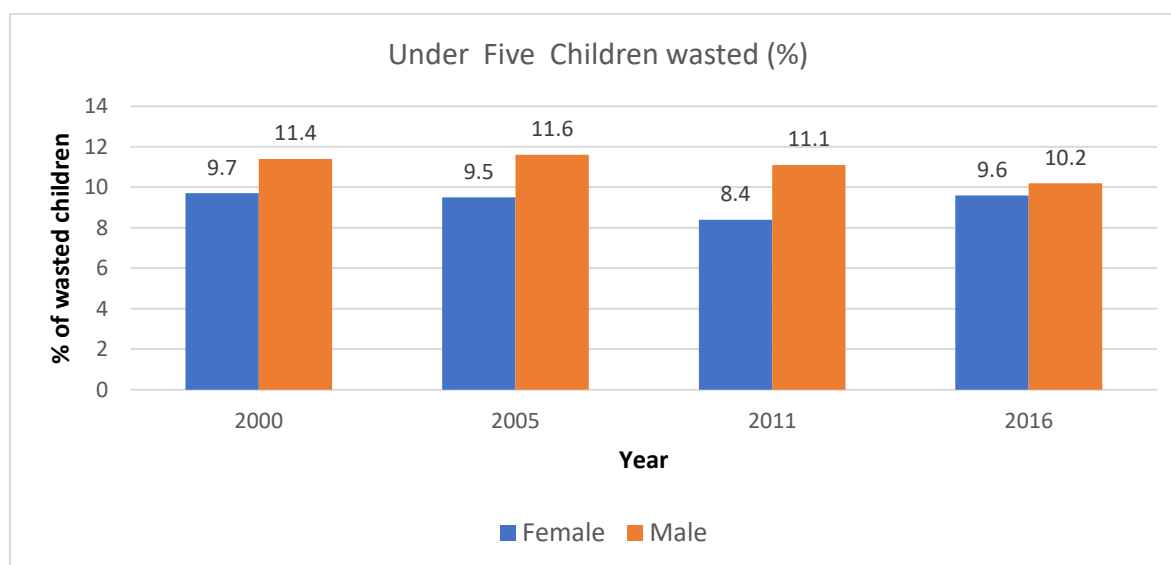
Region	2000		2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	50.8	52.3	45.9	47.3	42.6	46.1	35.1	41.4
Tigray	57.4	52.7	41.8	39.3	48.7	54.8	38.1	41.0
Afar	47.9	48.9	42.6	39.5	49.8	50.2	38.1	43.9
Amhara	54.7	58.8	55.9	57.4	48.5	55.1	42.2	50.0
Oromia	46.9	47.8	41.9	40.7	40.1	42.4	30.6	41.7
Somali	50.0	42.5	41.6	48.4	29.7	35.4	23.1	31.2
Beni. Gumuz	40.4	42.2	39.0	40.2	47.2	50.1	43.0	42.6
SNNP	53.6	56.9	48.8	54.7	42.7	45.5	39.9	37.6
Gambela	39.3	34.4	23.4	35.8	24.3	30.7	21.1	26.1
Harari	37.6	36.2	40.0	37.1	29.5	29.7	30.9	33.2
AddisAbaba	29.7	23.7	17.1	20.1	21.4	22.8	11.9	17.0
DireDawa	31.9	29.1	28.0	32.9	36.8	35.9	44.7	34.1

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Figure 4-10 shows the trends in the percentage of under-five-year-olds who are wasted by gender at the country level, based on survey data from 2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016. Between the years 2000 and 2016, male children were more likely than female youngsters to be stunted of children under age five who are wasted.

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Figure 4.4 Percentage of children under age five who are wasted by sex and year, Country Total



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Table 4-6 presents the sex-disaggregated statistics for children under five who are wasted across the regions. Based on this, female children under five who are wasted decreased between 2000 and 2016 in Tigray (10% to 8.9%), Benishangul-Gumuz (14.3% to 11.2%), SNNP (10% to 5.6%), Gambela (17.5% to 9.9%), Addis Ababa (5.3% to 2.6%) and Dire Dawa (11.6% to 9%). In the remaining other regions, an increase in female wasted children has been observed for the same period.

Table 4.4 Percentage of children under age 5 who are wasted by sex, region and year

Region	2000		2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	9.7	11.4	9.5	11.6	8.1	11.1	9.6	10.2
Tigray	10.0	11.7	13.2	10.5	8.5	11.9	8.9	13.2
Afar	12.3	12.0	5.3	13.1	15.9	22.9	18.2	17.2
Amhara	7.8	11.2	11.9	16.1	8.5	11.2	10.4	9.1
Oromia	10.3	10.4	8.0	11.1	7.9	11.4	10.4	10.6
Somali	18.6	21.9	25.1	22.9	20.5	23.0	19.0	26.2
Benishangul-Gumuz	14.3	13.2	13.8	17.8	9.2	10.6	11.2	11.9

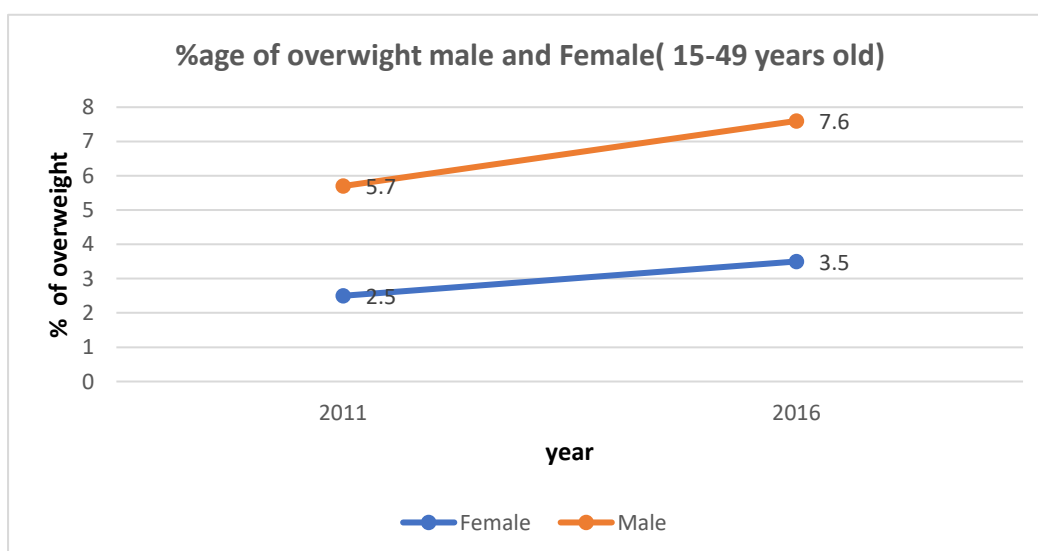
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SNNP	10.0	13.4	6.9	6.6	6.5	8.7	5.6	6.4
Gambela	17.5	18.3	4.7	9.1	11.0	14.1	9.9	17.7
Harari	5.8	6.6	11.4	8.3	6.8	11.0	9.6	11.5
AddisAbaba	5.3	3.1	2.4	0.8	3.7	5.3	2.6	4.6
DireDawa	11.6	10.6	1.9	19.2	11.7	12.7	9.0	10.5

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

EDHS collected anthropometric data on height and weight for women age 15-49. These data were used to calculate several measures of nutritional status, such as maternal height and body mass index (BMI). BMI is calculated by dividing weight in kilograms by height in meters squared (kg/m^2), and according to BMI the following nutritional status is given:

Status	BMI
Too thin for their height	Less than 18.5
Normal	Between 18.5 and 24.9
Overweight	Between 25.0 and 29.9
Obese	Greater than or equal to 30.0



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Figure 4.5 Percentage of female and male aged 15-49 who are overweight or obese according to BMI (≥ 25.0) by year, Country Total

Source: CSA, DHS: 2011 and 2016

Figure 4-11 presents the country-level statistics of female and male (aged 15-49) who are overweight or obese according to BMI (≥ 25) for 2011 and 2016 survey years. Accordingly, there reported to be more male who are obese (BMI ≥ 25) than female for both the survey years. However, male share of being obese increased from 5.7% in 2011 to 7.6% in 2016, whereas female percentage who are overweight or obese increased from 2.5% to 3.5% between the two years.

Table 4.5 Percentage of female and male aged 15-49 who are overweight or obese according to BMI (≥ 25.0) by region and year

Region	2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	2.5	5.7	3.5	7.6
Tigray	2.3	3.2	2.6	5.6
Afar	2.4	4.3	4.7	8.3
Amhara	1.2	3.6	1.4	3.4
Oromia	1.6	4.7	2.9	7.4
Somali	1.9	15.9	3.1	15.1
Benishangul-Gumuz	2.0	2.9	2.8	6.9
SNNP	2.4	6.1	1.9	5.6
Gambela	2.0	6.9	4.2	8.5
Harari	6.4	14.4	9.0	19.8
AddisAbaba	12.4	19.9	19.6	29.4
DireDawa	10.1	18.5	8.8	21.6

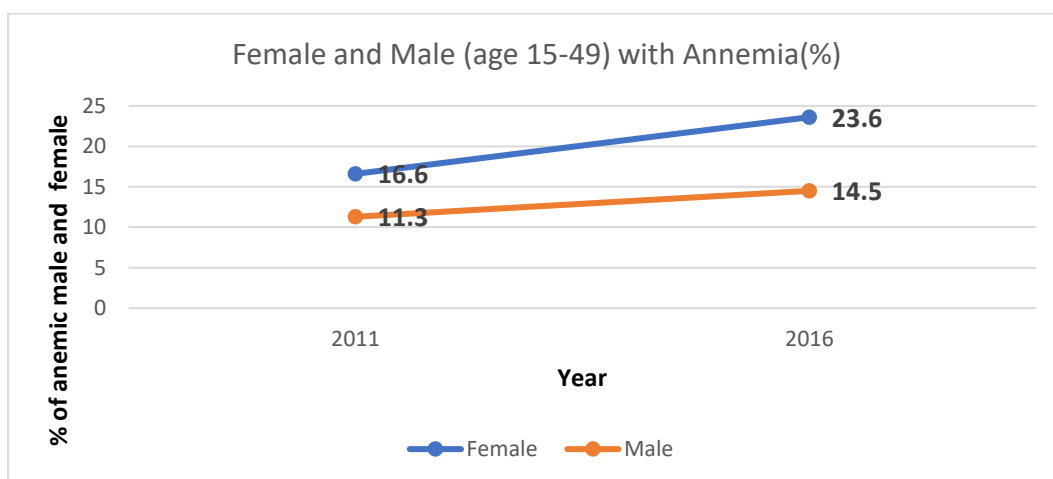
Source: CSA, DHS: 2011 and 2016

Table 4-8 demonstrates the regional statistics of female and male aged 15-49 who are overweight or obese according to BMI (≥ 25) for the year 2011 and 2016.

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Accordingly, more male is reported to be overweight or obese than female across all the regions. An increasing pattern in both sexes being overweight or obese has also been observed in Tigray, Oromia, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambela, Harari and Addis Ababa city administration between 2011 and 2016.

Figure 4.6 Percentage of female and male (aged 15-49) with anemia for the year 2011 and 2016



Source: CSA, DHS: 2011 and 2016

Figure 4-12 shows the statistics of female and male (aged 15-49) with anemia for the years 2011 and 2016. It can be seen the case of anemia was increasing for both sexes from 2011 to 2016, and more female (as compared to male) were found to be the victim of this problem. Specifically, the percentage of male with anemia increased from 11.3% in 2011 to 14.5% in 2016, and that of female increased from 16.6% to 23.6% in the same duration.

Similarly, there appeared to be an increasing trend in both sexes with anemia across the survey years and regions, except in Benishangul-Gumuz (14.1% to 11.1%) and Gambela (10.5% to 10%) regions where male percentage being anemic slightly decreased (Table 4-9)

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Table 4.6 Percentage of women and men aged 15-49 with Anemia by regions and years

Region	2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryTotal	16.6	11.3	23.6	14.5
Tigray	12.4	12.1	19.7	16.9
Afar	34.8	15.0	44.7	23.7
Amhara	16.6	13.6	17.2	13.5
Oromia	19.2	11.8	27.3	15.8
Somali	44.0	14.9	59.5	21.3
Benishangul-Gumuz	19.1	14.1	19.2	11.1
SNNP	11.3	8.1	22.5	14.1
Gambela	19.4	10.5	26.1	10.0
Harari	19.4	8.5	27.7	14.0
AddisAbaba	9.3	2.8	16.0	4.8
DireDawa	28.8	15.1	30.1	16.3

Source: CSA, DHS: 2011 and 2016)

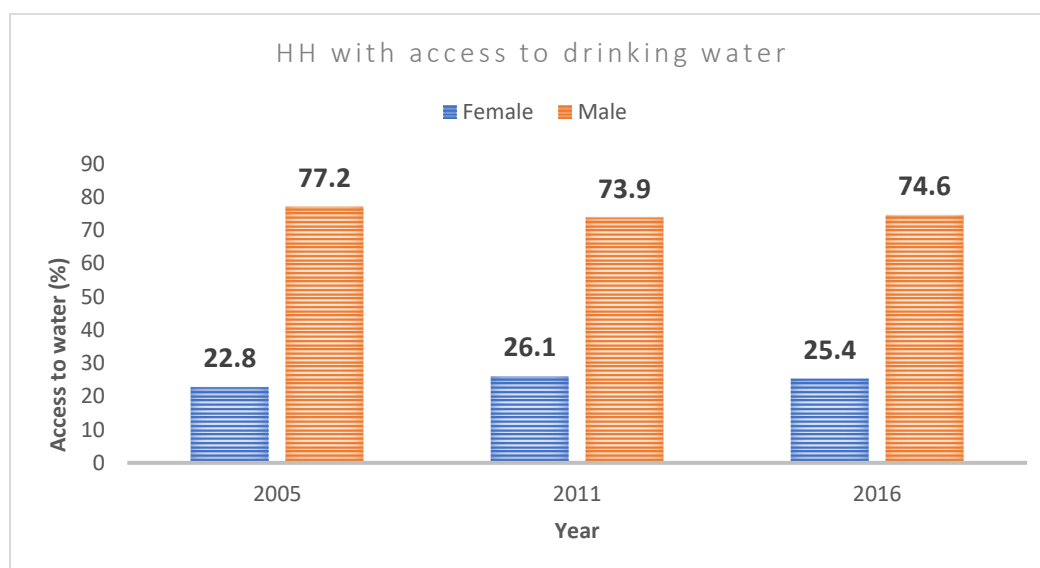
4.4. Water and Sanitation

The analysis of sex-disaggregated data included the major/prominent water, sanitation and electricity indicators, both at national and regional levels, like household access to drinking water, time spent on collecting water, access to improved sanitation, access to toilet facility, etc. and electricity by sex.

Concerning the water, sanitation, and electricity sector, sex-disaggregated data both at national and regional levels were captured through CSA's DHS and Time use surveys.

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Figure 4.7: Percentage distribution of households with access to drinking water by sex of household head and years



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005 and 2016)

The statistics on the distribution of households with access to drinking water by sex of household head and survey years are shown in Figure 4-7. As a result, throughout the three studies, more male-headed households have access to drinking water than female-headed households (2005, 2011, and 2016). However, access to drinking water for female-headed households has increased from over one-fifth (22.8 percent) in 2005 to just over one-quarter (25.4 percent) in 2016. Over the same time period, the percentage of male-headed households with access to drinking water climbed from 73.9 percent to 74.6 percent.

Table 4.7: Percent distribution of households with access to drink water by sex of household head, region and years

Region	2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	22.8	77.2	26.1	73.9	25.4	74.6
Tigray	29.8	70.2	31.7	68.3	32.4	67.6
Afar	21.4	78.6	34.4	65.6	43.7	56.3
Amhara	22.5	77.5	25.9	74.1	24.5	75.5

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Oromia	21.6	78.4	22.8	77.2	22.1	77.9
Somali	26.8	73.2	34.9	65.1	40.6	59.4
Benishangul-Gumuz	23.1	76.9	21.4	78.6	25.5	74.5
SNNP	18.6	81.4	26.8	73.2	23.0	77.0
Gambela	25.0	75.0	26.6	73.4	32.5	67.5
Harari	28.1	71.9	28.7	71.3	33.0	67.0
Addis Ababa	39.0	61.0	36.8	63.2	40.4	59.6
Dire Dawa	30.9	69.1	32.9	67.1	34.6	65.4

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005 and 2016

Table 4-4 shows the gender, region, and survey year distributions of household heads having access to drinking water (2005, 2011, and 2016). As a result, female-headed families have less access to drinking water across all regions and survey years than male-headed households. In Afar, Somali, Harari, Gambela, Tigray, and Dire Dawa Administration, a progressive increase in female-headed household access to drinking water was recorded between 2005 and 2016.

4.5. Improved Sanitation

As per WHO definition, Water Supply and Sanitation identified improved and unimproved sanitation classifications. Shared facilities, unimproved facilities, and open defecation all fall under the heading of unimproved sanitation. Improved sanitation (if not shared) includes flushing to a piped sewer system, septic tank flushing, flushing to a pit latrine, pit latrine ventilated improved pit (VIP), pit latrine with slab, and composting toilet.

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Figure 4-8 depicts sex-disaggregated statistics of homes with improved sanitation access during the four DHS survey years (2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016). As a result, for all survey years, female-headed households were shown to have less access to improved sanitation than male-headed households. Furthermore, between 2000 (23.5%) and 2016, a minor increase in access to better sanitation by female-headed households was noted (23.9 percent).

Figure 4.8: Percentage distribution of households with access to improved sanitation by sex of household head and

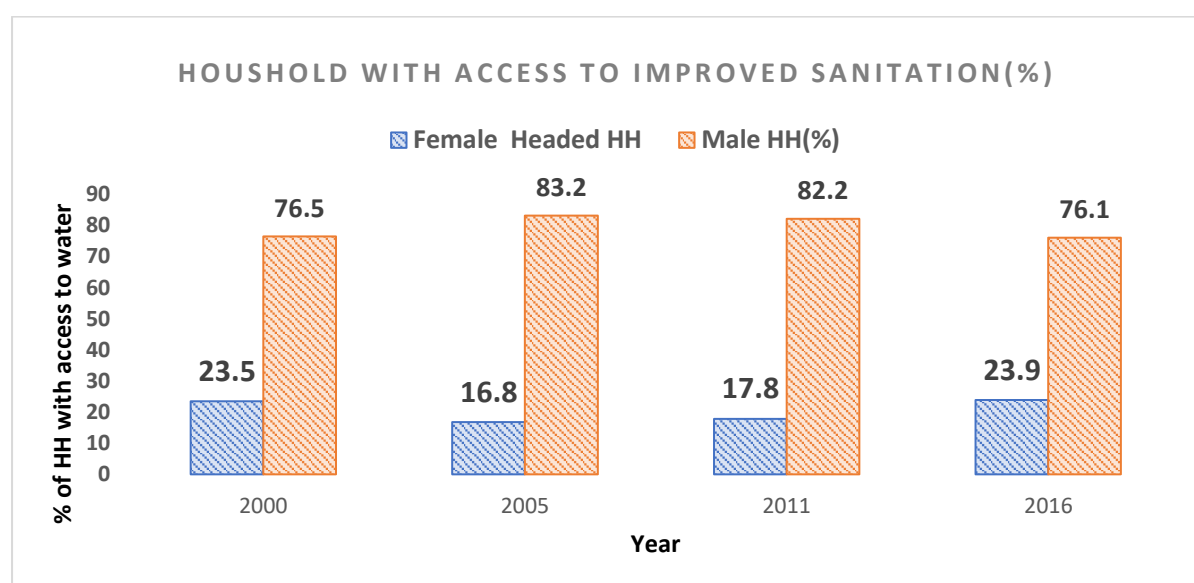


Table 4-15, on the other hand, shows sex-disaggregated figures of household heads with improved sanitation access by regions and survey years (2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016). As a result, across regions and survey years, more male-headed households are reported to have access to improved sanitation than female-headed households. However, between 2000 and 2016, there appeared to be a growing trend in female-headed households accessing improved sanitation in almost all regions, except Amhara (100 percent to 20.7 percent), Oromia (27.7 %to 22.2 percent), Gambela (28.9 %to 18.7 percent), and Harari (51.5% to 27.6 %), where their participation fell behind men.

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Table 4.8: Percentage distribution of households with access to improved sanitation by sex of household head, regions and years

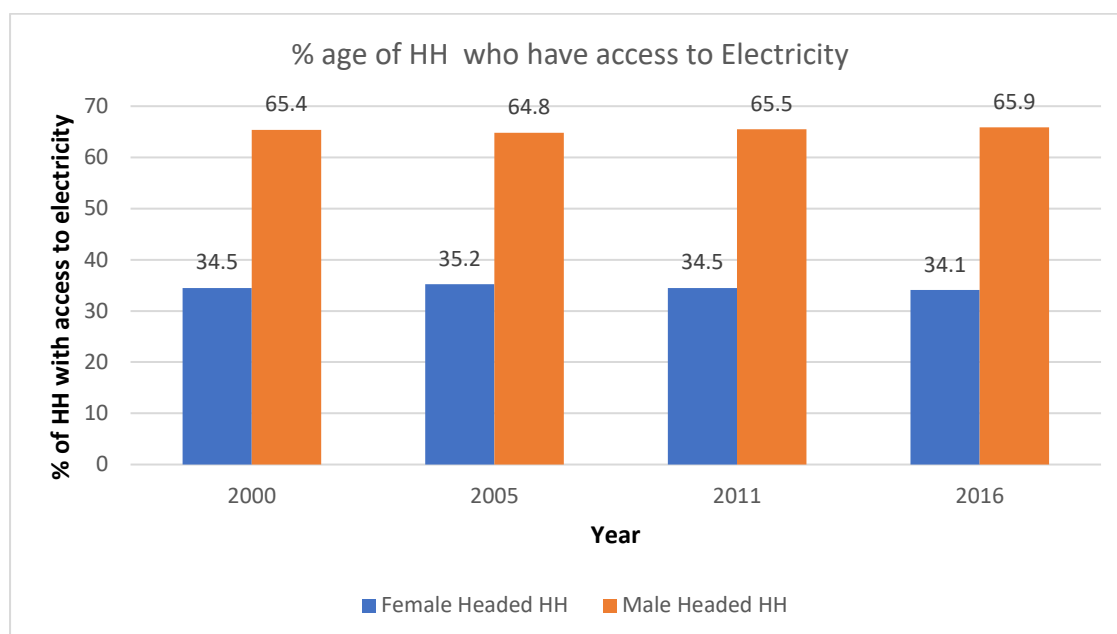
Region	2000		2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	23.5	76.5	16.8	83.2	17.8	82.2	23.9	76.1
Tigray	4.7	95.3	21.4	78.6	21.9	78.1	19.1	80.9
Afar	0.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	18.8	81.2	30.3	69.7
Amhara	100.0	0.0	16.7	83.3	14.3	85.7	20.7	79.3
Oromia	27.7	72.3	15.4	84.6	14.0	86.0	22.2	77.8
Somali	-	-	21.9	78.1	33.6	66.4	43.3	56.7
Beni. Gumuz	-	-	13.3	86.7	10.2	89.8	7.2	92.8
SNNP	-	-	12.2	87.8	16.4	83.6	17.2	82.8
Gambela	28.9	71.1	11.1	88.9	26.8	73.2	18.7	81.3
Harari	51.5	48.5	30.0	70.0	24.7	75.3	27.6	72.4
Addis Ababa	22.5	77.5	29.9	70.1	30.6	69.4	32.8	67.2
Dire Dawa	16.6	83.4	38.3	61.7	40.2	59.8	34.7	65.3

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016)

Figure 6-4 reveals the sex-disaggregated statistics of households' access to electricity by survey years (2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016). Accordingly, female-headed households have less electricity access than male-headed households across all four survey years. Moreover, female-headed household access to electricity declined slightly, from 34.6% in 2000 to 34.1% by 2016.

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Figure 4-9 reveals the sex-disaggregated statistics of households' access to electricity by survey years (2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016)



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016)

Table 4-16 illustrates the sex-disaggregated statistics of households' access to electricity by regions and survey years (2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016). Accordingly, less access to electricity with female-headed households than male-headed is well observed across the regions. However, a female-headed household with access to electricity is found gradually increasing only in the Gambela region between 2000 and 2016 (from 16.9% to 24.2%). Even though in other regions, an increase in women access to electricity is observed between 2011 and 2016, for example, Afar (31% to 42%), Oromia (27.6% to 28.7%), Somali (42.3% to 43.3%), Harari (31.4% to 37%), Addis Ababa (36.8% to 40.4%) and Dire Dawa (38.7% to 39.1%).

Table 4.9 Percentage distribution of households with access to electricity by sex of household head, region and year

Region	2000		2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male

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Country Total	34.6	65.4	35.2	64.8	34.5	65.5	34.1	65.9
Tigray	48.0	52.0	42.2	57.8	42.3	57.7	41.3	58.7
Afar	31.8	68.2	30.0	70.0	31.0	69.0	42.0	58.0
Amhara	36.3	63.7	38.8	61.2	41.5	58.5	38.0	62.0
Oromia	33.1	66.9	34.2	65.8	27.6	72.4	28.7	71.3
Somali	44.6	55.4	33.6	66.4	42.3	57.7	43.3	56.7
Beni. Gumuz	16.5	83.5	30.9	69.1	27.6	72.4	26.3	73.7
SNRP	22.4	77.6	16.7	83.3	28.7	71.3	23.0	77.0
Gambela	16.9	83.1	20.7	79.3	22.8	77.2	24.2	75.8
Harari	43.9	56.1	34.3	65.7	31.4	68.6	37.0	63.0
Addis Ababa	34.8	65.2	39.0	61.0	36.8	63.2	40.4	59.6
Dire Dawa	37.3	62.7	39.0	61.0	38.7	61.3	39.1	60.9

Chapter Five Agriculture

5.1. Introduction

Agriculture is the most important sector of the Ethiopian economy, as it is in many developing nations. The sector significantly contributes to GDP and foreign currency earnings (commodity exports). Moreover, agriculture provides a living for over 83% of Ethiopia's people (CSA, 2013). Some definitions are provided below (CSA, 2013).

The following are key concepts related to this chapter and their definitions.

- **Household:** *A household can be either a one-person home (a person who provides for himself or herself without the help of others) or*
- *A multi-person household is defined as a group of two or more people who live together and share food and other living necessities. To a greater or lesser extent, the members of the organization can pool their incomes and create a shared budget. They could be connected, unrelated, or a mixture of the two. These individuals are considered family relatives.*
- **Agriculture:** *Agriculture is the practice of growing food and/or rearing animals for personal use or for commercial purposes.*
- **Agricultural household:** *An agricultural household is one in which at least one person is involved in growing crops and/or keeping livestock, either alone or in collaboration with others.*
- **Holding:** *A holding is all of the land and/or animals that are held for agricultural output, either entirely or partially. It is run as a single legal entity by a single person or a group of people, regardless of management, organization, size, or location.*

5.2. Agricultural Holders

Ethiopian small-holder farmers rely heavily on agriculture. It is practiced by about 17 million agricultural landowners. As shown in Table 5-1 below, in 2017/18, males accounted for 80.7 % of agricultural landowners in Ethiopia, while females accounted

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for 19.3%. From the data, it can be concluded that in all regions and reporting periods, male agricultural smallholder farmers outnumber female agricultural smallholder farmers in this same sector.

Table 5.1: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders by sex, regions, and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Country Total	20.1	79.9	19.2	80.8	18.9	81.1	19	81	19.1	80.9
Tigray	27.4	72.6	25	75	25.3	74.7	26.3	73.7	26.5	73.5
Afar	18.7	81.3	19.4	80.6	17.1	82.9	29.6	70.4	17	83
Amhara	19.6	80.4	18.7	81.3	18.9	81.1	19.3	80.7	19.3	80.7
Oromia	18	82	17.9	82.1	17.2	82.8	16.5	83.5	16.5	83.5
Somali	21.8	78.2	18.6	81.4	18	82	21	79	16.4	83.6
Benis. Gumze	21.6	78.4	20	80	21.3	78.7	21.6	78.4	23.7	76.3
SNNP	21.7	78.3	20.2	79.8	19.8	80.2	19.2	80.8	21.7	78.3
Gambel a	25.1	74.9	28.5	71.5	20.4	79.6	28.5	71.5	26.6	73.4
Harari	14.6	85.4	17.2	82.8	16.6	83.4	12	88	15.6	84.4
Dire Dawa	19.3	80.7	17	83	18.3	81.7	14.2	85.8	20	80

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.3. Agriculture Holder

A holder is a person who manages the functioning of an agricultural holding and makes key decisions about how to use the resources available. The holder is responsible for the holding's technical and economic aspects. As an owner or a manager, he/she can run the business directly. In a traditional agricultural holding, the

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holder is the person who, with or without the assistance of others, operates land and/or raises livestock in his or her own right, i.e., the person who decides which, where, when, and how to grow crops or raise livestock, or both, and has the right to determine how the products are used.

Table 5.2: Distribution of agricultural holders in only crop production by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Male
Country Total	28.8	71.2	25.8	74.2	27.7	72.3	26.0	74.0	25.7	74.3
Tigray	53.2	46.8	44.6	55.4	48.6	51.4	43.9	56.1	37.7	62.3
Afar	15.3	84.7	5.8	94.2	15.6	84.4	16.9	83.1	30.8	69.2
Amhara	35.8	64.2	32.3	67.7	33.0	67.0	35.2	64.8	31.2	68.8
Oromia	20.3	79.7	20.0	80.0	21.4	78.6	19.9	80.1	18.5	81.5
Somali	40.0	60.0	12.2	87.9	11.7	88.3	21.2	78.8	19.0	81.0
Benis. Gumuz	35.3	64.7	27.5	72.5	31.1	68.9	31.9	68.1	37.1	62.9
SNNP	26.6	73.4	22.5	77.5	26.0	74.0	20.8	79.2	28.4	71.6
Gambel a	30.6	69.4	43.1	56.9	27.1	72.9	43.1	56.9	39.9	60.0
Harari	14.4	85.6	36.1	63.9	31.9	68.1	21.1	78.9	9.8	90.2
Dire Dawa	42.0	58.0	18.9	81.1	24.1	75.9	25.2	74.8	0.0	100. 0

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 5-2 above shows the regional distribution of agricultural resource owners who are only active in crop production. In the only crop production category of an agricultural holding, the Tigray region has the highest share of female agricultural holders, at around 45 % on average, followed by Gambella (36.8%), Amhara (33.5%), and Benishangul-Gumuz (32.6%) regional states. For the past five years, the

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Afar region has had the lowest only crops producing females' average percentage of (16.9%).

Table 5.3: Distribution of agricultural holders in livestock production by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Country Total	45.1	54.9	43.6	56.4	44.3	55.7	36.4	63.6	39.1	60.9
Tigray	60.9	39.1	59.1	40.9	54.1	45.9	65.2	34.8	51.2	48.8
Afar	18.8	81.2	23.4	76.6	18.8	81.2	32.1	67.9	17.4	82.6
Amhara	50.9	49.1	49.4	50.6	50.8	49.2	47.1	52.9	47.9	52.1
Oromia	47.1	52.9	44.9	55.1	42.0	58.0	38.7	61.3	36.7	63.3
Somali	37.0	63.0	32.6	67.4	33.0	67.0	27.0	73.0	27.7	72.3
Benis. Gumuz	49.7	26.9	73.1	44.1	55.9	18.4	81.6	38.1	61.9	50.3
SNNP	34.6	65.4	34.4	65.6	34.6	65.4	33.9	66.1	30.0	70.0
Gambel a	36.1	63.9	28.3	71.8	41.8	58.2	28.3	71.8	50.8	49.2
Harari	59.9	40.1	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	69.7	0.0	42.3	57.7
Dire Dawa	45.2	54.8	50.7	49.3	31.6	68.4	27.8	72.2	45.3	54.7

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

On average, around 58 % of agricultural holders who only rear livestock have been male landowners across the regions in the last five years (2013/14 to 2016/17). Female agricultural owners are more likely to be involved in livestock production. According to the survey data, for the years 2014/15 and 2015/16, all agricultural holders who rear animals in Harari are female agricultural holders. In this same region, the proportion of females tending livestock falls to 42.8 % in 2017/18. In the Tigray

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region, a higher percentage of female farm holders are noticed in keeping livestock, according to the survey results for the latest the year 2017/18.

5.4. Land and Livestock Ownership

Out of all the production components, the land is the most basic resource for agriculture. Table 5.4 shows that female agricultural holders' control only 12% of total land holdings among Ethiopian subsistence farmers. Female-headed households made up 19%, and male-headed households made up 81% of the 17 million agricultural households in the country. Compared to male-headed households, female-headed households have a lower percentage of rented land and rely solely on their own land (Table 5.4). The average landholding size for all agricultural owners was 1.03 hectares, with females owning 0.65 hectares and males owning 1.12 hectares. These graphs demonstrate the dispersed character of subsistence agriculture activity across the country, as well as the small landholdings involved.

Table 5.4: Distribution of agricultural holders in both crop and livestock productions by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Country Total	17.8	82.2	16.9	83.1	16.6	83.4	16.4	83.6	17.0	83.0
Tigray	22.0	78.0	20.1	79.9	20.5	79.5	21.2	78.8	22.6	77.4
Afar	18.8	81.2	15.1	84.9	14.3	85.7	22.3	77.7	15.8	84.2
Amhara	15.7	84.3	14.7	85.3	14.8	85.2	15.1	84.9	15.6	84.4
Oromia	16.5	83.5	16.4	83.6	15.7	84.3	15.1	84.9	15.3	84.7
Somali	17.3	82.7	13.5	86.5	12.1	87.9	11.8	88.2	8.9	91.1
Benis. Gumuz	17.4	82.6	18.4	81.6	18.3	81.7	19.1	80.9	19.9	80.1
SNNP	20.7	79.3	19.4	80.6	18.8	81.2	18.6	81.4	20.7	79.3

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Gambela	22.9	77.1	22.7	77.3	17.0	83.0	22.7	77.3	21.6	78.4
Harari	14.2	85.8	15.5	84.5	14.1	85.9	10.6	89.4	16.0	84.0
Dire Dawa	15.2	84.8	10.9	89.1	16.0	84.0	11.9	88.1	12.7	87.3

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.5. Agricultural landholding

In small-holder agricultural practices, agricultural landholding is the most valuable asset for crop production. The national-level distribution of agricultural landholders who reported having agricultural landholding in the previous five years against sex is illustrated in Table 5.5. According to the findings, around 83 % of agricultural landowners who reported holding agricultural land are men, while the remaining 17% are women. When looking at the trajectory of the percentage share of women who own land, the result reveals a rise, albeit a little one.

The geographical percentage distribution of agricultural landowners by sex is summarized in Table 5-5. According to the survey's findings, males account for more than 80% of agricultural landowners. Tigray has the highest percentage of females having agricultural land, with 26 % on average, followed by Gambela and Somali regional states, with 22.9 % and 20.5 % on average for the survey years. During these periods, Harari region had the lowest percentage of female agricultural holdings, with 14.3 on average.

Table 5.5: Percentage distribution agricultural holders land ownership size by sex of holder, region, and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Level	12.0	88.0	18.8	81.2	18.7	81.3	18.7	81.3	18.9	81.1

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Tigray	12.8	87.2	24.8	75.2	25.3	74.7	26.2	73.8	26.4	73.6
Afar	14.1	85.9	19.4	80.6	17.1	82.9	29.5	70.5	17.2	82.8
Amhara	8.9	91.1	18.1	81.9	18.5	81.5	18.8	81.2	19.0	81.0
Oromia	12.4	87.6	18.5	81.5	18.0	82.0	21.0	79.0	16.4	83.6
Somali	16.0	84.0	20.2	79.8	21.2	78.8	21.6	78.4	23.7	76.3
Beni. Gumeze	11.3	88.7	20.0	80.0	19.7	80.3	18.9	81.1	21.7	78.3
SNNP	16.7	83.3	17.5	82.5	16.9	83.1	16.3	83.7	16.3	83.7
Gambel a	16.0	84.0	22.9	77.1	20.4	79.6	28.6	71.4	26.7	73.3
Harari	10.4	89.6	17.2	82.8	16.4	83.6	12.0	88.0	15.6	84.4
Dire Dawa	11.8	88.2	16.2	83.8	18.3	81.7	13.6	86.4	19.0	81.0

Source: CSA, Agriculture Sample Survey: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 & 2017/18

**Table 5.6: Distribution of households and landholders by sex and tenure system:
2015-2016 Numbers (000s)**

Item	Tenure System			Total
	Land Owned	Land Rented	Other Tenure	
Number of households	16,813	4,029	1,006	17,059
Number of female-headed	3,151	339	144	3,217
Percentages of female-headed	19	8	14	19
Number of male-headed	13,661	3,690	863	13,841
Percentages of female-headed	81	92	86	81
Number of holders	17,166	4,089	1,017	17,520
Land area in hectares	14,999	2,693	412	18,104
Number of female holders	3,195	333	137	3,270
Land area in hectares	1,981	112	34	2,127
Average area/female holder	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.7

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Number of male holders	13,971	3,756	881	14,250
Land area in hectares	13,018	2,581	378	15,977
Average area/male holder	0.9	0.7	0.4	1.1

Source: CSA 2016, Agricultural Sample Survey.

5.6. Agriculture access benefit and control

5.6.1. Agricultural Advisory Services

Farmers' access to timely agricultural consulting services is critical for enhancing smallholder agriculture's production, productivity, and efficiency. Farmers' access to these services varies amongst groups and actors in the sector due to a variety of socioeconomic and other impediments. Table 5.7 summarizes the last five years' distribution of agricultural holders who obtain agricultural guidance by sex of the holder at the national level. According to the AgSS results from the previous five years, 15% of agricultural landowners who reported having access to agricultural services are female. The findings show that women have less access to agricultural guidance, which is critical for increasing output.

Table 5-7 of the five survey years graph depicts the regional percentage distribution of male and female agricultural landowners who had access to advisory services. As seen in the table below, Gambela (25.8%) and Tigray (21.4%) regions have a greater share of female agricultural owners than the other areas. The proportion of females with access to agricultural services in the other regions ranges from 10.3 % in Direedewa City administration to 18.1 % in the SNNP region on average during the last five years.

Table 5.7: Distribution of agricultural holders having access to agricultural advisory services by sex and region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male

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Country Total	16.4	83.6	13.4	86.6	15.4	84.6	15.2	84.8	16.0	84.0
Tigray	23.4	76.6	18.7	81.3	20.8	79.2	21.5	78.5	22.7	77.3
Afar	20.7	79.3	0.0	100.0	36.3	63.7	19.0	81.0	12.8	87.2
Amhara	15.7	84.3	10.3	89.7	14.1	85.9	14.8	85.2	15.1	84.9
Oromia	14.6	85.4	12.4	87.6	13.2	86.8	13.0	87.0	13.8	86.2
Somali	22.1	77.9	8.5	91.5	27.2	72.8	10.7	89.3	1.7	98.3
Benishangul-Gumuz	19.4	80.6	11.3	88.7	17.8	82.2	18.1	81.9	18.7	81.3
SNNP	18.3	81.7	17.3	82.7	18.6	81.4	17.3	82.7	19.2	80.8
Gambela	27.4	72.6	22.7	77.3	17.9	82.1	26.8	73.2	34.2	65.8
Harari	11.5	88.5	8.7	91.3	13.1	86.9	7.3	92.7	17.6	82.4
Dire Dawa	12.2	87.8	13.8	86.2	11.9	88.1	7.7	92.3	5.8	94.2

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.6.2. Access to Agricultural Credit Services

Smallholder farmers' production is thought to be boosted by access to agricultural loans. Credit can help resource-poor farmers boost their crop and livestock productivity. Agricultural credit information is gathered bounding to credits that are obtained and used for cropping and/or livestock operations during the survey year in the annual AgSS survey.

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Table 5-8 shows the regional distribution of male and female farm owners with access to agricultural loans for the last five years. For the research years covered, the average percentage share of female agricultural owners who used agricultural loan ranged from 6.3 % in Harari to 22.8 % in Somalia. By the 2015/16 production year, however, there was no availability of agricultural loan services for both male and female agricultural owners in Somalia. In the 2017/18 fiscal year, female access to agricultural loan services was reported to be zero in the Afar, Harari, and Dire Dewa municipal administrations. According to the survey data, females had less than 15% access to agricultural loans during the survey years.

Table 5.8; Distribution of agricultural holder having access to agricultural credit by sex, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Fem ale	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Male
Country Total	14.6	84.5	13.4	86.6	13.8	86.2	12.8	87.2	13.5	86.5
Tigray	20.6	79.4	18.7	81.3	15.1	84.9	18.4	81.6	21.5	78.5
Afar	28.3	71.7	0.0	100.0	4.2	95.8	26.9	73.1	0.0	100.0
Amhara	11.3	88.7	10.3	89.7	10.4	89.6	10.0	90.0	11.0	89.0
Oromia	13.3	86.7	12.4	87.6	13.8	86.2	11.0	89.0	11.2	88.8
Somali	15.9	84.1	8.5	91.5	-	-	37.7	62.3	29.1	70.9
Benishangul - Gumuz	13.6	86.4	11.3	88.7	8.8	91.2	12.1	87.9	9.4	90.6
SNNP	18.2	81.8	17.3	82.7	19.1	80.9	16.3	83.7	18.7	81.3

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Gambela	19.4	80.6	14.8	85.2	10.2	89.8	23.0	77.0	31.6	68.4
Harari	14.8	85.2	8.7	91.3	8.1	91.9	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0
Dire Dawa	22.6	77.4	13.8	86.2	0.0	100.0	37.9	62.1	0.0	100.0

(Source, CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18)

5.6.3. Agricultural Extension Services

Agricultural extension services are primarily concerned with raising smallholder farmers' productivity and yield, primarily through technology transfer and farmer training. Smallholder farmers' returns on agricultural production improve when they have access to extension services. For the last five years, Table 5.9 shows the percentage distribution of agricultural holders who reported having access to the agricultural extension package by sex at the national level. As shown in the graph, around 86 % of extension service consumers are men. At the country level, the remaining 14 % are female agricultural owners. Table 5:9 shows the regional distributions of agricultural holdings with access to extension services by sex for the five survey periods. According to the poll, female extension users were higher in Tigray and SNNP regional states, with 19.3% and 17.8 % on average in their respective orders.

Table 5.9; Percentage distribution of extension users by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	14.6	85.4	14.3	85.7	14.6	85.4	14.3	85.7	14.7	85.3

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Tigray	21.1	78.9	17.8	82.2	21.0	79.0	17.6	82.4	18.9	81.1
Afar	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	25.6	74.4	2.2	97.8	28.7	71.3
Amhara	13.5	86.5	13.3	86.7	13.7	86.3	13.5	86.5	13.1	86.9
Oromia	12.8	87.2	13.5	86.5	12.6	87.4	13.0	87.0	13.8	86.2
Somali	9.6	90.4	3.2	96.8	5.1	94.9	23.2	76.8	0.0	100.0
Benishangul-Gumuz	11.7	88.3	10.1	89.9	11.9	88.1	13.0	87.0	13.0	87.0
SNNP	17.8	82.2	17.2	82.8	17.8	82.2	17.1	82.9	19.3	80.7
Gambela	0.0	100.0	4.3	97.7	8.6	91.4	32.2	67.8	7.6	92.4
Harari	11.3	88.7	14.4	85.6	13.0	87.0	10.1	89.9	10.8	89.2
Dire Dawa	10.6	89.4	13.1	86.9	14.4	85.6	2.9	97.1	0.0	100.0

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.6.4. Oxen Ownership

The ownership of oxen is linked with good farm management practices in Ethiopia's rural subsistence farming. Farmers who have access to at least two oxen can plow and prepare their agricultural farmland in a timely manner. The survey result shows among the agricultural holder who reported having enough oxen; females constitute on average less than 10%. Almost the majority of the agricultural holders reported owning at least two oxen are male agriculture holders. The result reveals less access to oxen for female agricultural holders.

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Table 5.10 shows the regional distribution of agricultural holders who have enough oxen by sex for the five survey years. According to the survey results, the proportion of female agricultural holders who reported having enough oxen is highest in Afar (11.2%), followed by Oromia (10.6%), and the lowest in Dire Dawa (1.5%).

Table 5.10: Percentage distribution of agricultural holder having enough oxen ownership by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	9.8	90.2	9.2	90.8	8.4	91.6	8.8	91.2	8.7	91.3
Tigray	9.3	90.7	7.4	92.6	8.0	92.0	8.9	91.1	10.2	89.8
Afar	10.9	89.1	11.1	88.9	3.6	96.4	26.8	73.2	3.5	96.5
Amhara	6.8	93.2	5.7	94.3	6.1	93.9	5.4	94.6	5.4	94.6
Oromia	11.3	88.7	11.2	88.8	9.7	90.3	10.6	89.4	10.0	90.0
Somali	11.9	88.1	9.8	90.2	9.4	90.6	5.1	94.9	6.5	93.5
Benishangul-Gumuz	8.5	91.5	5.7	94.3	6.9	93.1	8.2	91.8	9.9	90.1
SNNP	13.2	86.8	13.5	86.5	10.0	90.0	9.3	90.7	11.5	88.5
Gambela	8.8	91.2	6.1	93.9	3.5	96.5	8.6	91.4	0.0	100.0
Harari	7.4	92.6	8.5	91.5	4.0	96.0	4.2	95.8	0.0	100.0
Dire Dawa	1.7	98.3	0.6	99.4	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	4.9	95.1

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Source, CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.6.5. Access to Inputs

In smallholder agriculture, farmers that have access to inputs can be more efficient in increasing farm profits. Gender-based inequalities associated to headship are revealed according to the sex of the household head (Table 5:11). These disparities are particularly evident in access to production elements such as land, labor, and money, as well as in the usage of inputs, which female-headed households are less likely to report. With fewer units of working-age adult labor and animals, female household heads generate much less land than male-headed households. The observed discrepancies in production indicators are likely to be explained by differences in household structure and resources, combined with lower use rates of enhanced seeds and fertilizers. The extent to which such resources and inputs are then successfully and appropriately utilized further influences productivity along gender lines.

Table 5.11: Input use and yields, by sex of household head

		Gender of the household head		p-value
		Male	Female	
Inputs	Improved seeds	0.276	0.146	0.001
	Agrochemicals	0.207	0.145	0.073
	Fertilizer, organic	0.730	0.589	0.002
	Fertilizer, chemical	0.604	0.444	0.003
	Fertilizer kg/ha	81	60	0.004
	Extension	0.686	0.590	0.073
Yields	Barley	1 630	1 430	0.968
	Maize	1 920	1 790	0.006
	Teff	1 099	934	0.000
	Wheat	1 524	1 342	0.283
	Tomato, onion	6 310	1 425	0.032
	Banana, mango, avocado	15	19	0.328

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Household descriptive statistics	Household size (N)	5.194	3.721	0.000
	Total working-age HH members (N)	2.785	2.065	0.000
	Male	1.379	0.808	0.000
	Female	1.405	1.257	0.094
	Access to credit (%)	0.149	0.109	0.217
	Area cultivated (ha)	0.349	0.138	0.000
	Tropical livestock units (index)	2.272	1.728	0.074

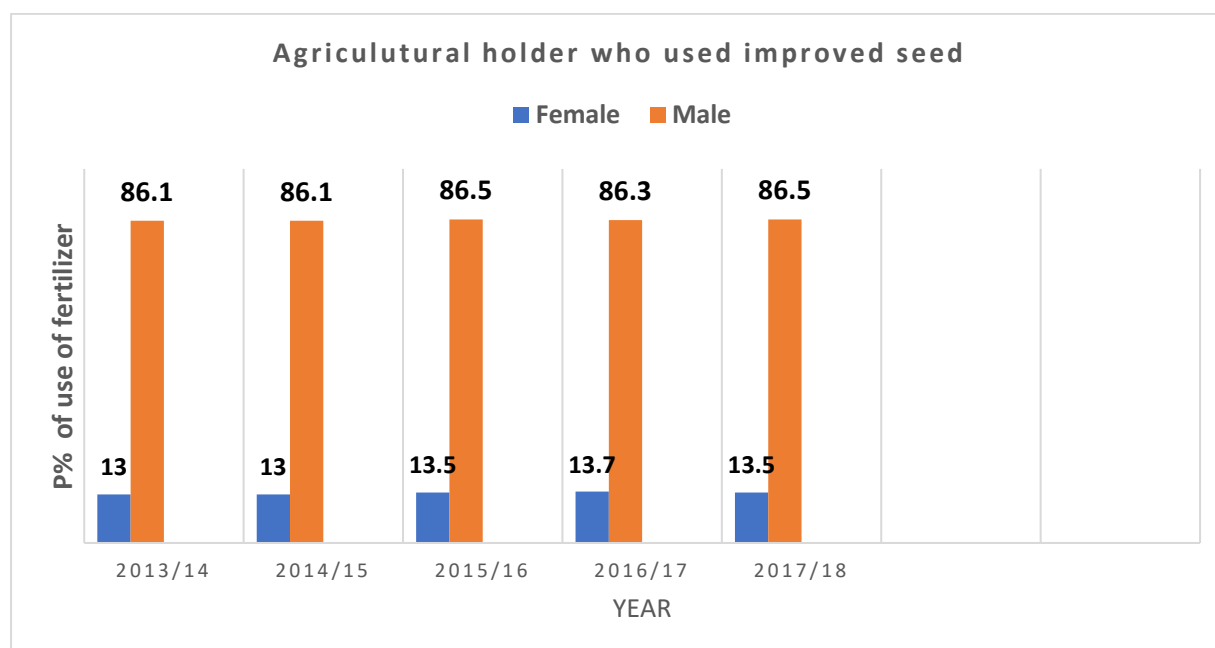
Source: ESS, 2018, CSA and World Bank, 2020.

5.6.6. Improved Seed

Smallholder farmers' ability to boost agricultural production and productivity, as well as their ability to ensure food security and livelihoods, is dependent on access to and usage of improved seed. The Figure 5.1 shows the nationwide distribution of agricultural holders who employed enhanced seed by sex for the last five survey years. As seen in the graph below, nearly all smallholder farmers (>86 %) who said they had access to and used better seed in the previous five years are men. Female agricultural owners have restricted access to and utilization of enhanced seed, according to the study. According to AgSS results, around 14% of agricultural landowners who used enhanced seed are women.

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Figure 5.1: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders who used improved seed by sex of holder and survey years, Country Total



Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 5:12 displays the last five years the geographical percentage distribution of agricultural owners who have used enhanced seed by sex. Afar (24.9 %), Tigray (19.4 %), SNNP (16.8%), and Somali (15.3 %) had a somewhat greater percentage of female users of enhanced seed than the other regions in their respective orders. Females, on the other hand, have a much smaller regional distribution of enhanced seed than males.

Table 5.12: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders who used improved seed by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Male	Fem ale	Male	Fem ale	Male	Fem ale	Male	Fem ale	Male	Fem ale
Country Total	86.1	13.9	86.1	13.9	13.5	86.5	13.7	86.3	13.5	86.5
Tigray	23.0	77.0	17.1	82.9	17.0	83.0	22.9	77.1	17.0	83.0

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Afar	14.3	85.7	25.0	75.0	25.5	74.5	34.0	66.0	25.5	74.5
Amhara	12.3	87.7	12.8	87.2	12.9	87.1	11.8	88.2	12.9	87.1
Oromia	12.3	87.7	12.9	87.1	11.4	88.6	12.7	87.3	11.4	88.6
Somali	7.6	92.4	11.9	88.1	14.9	85.1	27.3	72.7	14.9	85.1
Benishan gul- Gumuz	13.7	86.3	5.8	94.2	6.9	93.1	13.9	86.1	6.9	93.1
SNNP	16.9	83.1	17.1	82.9	17.4	82.6	15.3	84.7	17.4	82.6
Gambela	18.3	81.7	11.9	88.1	5.6	94.4	54.0	46.0	5.6	94.4
Harari	18.2	81.8	14.5	85.5	12.1	87.9	12.7	87.3	12.1	87.9
Dire Dawa	17.9	82.1	8.5	91.5	10.3	89.7	14.0	86.0	10.3	89.7

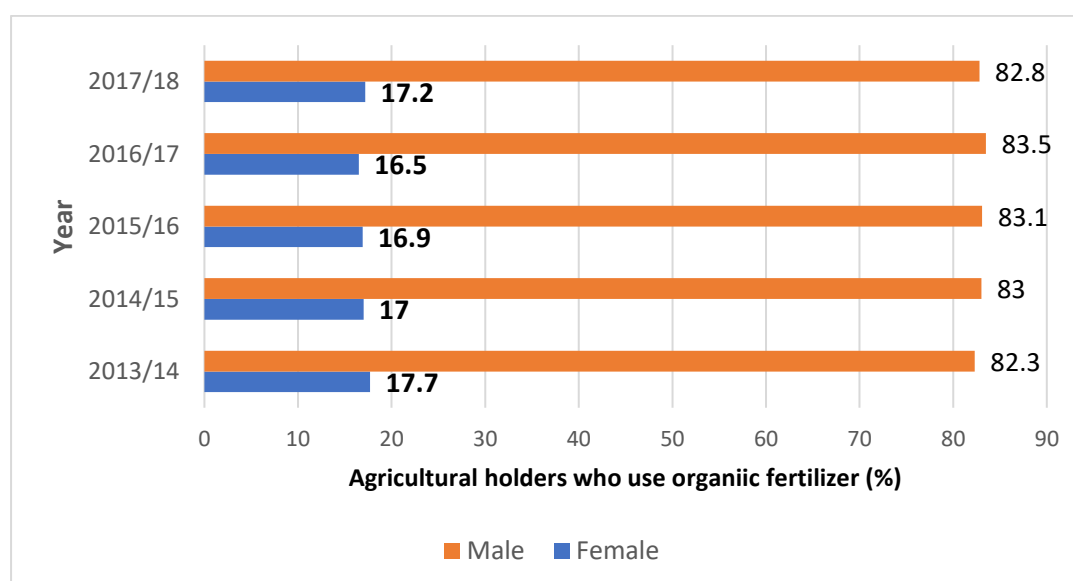
(Source, CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18)

5.6.7. Fertilizer Use

Fertilizer is one of the inputs that helps increase crop productivity. Farmers' access to and use of inorganic fertilizer improves their crop production efficiency and yields higher returns. Figure 5.2 depicts the gender distribution of agricultural landowners applying inorganic fertilizer in the country during the last five years. The percentage of females who applied fertilizer fluctuated from 16.5 % to 17.7 % throughout the course of five years, according to the findings. At the national level, during 2013/14 to 2017/18 survey years, 83% of agricultural owners who applied fertilizer were men on average.

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Figure 5.2: Percentage distribution of agricultural holder who used in organic fertilizer by sex of holder and survey years, Country Total



Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 5:13 shows the regional distribution of fertilizer application by agricultural landowners by sex and survey year. Based on the figures shown the percentage of females who applied organic fertilizer has been quite low over the last five years in comparison to male farm owners. Even in Tigray which is the highest from all is only (22.6 %) has the largest percentage of female agricultural owners that utilize inorganic fertilizers, while Somalia has the lowest (6 %).

Table 5.13: Percentage distribution of agricultural holder who used inorganic fertilizer by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Fem ale	Mal e	Femal e	Ma le	Fema le	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Male
Country Total	17.7	82. 3	17.0	83. 0	16.9	83. 1	16.5	83. 5	17.2	82.8
Tigray	23.5	76. 5	21.7	78. 3	22.5	77. 5	22.4	77. 6	23.1	76.9

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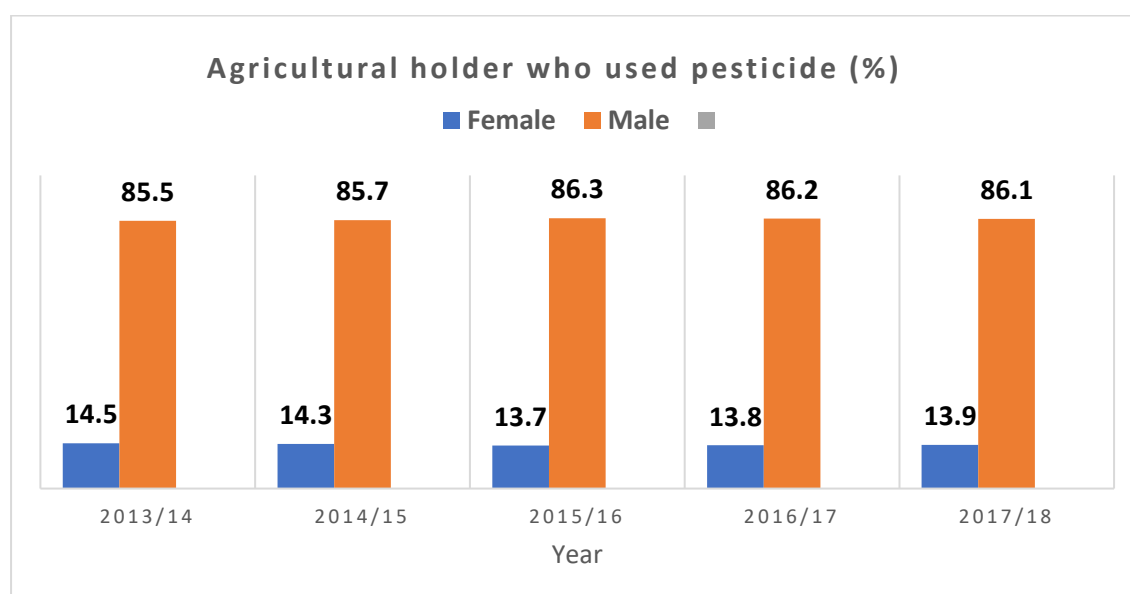
Afar	20.8	79.2	9.5	90.5	2.7	97.3	57.2	42.8	3.2	96.8
Amhara	15.8	84.2	14.9	85.1	15.4	84.6	15.7	84.3	15.7	84.3
Oromia	16.2	83.8	16.1	83.9	15.5	84.5	14.8	85.2	15.5	84.5
Somali	6.0	94.0	3.4	96.6	7.1	92.9	9.2	90.8	16.0	84.0
Benishangul-Gumuz	15.9	84.1	15.0	85.0	17.1	82.9	17.0	83.0	18.0	82.0
SNNP	20.7	79.3	19.4	80.6	19.1	80.9	18.6	81.4	21.1	78.9
Gambela	20.8	79.2	12.6	87.4	4.5	95.5	12.4	87.6	23.9	76.1
Harari	12.1	87.9	15.9	84.1	14.9	85.1	11.6	88.4	14.0	86.0
Dire Dawa	14.5	85.5	8.3	91.7	11.3	88.7	10.1	89.9	13.7	86.3

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.6.8. Pesticides Use

Pests and disease are the most common causes of crop output decrease in agriculture. Access to pest control procedures or technologies has a significant impact on small-scale farmers' profits. Figure 5-3 shows the countrywide distribution of agricultural landowners who reported using pesticides by sex over the last five years. In the last five survey years males made up 85 % of agricultural households that used pesticides. While women make.

Figure 5.3: Percentage distribution of Agricultural holder who used pesticide by sex of holder and Survey years, Country Total



During the survey years, more males than women were observed spraying pesticide, according to regional statistics. Table 5-14 shows the regional distribution of agricultural operations using pesticides by survey year. The outcome differs by region, as seen in the table. Extreme outcomes have been found in the Afar and Somali regions; in Afar, no single female agricultural holder reported to 100 % male users between 2013/14 and 2015/16 by the year 2017/18. In the Somali region, the results range from 100 % male dominance in 2013/14 to no agricultural holders using pesticides from 2014/15 to 2017/19. In the last five years, a larger percentage of female farm owners employing pesticides has been recorded in Dire Dawa, SNNP, Tigray, and Oromia, respectively 23.3%, 20. %, 14.9 %, and 14.2%.

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Table 5.14: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders who used pesticide by sex of holder, region, and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	14.5	85.5	14.3	85.7	13.7	86.3	13.8	86.2	13.9	86.1
Tigray	14.5	85.5	13.7	86.3	16.6	83.4	15.1	84.9	14.7	85.3
Afar	-	-	5.8	94.2	0.0	100.0	4.2	95.8	0.0	100.0
Amhara	9.9	90.1	9.5	90.5	9.7	90.3	10.4	89.6	9.3	90.7
Oromia	14.4	85.6	15.0	85.0	13.4	86.6	13.8	86.2	14.2	85.8
Somali	0.0	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Benishangul-Gumuz	14.8	85.2	11.5	88.5	7.1	92.9	8.8	91.2	7.1	92.9
SNNP	21.3	78.7	20.5	79.5	20.3	79.7	19.1	80.9	22.8	77.2
Gambela	5.2	94.8	3.8	96.2	2.5	97.5	10.2	89.8	15.9	84.1

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Harari	4.9	95.1	11.3	88.7	13.2	86.8	8.1	91.9	2.1	97.9
Dire Dawa	10.8	89.2	33.3	66.7	35.0	65.0	0.0	100.0	37.2	62.8

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18)

The Tigray and Afar regions have had the largest number of female irrigation users in the last five years. The average yearly female irrigation users in these two regions were around 18.9%, as shown in Table 5-15. However, the Gambela region has the lowest average yearly female irrigation users (4.3 %). Across the regions, the proportion of male irrigation users is significantly larger than that of female irrigation users.

Table 5.15 Percentage distribution of irrigation users by sex of holder, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	13.2	86.8	12.4	87.6	12.0	88.0	12.4	87.6	12.4	87.6
Tigray	17.8	82.2	16.5	83.5	18.6	81.4	20.9	79.1	20.9	79.1
Afar	15.4	84.6	15.2	84.8	20.5	79.5	21.6	78.4	21.6	78.4
Amhara	11.5	88.5	11.2	88.8	11.6	88.4	11.7	88.3	11.7	88.3
Oromia	12.4	87.6	12.4	87.6	9.5	90.5	9.1	90.9	9.1	90.9
Somali	11.7	88.3	7.6	92.4	15.3	84.7	16.1	83.9	16.1	83.9
Beni. Gumuz	18.5	81.5	14.4	85.6	12.1	87.9	17.8	82.2	17.8	82.2
SNNP	16.2	83.8	13.5	86.5	12.2	87.8	10.6	89.4	10.6	89.4
Gambela	3.8	96.2	1.9	98.1	0.0	100.0	8.0	92.0	8.0	92.0
Harari	12.4	87.6	8.7	91.3	12.7	87.3	5.1	94.9	5.1	94.9

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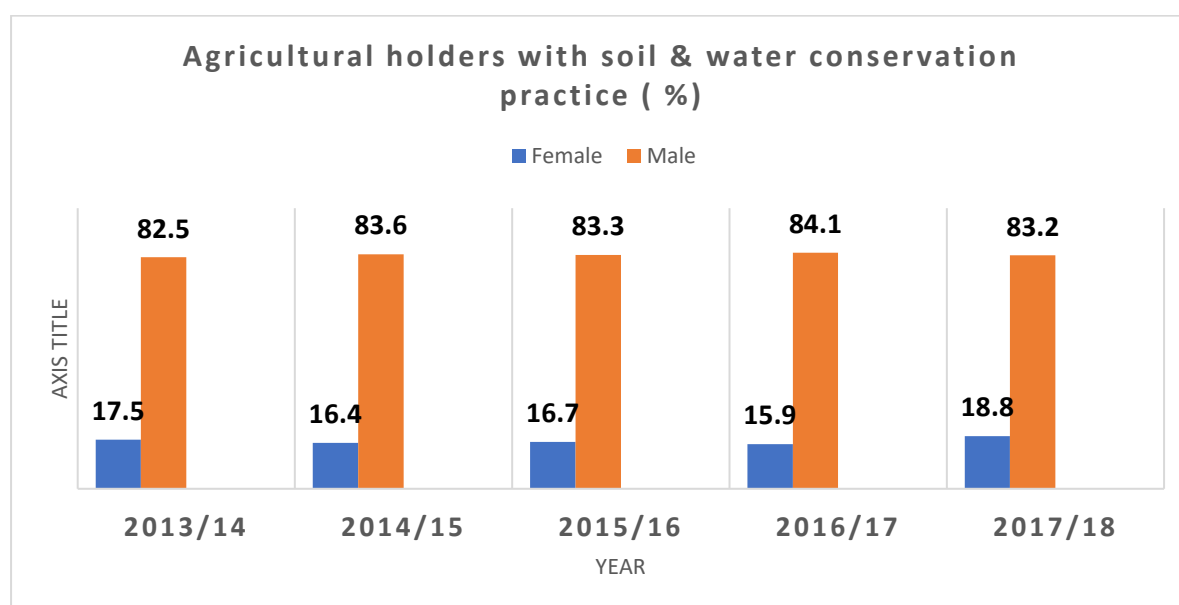
Dire Dawa	20.1	79.9	9.3	90.7	14.3	85.7	11.0	89.0	11.0	89.0
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Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

5.6.9. Soil and Water Conservation Practice

Farmers utilize a variety of soil and water conservation techniques on their farmland to reduce soil and nutrient loss due to erosion. Figure 5-4 depicts male and female agricultural landowners, of the countries against soil and water conservation practices. The results of the poll suggest that, in the last five years, men agricultural owners have been more likely to undertake soil and water conservation than female agricultural owners. Soil and water conservation practices among female farm owners were greater in the 2013/14 agricultural sample survey period, then dropped and remained nearly consistent from 2014/15 to 2017/18 surveys.

Figure 5.4: Distribution of agricultural holders with soil and water conservation practice by sex and survey years, country



Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

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Table 5.16: Distribution of agricultural holders with soil and water conservation practice by sex, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	17.5	82.5	16.4	83.6	16.7	83.3	15.9	84.1	16.8	83.2
Tigray	24.2	75.8	22.9	77.1	23.8	76.2	23.4	76.6	24.2	75.8
Afar	17.3	82.7	9.0	91.0	13.2	86.8	31.6	68.4	2.7	97.3
Amhara	16.5	83.5	15.2	84.8	15.8	84.2	16.2	83.8	16.2	83.8
Oromia	15.8	84.2	15.1	84.9	14.9	85.1	14.1	85.9	14.8	85.2
Somali	19.9	80.1	10.1	89.9	12.4	87.6	9.8	90.2	10.3	89.7
Benishangul-Gumuz	15.7	84.3	13.4	86.6	14.3	85.7	18.9	81.1	18.6	81.4
SNNP	21.0	79.0	20.2	79.8	20.0	80.0	17.4	82.6	20.7	79.3
Gambela	6.2	93.8	6.7	93.3	7.2	92.8	8.8	91.2	4.2	95.8
Harari	13.8	86.2	16.8	83.2	15.2	84.8	11.2	88.8	14.9	85.1
Dire Dawa	15.1	84.9	10.8	89.2	15.5	84.5	11.8	88.2	12.9	87.1

Males are more likely to pursue soil and water conservation at the regional level than females. In the Tigray region, female smallholders accounted for a substantial percentage of average annual soil and water conservation practices (23.7%) over the last five years. Females in the Gambela region, on the other hand, adopt the least yearly average soil and water conservation techniques (6.6%).

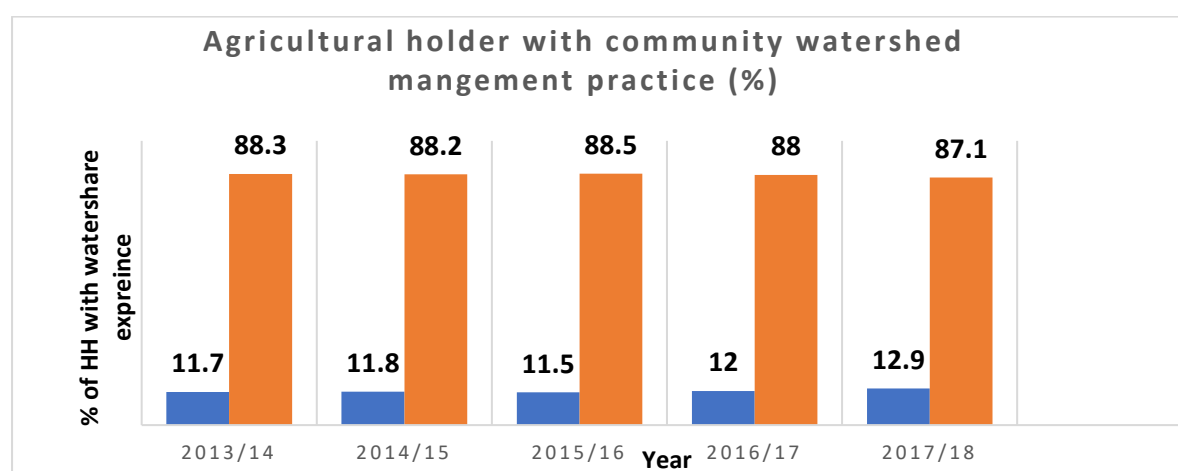
5.7. Community Participation in Community Watershed Management Practices

Watershed management is a method of proactively managing the resources and natural community assets within a watershed area by a group of people who are depending on the area. The involvement of communities and households in the stages of planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of watershed development is known as community watershed management. A watershed is defined as any area where rainwater runoff is collected and drained into a single place. Drainage and this word are interchangeable. The yearly agriculture survey asks about smallholder

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farmers' participation in community watershed management practices in their communities is surveyed in the annual agricultural survey (AgSS). Farmers participate in such activities on a yearly basis as a result of enormous community mobilization. At the national level, Figure 5-5 shows the distribution of agricultural landowners who reported engaging in Community Watershed Management Practice in their community, broken down by sex of landowners and years.

Figure 5.5: Distribution of agricultural holders with community watershed management practice participation by sex and years, Country level



Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

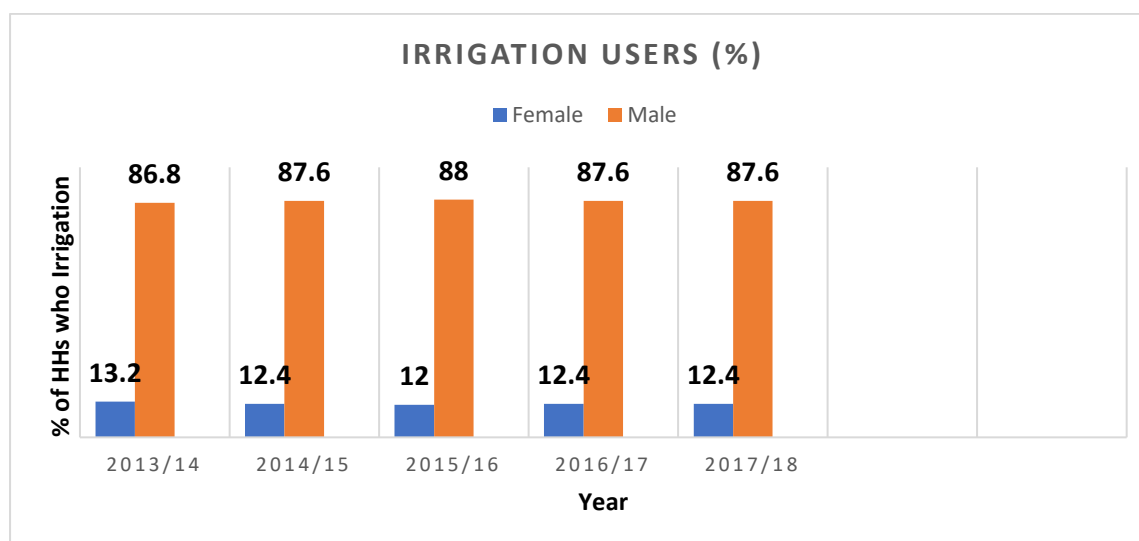
5.8. Agricultural Practice

5.8.1. Irrigation

From the 2013/14 to 2017/18 AgSS seasons, Figure 5:6 depicts the percentage distribution of irrigation users among small holder farmers by sex. According to the last five years report, the average annual male irrigation users have been substantially greater (87.5%) than female irrigation users at the country level (12.5 %). The percentage distribution of female irrigation users has likewise shown shifting tendencies across the same period. The highest proportion of female irrigation users was seen in 2013/14 (13.2%), after which it fell and remained nearly steady until the most recent production season of 2017/18.

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Figure 5.6: Percentage distribution of irrigation users by sex of holder and survey years, Country Level



Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Male smallholder participation in community watershed management methods is substantially higher than female smallholder participation, according to the results of the yearly Agricultural Sample Surveys depicted in (Figure 5.6). The figures also indicate that female engagement in community watershed management practices has been varying little across the five years under discussion.

Table 5.17: Distribution of agricultural holders with community watershed management practice participation by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Fema le	Mal e	Fema le	Mal e	Fema le	Mal e	Fema le	Mal e	Fema le	Mal e
Country Total	11.7	88. 3	11.8	88. 2	11.5	88. 5	12.0	88. 0	12.9	87.1
Tigray	20.7	79. 3	19.4	80. 6	20.5	79. 5	20.7	79. 3	20.2	79. 8
Afar	31.1	68. 9	13.0	87. 0	9.6	90. 4	34.5	65. 5	10.6	89. 4

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Amhara	12.1	87.9	11.1	88.9	11.8	88.2	12.1	87.9	12.4	87.6
Oromia	9.0	91.0	9.4	90.6	8.4	91.6	8.8	91.2	10.1	89.9
Somali	20.0	80.0	19.3	80.7	12.5	87.5	7.1	92.9	0.0	100.0
Benishangul	12.2	87.8	10.3	89.7	12.2	87.8	13.8	86.2	13.6	86.4
SNNP	12.7	87.3	14.2	85.8	13.2	86.8	13.0	87.0	16.7	83.3
Gambela	14.9	85.1	11.4	88.6	7.9	92.1	5.3	94.7	9.1	90.9
Harari	2.6	97.4	7.3	92.7	5.6	94.4	6.9	93.1	9.4	90.6
Dire Dawa	11.3	88.7	11.4	88.6	10.6	89.4	8.6	91.4	12.2	87.8

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

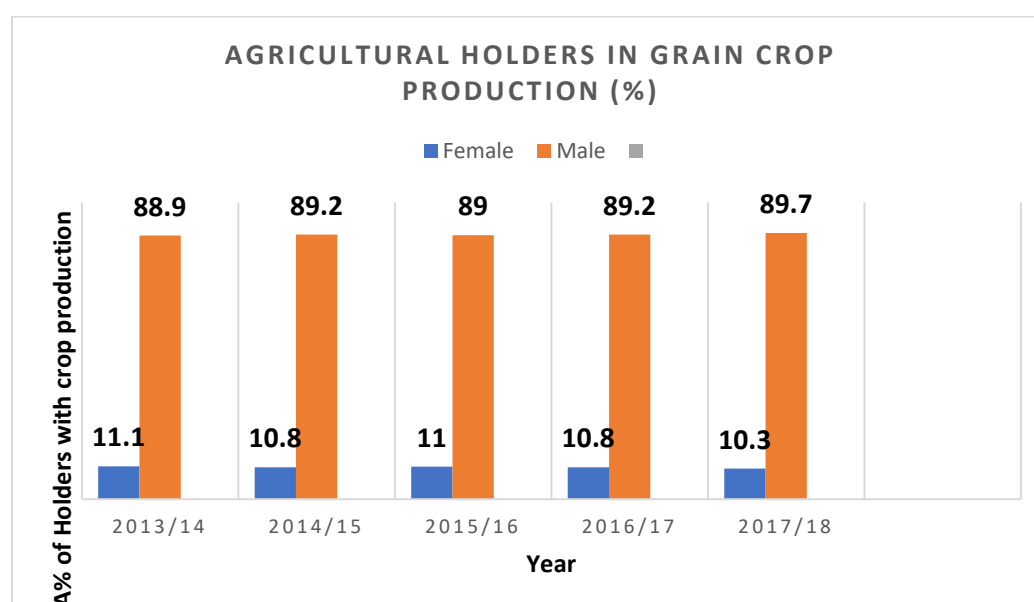
Male and female engagement in community watershed management methods differs between regions, according to survey findings acquired from 2013/14 to 2017/18. (Table 5- 17). The survey results also show that, over the last five years, the average yearly male engagement in community watershed management activities has been much higher than female participation in all regions. In the Harari region, the predominant proportion of male participation in community watershed management methods was noted. The average annual participation rate of males in this region is around 93.6 %, whereas female participation is just around 6.4 %. In terms of female participation in community watershed management activities, Tigray (20.3%) and Afar (19.8%) had the greatest average annual participation, followed by SNNP (14 %).

Ethiopian grain crop production accounted for more than half of the country's annual agricultural output. The vast majority of these crops are grown by small-scale farmers.

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For the last five years, Figure 5.7 shows the percentage distribution of agricultural holders growing grain crops by sex. According to the results of the survey, female agricultural holders account for roughly 11% of those who report producing grain crops. Male agricultural holders account for around 89 percent of grain crop producers. A steady percentage share of participation of both sexes is noticed when looking at the trajectory of grain crop-producing agricultural holders.

Figure 5.7: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders in grain crop production by Sex of holders, and survey years, country level



Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 5-18 shows the regional distribution of agricultural holders growing grain crops by sex from 2013/14 to 2017/18. The result indicates that a higher percentage of female agricultural holders growing grain crops in the Gambela region (18.8%), followed by SNNP (15.9%) and Afar (13%). Equal average percentage participation of females is found in Oromia and Harari regions (11.5%). The lowest average percentage of female agricultural holders are found in the Amhara region (8.1%)

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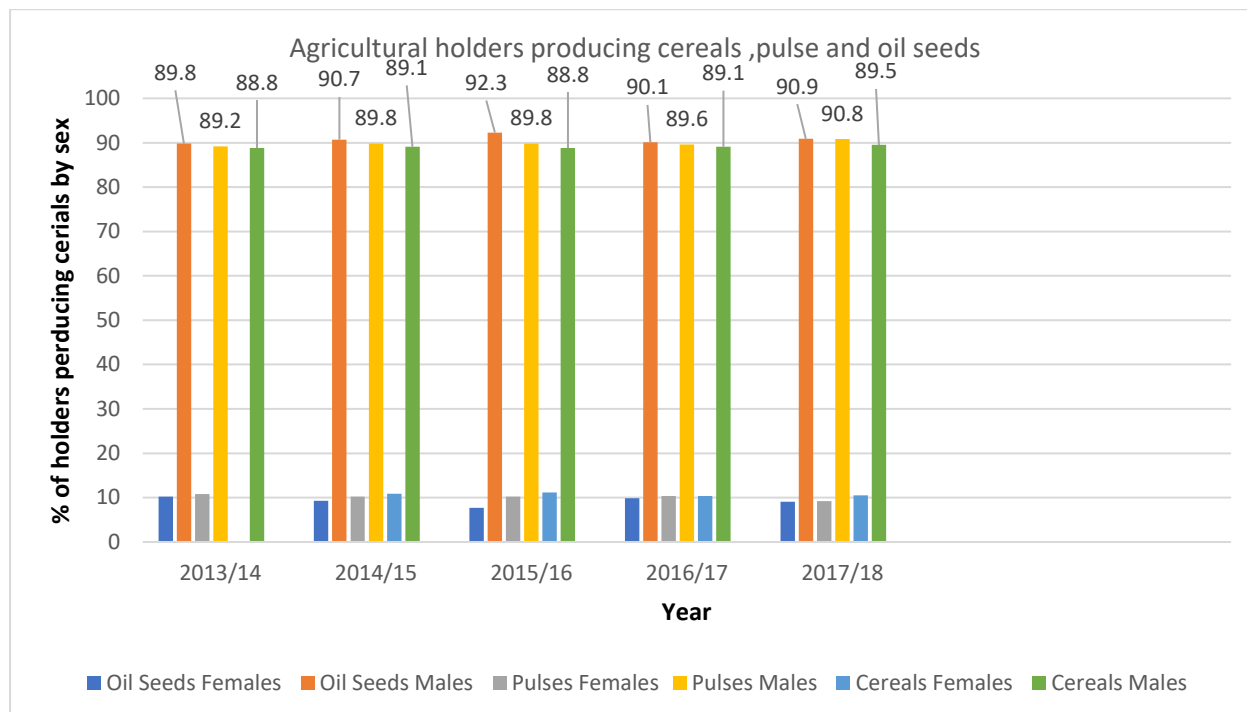
Table 5-18 displays the regional distribution of agricultural holdings farming grain crops by sex for the period 2013/14 to 2017/18. According to the findings, Gambela region has the highest percentage of female agricultural holders farming grain crops (18.8%), followed by SNNP (15.9%) and Afar (13 %). In the Oromia and Harari regions, female involvement rates are roughly equal (11.5 %). The Amhara region has the lowest average percentage of female agricultural owners (8.1%)

Table 5.18: Percentage Distribution of agricultural holders in grain crop production by sex of holders, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Country Total	11.1	88.9	10.8	89.2	11.0	89.0	10.8	89.2	10.3	89.7
Tigray	12.2	87.8	12.5	87.5	12.0	88.0	11.9	88.1	13.5	86.5
Afar	10.8	89.2	11.6	88.4	18.4	81.6	15.4	84.6	8.8	91.2
Amhara	8.6	91.4	8.0	92.0	8.4	91.6	7.9	92.1	7.5	92.5
Oromia	11.6	88.4	11.7	88.3	11.8	88.2	11.8	88.2	10.8	89.2
Somali	14.0	86.0	9.6	90.4	10.2	89.8	12.2	87.8	5.6	94.4
Beni. Gumuz	9.5	90.5	7.9	92.1	7.4	92.6	10.9	89.1	9.4	90.6
SNNP	16.6	83.4	15.5	84.5	16.3	83.7	15.1	84.9	16.1	83.9
Gambel a	18.5	81.5	18.5	81.5	18.6	81.4	16.5	83.5	22.1	77.9
Harari	9.6	90.4	13.3	86.7	10.0	90.0	8.3	91.7	16.2	83.8
Dire Dawa	10.6	89.4	5.9	94.1	10.2	89.8	7.9	92.1	9.3	90.7

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Figure 5.8; percentage distribution of agricultural holders producing



of

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Figure 5.8 shows the sex distribution of agricultural producers of cereals, pulses, and oilseed crops at the national level over the last five years. According to the findings, men's agricultural producers account for 89 % of all cereal producers. Males account for the majority of agricultural producers of pulse and oilseeds, with 89.9% and 90.8 %, respectively. The cultivation of cereals, pulses, and oilseeds crops is dominated by male agricultural landowners across the regions.

Table 5:19 shows the geographical percentage distribution of cereal producers by sex over the last five years. According to the findings of the survey, the overall share of female agricultural owners in cereal production is significantly lower than that of male agricultural owners across regions. According to the findings, the SNNP (15.9%) region had the highest percentage of female agricultural owners farming cereal crops,

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followed by the Gambela region (15.2 %). The Amhara area has the lowest average percentage of female cereal farmers (8.2 %).

Table 5.19: Percentage distribution of agricultural production in cereals production by sex of holders, region and survey years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Country Total	11.2	88.8	10.9	89.1	11.2	88.8	10.9	89.1	10.5	89.5
Tigray	12.3	87.7	12.6	87.4	12.2	87.8	11.9	88.1	13.6	86.4
Afar	10.8	89.2	11.6	88.4	18.5	81.5	15.5	84.5	8.9	91.1
Amhara	8.5	91.5	8.2	91.8	8.6	91.4	7.9	92.1	7.7	92.3
Oromia	11.8	88.2	11.7	88.3	12.0	88.0	11.9	88.1	11.0	89.0
Somali	13.7	86.3	9.8	90.2	10.1	89.9	12.4	87.6	5.3	94.7
Beni, Gumuz	9.4	90.6	8.5	91.5	7.3	92.7	10.9	89.1	10.1	89.9
SNNP	16.5	83.5	15.3	84.7	16.5	83.5	15.1	84.9	16.2	83.8
Gambel a	18.5	81.5	18.6	81.4	18.7	81.3	16.6	83.4	22.1	77.9
Harari	9.4	90.6	13.5	86.5	10.3	89.7	8.9	91.1	15.0	85.0
Dire Dawa	10.7	89.3	5.8	94.2	9.9	90.1	8.1	91.9	9.3	90.7

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 5.20 displays the last five years, geographical percentage distribution of agricultural producers of pulses by sex. According to the finding, the following SNNP (16.0%), Tigray (15.5%), and Somali (14.7%) had a somewhat greater percentage of females generating pulses than the other regions in their respective order. Female farmers who grow pulses, on the other hand, have a far smaller regional distribution than male farmers.

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Table 5.20: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders in pulses production by sex of holder, region and years

Region	2013/ 14		2014/ 15		2015/ 16		2016/ 17		2017/ 18	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Country Total	10.8	89. 2	10.2	89. 8	10.2	89. 8	10.4	89. 6	9.2	90. 8
Tigray	15.5	84. 5	13.4	86. 6	14.6	85. 4	15.5	84. 5	18.4	81.6
Afar	0.0	100. 0	0.0	100. 0	0.0	100. 0	0.0	100. 0	-	-
Amhara	9.1	90. 9	6.9	93.1	7.7	92. 3	7.7	92. 3	6.7	93. 3
Oromia	10.7	89. 3	11.0	89. 0	10.7	89. 3	10.7	89. 3	9.4	90. 6
Somali	12.3	87. 7	29.0	71.0	13.5	86. 5	0.0	100. 0	18.9	81.1
Benishang ul- Gumuz	8.6	91.4	4.9	95.1	9.0	91.0	10.6	89. 4	4.7	95. 3
SNNP	17.5	82. 5	17.0	83. 0	15.6	84. 4	14.9	85.1	15.2	84. 8
Gambela	11.5	88. 5	8.2	91.8	5.0	95. 0	17.6	82. 4	8.2	91.8
Harari	11.0	89. 0	1.8	98. 2	0.0	100. 0	0.0	100. 0	0.0	100. 0
Dire Dawa	8.7	91.3	6.8	93. 2	15.9	84.1	2.3	97. 7	13.7	86. 3

Source: CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

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For the five survey years, Table 5:21 displays the regional percentage distribution of male and female agricultural holders participating in oilseed production. As seen in the table, Harari (11.5%) and Somali regions (11.4 %) have more female agricultural holders participating in oilseed production than other regions. In the Afar region, no female agricultural landowners were observed producing oilseeds.

Table 5.21: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders in oilseed production by Sex of holders, regions and survey year

	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
Region	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	10.2	89.8	9.3	90.7	7.7	92.3	9.9	90.1	9.1	90.9
Tigray	8.3	91.7	9.6	90.4	6.8	93.2	9.5	90.5	9.4	90.6
Afar	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	0	0	0.0	100.0
Amhara	9.9	90.1	7.9	92.1	7.0	93.0	7.1	92.9	6.3	93.7
Oromia	10.4	89.6	10.9	89.1	8.6	91.4	11.9	88.1	10.7	89.3
Somali	23.9	76.1	1.0	99.0	11.5	88.5	6.0	94.0	14.7	85.3
Beni. Gumuz	11.3	88.7	6.0	94.0	6.6	93.4	11.1	88.9	8.0	92.0
SNNP	6.4	93.6	7.4	92.6	6.6	93.4	8.5	91.5	14.3	85.7
Gambela	32.8	67.2	6.5	83.5	0.2	99.8	1.1	98.9	-	-
Harari	10.0	90.0	11.7	88.3	8.4	91.6	5.0	95.0	22.7	77.3

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Dire Dawa	10.6	89.4	4.6	95.4	11.9	88.1	7.2	92.8	2.3	97.7
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Source, CSA, AgSS: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Chapter Six

Manufacturing Industries

6.1. Introduction

“Gender equality is more than a goal in itself. It is a precondition for meeting the challenge of reducing poverty, promoting sustainable development, and building good governance” Kofi Annan, Former UN Secretary.

Industrialization can significantly contribute to poverty reduction and shared prosperity

by promoting structural change, generating employment, and facilitating more efficient use of resources. Its benefits, however, have not historically been enjoyed equally by all segments of the population. Women are often precluded access to secure and well-paid jobs in manufacturing industries and related service sectors, and their participation in the development of technologies remains limited (UNIDO, 2019¹³). Therefore, understanding their situation and taking appropriate action is required.

The **manufacturing** economic sector is often thought of as the heart and soul of a country's economy and is critical in employing a huge part of the labor force and producing materials of strategic importance. Labor, capital, raw materials, emerging markets, and globalization are matters of concern to manufacturing industries in particular and governments in general. Statistics collected on manufacturing industries are, therefore, indispensable for policy making, planning, business running, research, and other purposes.

Particularly, understanding the sector from gender perspective is crucial. This report tries to analyze relevant sex-disaggregated data about the sector to understand the

¹³UNIDO. Inclusive and Sustainable Industrial Development: The gender Dimension, 2019

pattern of ownership, participation and received benefits by women and men in [large and medium scale manufacturing industries](#) and small-scale manufacturing industries.

6.2. Large and Medium Scale Industries

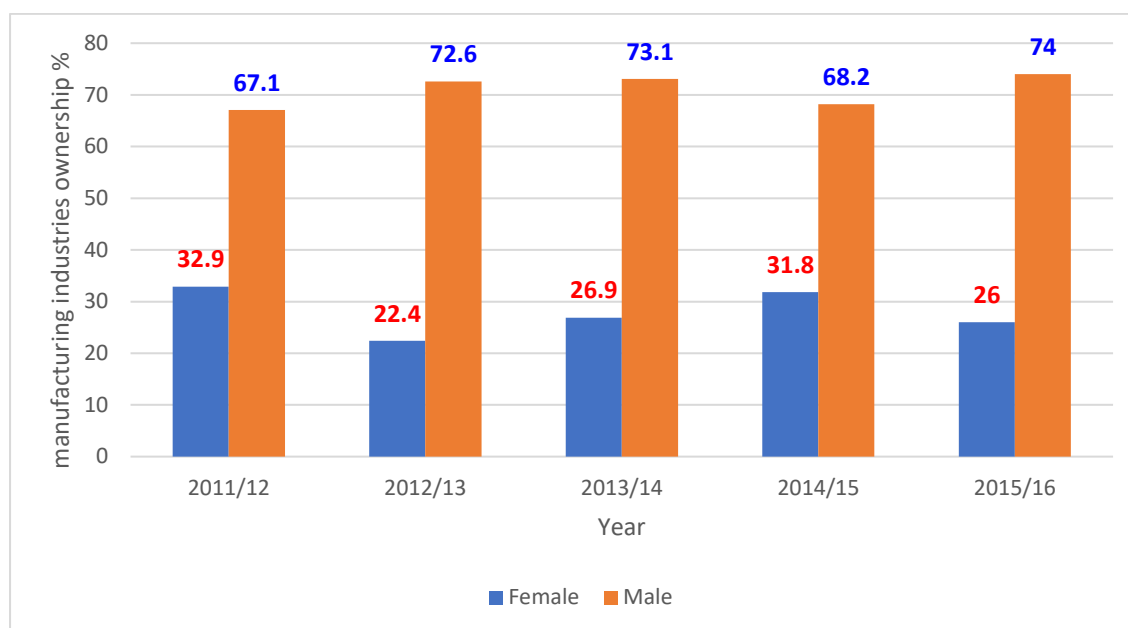
The Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing Industries are those factories that employ ten or more persons and using power-driven machinery. In this section, sex-disaggregated data on the ownership status, initial capital invested, engagement level, and employment status was presented.

1. Ownership Status by Gender at National and Regional level

Figure 5-1 below highlights the trend in female and male ownerships of large and medium scale manufacturing industries during 2011/12 to 2015/16. Accordingly, in terms of ownership of large and medium scale manufacturing industries of the country across all survey years, male owners are larger than female owners. Moreover, female ownership, though there are fluctuations, has decreased from 32.9% in 2011/12 to 26% in 2015/16.

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Figure 6.1: Distribution of ownership of large and medium scale manufacturing industries by sex and years, Country Level



Source: CSA, LMSMIS: 2011/12, 2012/13, 2013/14, 2014/15 and 2015/16

Similarly, Table 6-1 highlights the regional statistics for the ownership of large and medium scale manufacturing industries by sex, between 2011/12 and 2015/16. Accordingly, female ownership significantly increased between 2011/12 and 2015/16 in the regions like Benishangul-Gumuz (13.6% to 77%), SNNP (19.9% to 26.9%), Harari (11.8% to 14.8%) and Dire Dawa city administration (29.3% to 30.6%). However, other regions reported some decrease in female ownership in large and medium scale manufacturing industries for the same period. In terms of proportion of male and female ownership, in all the regions, female ownership falls short of that of male ownership. In absolute terms, female owners in Afar, Benishangul Gomez, and Somali regions are very small. Data from Gambela region was missing.

Table 6.1: Distribution of ownership of Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing Industries by Sex, Region and Years

Region	2011/12		2012/13		2013/14		2014/15		2015/16	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female

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Country Total	6,505	3,189	7659	2,896	7,655	2822	9,794	4,557	9,473	3,320
Tigray	395	88	481	79	452	126	729	675	897	511
Afar	12	2	26	4	23	3	11	1	6	1
Amhara	1,251	359	1,244	353	2,098	580	1,934	602	2,392	346
Oromia	1,469	888	1,826	968	1,990	983	2,376	1141	1,741	672
Somali	30	9	36	4	56	5	48	2	20	1
Benishangul-Gumuz	19	3	29	6	31	9	270	66	113	379
SNNP	678	168	809	148	925	191	1,216	661	762	281
Gambela		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Harari	743	99	691	101	52	24	57	31	208	36
Addis Ababa	1571	1,434	1,942	919	1,643	750	2,740	1,206	2,953	925
Dire Dawa	336	139	575	314	385	151	413	172	381	168

Source: CSA, LMSMIS: 2011/12, 2012/13, 2013/14, 2014/15 and 2015/16

2. Capital Invested by Gender at National and regional Level

Table 6-2 exhibit the initial capital invested by Ethiopians in private large and medium scale manufacturing industries by owners' sex for five years (2011/12 to 2015/16). Accordingly, more male investors than female investors are found across all the regions and reporting years. Between 2013/14 and 2015/16, a gradual increase in the population of male private investors was observed in Amhara, Oromia, Somali, and Harari regions. A gradual decrease has also been observed in female investors in the Tigray, Amhara, SNNP, and Harari regions during the same period. The largest male investors are found in the Oromia region followed by Addis Ababa in 2011/12. Similarly, in 2015/16 the maximum male investors were also found in the Oromia region, followed by Addis Ababa City Administration.

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Table 6.2: Private Ethiopian initial capital (in thousand birr) in large & medium scale manufacturing industries by sex

Region	2011/12		2012/13		2013/14		2014/15	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Country Total	15,821,253	2,203,478	36,145,309	2,423,734	15,021,859	2,770,705	37,211,947	
Tigray	697,102	36,982	2,636,822	186,570	865,346	107,840	2,400,051	
Afar	103,835	-	188,714	4	61,129	4	23,685	
Amhara	385,544	64,140	20,390,628	23,210	1,206,997	70,283	1,825,224	
Oromia	7,712,895	567,499	6,482,210	1,011,682	5,877,813	1,037,659	13,777,359	
Somali	33,393	225	42,067	237	32,863	210	73,325	
Beni. Gumuz	2,892	79	2,762	43	1,014	151	696	
SNNP	86,441	7,367	362,825	1,246	1,139,999	56,103	765,045	
Gambela	1,373	-	1,373	-	-	-	-	
Harari	17,434	1,934	2,985	580	10,333	259	27,905	
Addis Ababa	6,138,120	1,520,570	5,894,485	1,182,321	4,934,450	1,405,676	17,673,885	
Dire Dawa	642,224	4,682	140,438	17,841	891,915	92,520	644,772	

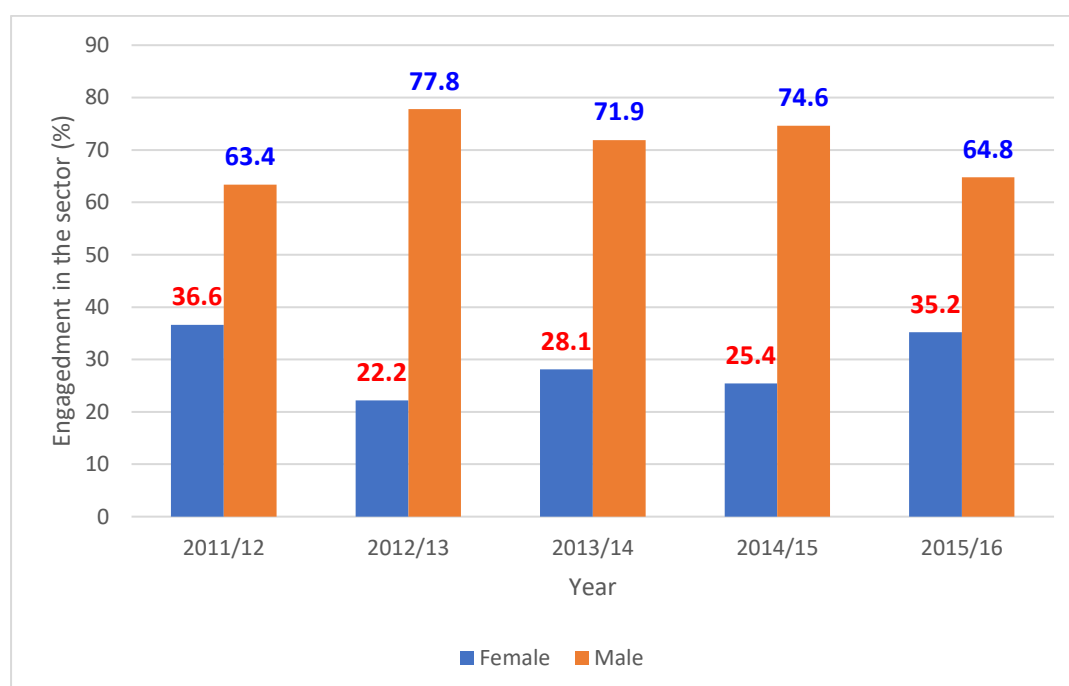
Source: CSA, LMSMIS: 2011/12, 2012/13, 2013/14, 2014/15 and 2015/16

3. Engagement by Gender

Figure 6-2 depicts the trend in female and male engagement in large and medium scale manufacturing industries in five years' time (i.e., 2011/12 to 2015/16). Accordingly, male engagement was significantly higher than females' engagement across all survey years. Moreover, female engagement decreased from 36.6% in 2011/12 to 35.2% in 2015/16. This shows that females are equally beneficiary of the sector.

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Figure 6.2 Percentages of persons engaged in large and medium scale industries by sex and years, County Total



Source: CSA, LMSMIS: 2011/12, 2012/13, 2013/14, 2014/15 and 2015/16

Similarly, Table 6.3 exhibits the regional sex-disaggregated statistics for the engagement of female and male in the large and medium scale manufacturing industries for five years (2011/12 to 2015/16). Accordingly, female engagement increased between 2011/12 and 2015/16 in Afar (8.1% to 8.8%), SNNP (20.4% to 23.5%), Harari (23.4% to 34.9%) and Addis Ababa city administration (39.4% to 45.6%). However, other regions reported some decrease in the female engagement, and data from Gambela region are found missing from 2012/13 to 2015/16.

Table 6.3: Number of persons engaged in large and medium scale industries by sex, region and years

Region	2011/12		2012/13		2013/14		2014/15		2015/16	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Country Total	126,191	72,734	227,625	85,099	218,162	85,172	247,367	84,264	177,997	90,000
Tigray	13,337	11,072	15,306	11,870	12,648	14,885	73,565	7,895	12,754	8,000

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Afar	567	50	1,276	89	289	32	390	34	7,553	7
Amhara	9,649	4,521	10,430	3,897	31,522	4,364	10,907	4,394	21,689	5
Oromia	45,895	23,577	78,071	27,337	62,057	31,837	70,765	37,656	60,933	2
Somali	316	119	469	96	495	89	428	73	377	4
Beni. Gumuz	102	11	167	101	188	105	67	14	243	14
SNNP	6,849	1,755	6,721	1,596	7,989	1,939	7,764	2,171	13,217	4
Gambela	20	1	9	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Harari	1,598	489	1,357	409	1,398	415	617	263	378	2
Addis Ababa	45,626	29,682	110,270	38,210	96,865	28,639	78,450	30,615	55,783	4
Dire Dawa	2,232	1,457	3,549	1,494	4,711	2,867	4,414	1,149	5,070	1

Source: CSA, LMSMIS: 2011/12, 2012/13, 2013/14, 2014/15 and 2015/16

4. Employment status in the Sector

Table 6.4 illustrates the statistics of employees in large and medium scale industries by sex and industrial groups in the given regions during 2015/16. Accordingly, the male was found more employed in food products, tanning and dressing of leather, footwear and handbags, chemical and chemical products, non-metallic mineral products, fabricated metal products, machinery and equipment and furniture sector, across all the regions. On the contrary, female participation is more observed in textiles in Tigray region, Oromia region and Addis Ababa city administration, and wearing apparels and along with luggage, handbags and footwear in Oromia region and Addis Ababa city administration.

Table 6.4: Statistics of employees in large and medium scale industries by sex and industrial groups in the given regions, during 2015/16.

Industrial Group	Tigray		Amhara		Oromiya		SNNP		Addis Ababa	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male

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Food Product	1002	1,674	1,221	3,408	5,819	10,223	1,246	5,242	5,874	9,628
Tobacco Product	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	207	357
Textiles	4,687	2,542	1,435	2,021	2,625	1,313	532	2,551	5,520	2,683
Wearing Apparel	-	-	-	-	403	141	734	57	8,870	2,147
Tanning and Dressing of Leather, Footwear,	-									
Luggage and Handbags	392	561	34	84	3,687	2,479	-	-	3,620	2,444
Wood and wood products and Cork	-	-	151	361	346	531	33	244	248	517
Paper, Paper Products and Printing	88	44	70	121	731	986	101	97	3,132	3,585
Chemicals and Chemical Products	526	746	15	25	1,784	3,179	165	275	1,845	3,402

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Rubber And Plastic Products	26	61	1,222	835	6,509	4,869	24	32	2,943	3,784
Non-Metallic Mineral Products	1044	3,242	637	10,066	2,481	6,455	596	1,513	1,524	2,741
Basic Iron and Steel	323	629	-	-	226	993	-	-	665	2,345
Fabricated Metal Products	71	100	195	487	635	1,857	61	184	1,212	4,145
Machinery and Equipment	21	39	25	40	630	1,571	4	8	103	250
Motor Vehicles, Trailers & Semi Trailers	585	1,940	-	-	1,155	2,227	-	-	530	172
Furniture	124	290	250	359	1,136	3,180	369	1,002	2,787	3,772

Source: CSA, LMSMIS: 2015/16

Similarly, the sex-disaggregated data pertaining to the number of employees in large and medium scale industries by region for the year 2014/15 shows that male employees are more than female employees in food products, rubber and plastic products, non-metallic mineral products, fabricated metal products and furniture, across all the given regions. Female employees are more than males in textiles across all the regions, except Amhara and SNNP, and wear apparel in the Oromia region, SNNP region, and Addis Ababa city administration. However, no participation of

either sexes has been noticed in Tobacco products, except in Addis Ababa city administration, where male exceeded female during 2014/15(CSA, LMSMIS 2014/15).

Previous years statistics also shows similar trends in terms of female and male employment rate in the sector. Generally, gender discrimination, low educational enrolment and other factors limit the involvement of females in the manufacturing sector.

6.3. Small Scale Manufacturing Industry

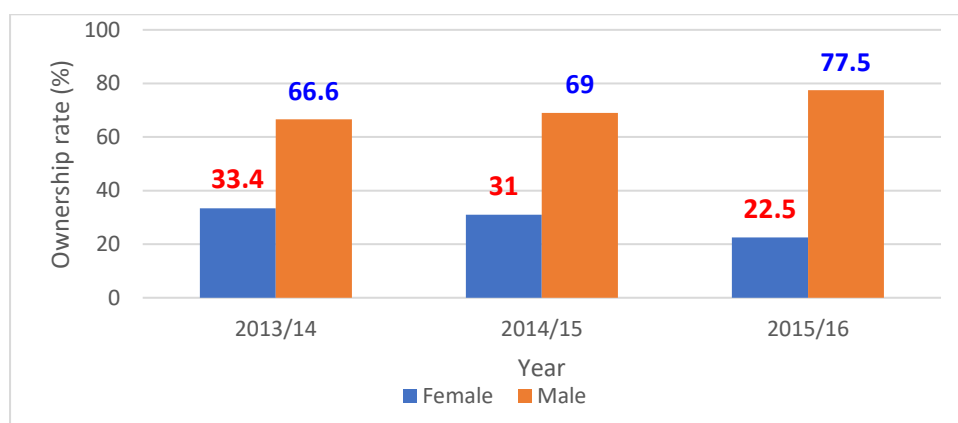
Small-scale manufacturing industries are playing an ever-increasing role in the manufacturing industrial structure of the country. The sector's expansion and development increase agricultural productivity by providing agricultural inputs and creating demand for agricultural outputs. Small-Scale Manufacturing Industries are those that engage less than ten persons and use power-driven machinery to manufacture the products. Like large and medium manufacturing enterprises, this group of manufacturing industries also plays a significant role in creating employment for male and female employees.

1. Ownership Status by Gender at National and regional level

Figure 6-3 reveals that more small-scale manufacturing industries in the country are owned by males than females across all three survey years (2013/14 to 2015/16). Additionally, a decrease in the percentage of females being owner of small-scale manufacturing industry, from 33.4% in 2013/14 to 22.5% in 2015/16 is observed, whereas an increase in the percentages of male owners is observed from 2013/14 to 2015/16.

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Figure 6. 3: Distribution of SME



Source: CSA, SSMIS: 2013/14. 2014/15 and 2015/16)

With respect to the regional distribution of the ownership of small-scale manufacturing industries by sex, Table 6-9 presents three years of statistics from 2013/14 to 2015/16. Accordingly, across all the regions, fewer female owns manufacturing company compared male. Females as owner of small-scale manufacturing industry increased between 2013/14 and 2015/16 in Somali (35.2% to 41.3%) and Gambela (20.3% to 25%) regions. In all other regions and city administrations, male ownership of small-scale manufacturing industries grew from as high as 18.4% in Dire Dawa city administration and 15.5% in Benishangul-Gumuz region during the same period.

Table 6.5: Percentage distribution of ownership of small-scale manufacturing industries by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/2016	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Country Total	157,399	78,942	16,2644	72,903	180,354	52,341
Tigray	16,019	3,561	12,666	2,023	15,466	963
Afar	358	83	1,764	925	525	-
Amhara	38,214	26,446	54,269	27,518	48,730	14,864
Oromia	52,487	20,825	52,560	18,638	49,714	17,162
Somali	383	208	456	50	179	126
Benishangul-Gumuz	2,155	938	464	122	386	67

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SNNP	18,886	9,653	14,776	14,776	31,195	8,131
Gambela	114	29	250	-	987	329
Harari	153	58	272	101	381	50
Addis Ababa	28,041	16,830	24,753	8,541	31,910	10,389
Dire Dawa	589	311	414	209	881	170

Source: CSA, SSMIS: 2013/14. 2014/15 and 2015/16

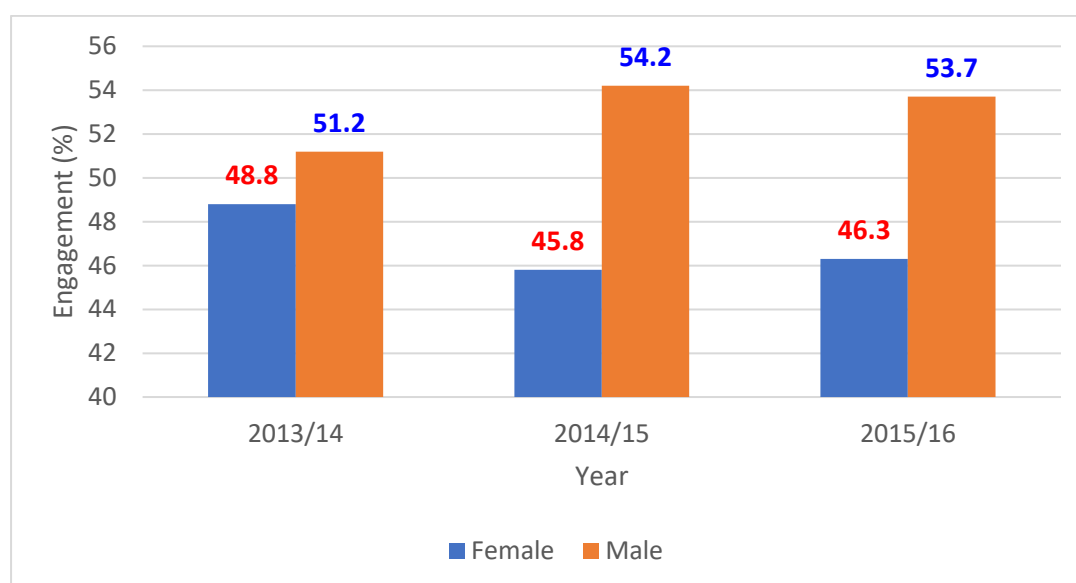
2. Engagement by Gender in the Sector

As of 2014, female workers comprise 33.3% of the workforce in the large and medium scale manufacturing sector¹⁴. Figure 6-4 exhibits the country-level sex-disaggregated statistics for persons engaged in small-scale manufacturing industries for three years (2013/14 to 2015/16). Accordingly, male engagement is more than female across the survey year. A growing pattern in male engagement is observed from 51.2% in 2013/14 to 54.2% in 2014/15, and by 2015/16, female engagement reached to 46.3%, reversing the trend from 2014/15 (45.8%).

¹⁴A study on Women in the Manufacturing sector in Ethiopia, 2019

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Figure 6.2 Percentage distribution of persons engaged in small scale manufacturing industries by sex and years, country level



Source: CSA, SSMS: 2013/14. 2014/15 and 2015/16

Table 6-10 also presents the statistics for the persons engaged in small-scale manufacturing industries by region and sex from 2013/14 to 2015/16). Accordingly, female engagement in small-scale manufacturing industries increased between 2013/14 and 2015/16 in Tigray (46% to 53.5%), Afar (39.2% to 47.7%) and Harari (43.7% to 49.3%). However, other regions reported a decrease in female engagement in small-scale manufacturing industries during 2013/14-2015/16. Overall,

Table 6.6: Number of persons engaged in small scale manufacturing industries by sex, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/2016	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Country Total	87,4216	83,2209	90,2819	76,2576	111,8724	96,6258
Tigray	116,047	98,734	91,191	78,518	108,109	124,448
Afar	3,376	2,175	3164	2,691	4,179	3,817

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Amhara	248,327	245,308	332,899	283,240	332,825	292,125
Oromia	247,003	247,710	247,990	204,523	277,292	223,525
Somali	3,681	4,287	3,475	2,798	1,455	1,282
Benishangul-Gumuz	3,570	3,829	1,768	1,999	1,044	989
SNRP	88,830	83,176	93,297	80,391	173,579	145,292
Gambela	1,256	1,067	1,436	903	3,929	2,581
Harari	1,377	1,070	2,149	1,609	3,096	3,011
Addis Ababa	153,512	137,560	121,573	102,735	202,282	159,189
Dire Dawa	7,237	7,293	3,877	3,169	10,934	9,999

Source: CSA, SSMIS: 2013/14, 2014/15 and 2015/16

Comparing the gender gaps in terms of engagement of male and female in large and medium enterprises and small manufacturing enterprises, it can be concluded that the gap is narrow in the small sector. This implies that females are more involved in small manufacturing sector than large and medium enterprises.

3. Initial Capital invested by Gender

With respect to the private initial capital investments by in small scale manufacturing industries by region and sex for 2013/14 and 2014/15, Table 6-11 depicts male owners has more initial capital investment than female owners both at country level and across the regions and city administrations. Female owners' initial capital shows an increasing trend between 2013/14 and 2015/16 at country level, two city administrations and regions except Somali and Benishangul Gumuz regions.

The data also shows that the capital invested by female owners was significantly lower than their male counterpart both at the regional and national level.

Sex Disaggregated Statistics Report

Table 6.7: Distribution of private Ethiopian initial capital (in thousand birr) in small scale manufacturing industries by sex of owners, region and years

Region	2013/14		2014/15		2015/16	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	610,789	3,765,981	766,903	4,186,758	1,327,939	15,479,819
Tigray	32,863	283,670	35,424	258,870	35,618	317,171
Afar	2,449	12,451	95	17,936	6,674	19,687
Amhara	198,375	941,211	284,178	1,686,315	272,673	1,508,652
Oromia	201,804	1,259,557	300,738	1,533,303	334,099	1,800,413
Somali	7,440	23,995	249	28,481	7,065	8,152
Benishangul-Gumuz	5,094	23,105	3,233	16,848	3,857	7,120
SNNP	92,141	324,334	65,222	392,816	150,575	973,172
Gambela	201	1,393	-	5,040	-	12,554
Harari	-	6,062	890	6,595	5,661	35,429
Addis Ababa	68,068	873,003	62,892	214,344	179,596	11,061,935
Dire Dawa	2,354	17,200	13,982	26,210	38,014	29,641

Source: CSA-SSMIS: 2013/14. 2014/15 and 2015/16

4. Employment status in the Sector

Table 6-12 displays the sex-disaggregated data pertaining to the number of employees in small scale industries by region, for the year 2015/16. Accordingly, male employees are larger than women employees in the small-scale industries like food products, grain mill service, textile, wearing apparel, dressing and dying, fabricated metal products, machinery and equipment, and furniture across all the given regions. Female employees exceed male employees in textiles in Tigray region, Oromia region and

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Addis Ababa city administration, their numbers are more in major industrial group category of wearing apparels, dressing and dying industry in Tigray and SNNP regions. However, no participation of either sexes has been noticed in publishing, printing and reproduction of recorded media, and chemicals and chemical products in the Tigray and SNNP regions during 2015/16.

Table 6.8: Number of employees in small scale by sex and selected industrial group, Region, 2015/16 G.C

Industrial Group	Tigray		Amhara		Oromiya		SNNP		Addis Ababa	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e
Food Products	5,288	6,528	20219	25268	10532	12324	6740	6909	5499	6246
Grain Mill Services	2,487	2,208	38796	43238	45286	47547	13220	18593	3671	2833
Textiles	402	263	1469	1511	110	56	471	541	3382	2065
Wearing Apparel; Dressing and Dying	27,540	16,992	22745	27415	2897	2897	10270	9508	8552	12377
Luggage, Handbags and Footwear	26	40	295	363	161	107	81	81	993	1140
Wood and Wood Products and Cork	-	-	178	102	764	1376	738	1401	1478	3796
Publishing, Printing and Reproduction of Recorded Media		-			84	127		-	1001	860

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Chemicals and Chemical Products	-	-	-	-	578	536	-	-	3750	3497
Other Non-Metallic Mineral Products	1,509	1,509	56	28	4132	5992	1170	1565	3215	4526
Fabricated Metal Products	4,431	5,689	592	1029	11432	13675	3818	4157	8063	13051
Machinery and Equipment	170	198	6575	9080	84	141	56	56	1875	2623
Parts and Accessories for Motor Vehicles	-	-	578	1184	-	-	-	-	-	-
Furniture	5,668	8,996	20022	30513	17851	25338	17822	25662	24196	30089

Source: CSA, SSMIS: 2015/16

Similarly, the available sex-disaggregated data on the number of employees in small-scale industries by region in 2014/15, shows that male employees are found to be more than female wearing apparels, dressing and dying, fabricated metal products, and furniture manufacturing across all the regions. Female exceed their male counterpart in textiles in Tigray region and Addis Ababa region city administration. However, no participation of either sexes has been noticed in publishing, printing and reproduction of recorded media, and chemicals and chemical products in the Tigray, Amhara and SNNP regions during 2014/15. Wearing Apparel, dressing and dying, food products, grain mill services and furniture sectors create the largest proportion of employment (CSA, SSMIS, 2014/15). Similar trends were observed in the previous years.

6.4. Concluding Remarks

Women employment in the manufacturing sector: In terms of employment patterns among women in the formal sector in Ethiopia, women dominate more in labor-intensive and low-skill jobs in sub-sectors such as agro-processing, textile and apparel, and leather and leather goods manufacturing¹⁵. Specifically, women continue to be highly over-represented in low-pay, low-skill jobs, clerical work, services and elementary occupations, whereas men tend to be over-represented in skilled jobs, managerial positions, plant and machine operation, assembly and related roles/occupations. However, increased women's participation was also observed in emerging manufacturing sub-sectors such as ICT manufacturing, but women still tend to be over-represented in the lower-skill strata in production jobs¹⁶.

A study by UNIDO (2019), the following are key business incentives that cause employers to prefer women to men in certain subsectors and value chains in Ethiopia. Women are i) faster; ii) quality-oriented; iii) careful, trustworthy, dependable, committed; iv) able to work long-term in routine jobs; v) obedient to leadership, able to follow organizational rules and procedures. They are believed to be more placid and likely to maintain peace at work; vi) and they are believed to be more stable than men. Despite such business incentives, where employers prefer women over men, there has been limited progress in terms of increasing the number of women in high-paying jobs and leadership positions¹⁷.

Women Entrepreneurs in the Manufacturing Sector: The participation of women entrepreneurs, to a considerable extent, mirrors the participation pattern of female

¹⁵UNDP and FDRE, Ministry of Trade and Industry, a Study on Women in Manufacturing in Ethiopia, Dec 4, 2018
¹⁶A study on Women in manufacturing in Ethiopia, 2019

¹⁶Ibid

¹⁷Ibid

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workers. Research findings in Ethiopia and other developing countries reveals the following patterns concerning women-owned firms:

- Women-owned firms tend to be smaller. According to CSA report, only 20% of women own Large and Medium Manufacturing Firms (ownership defined as a ratio of the number of female owners out of the total number of owners). If, on the other hand, ownership is measured by the ratio of the firm's capital owned by women, the figure is 18%. The ownership proportion increases to 22% when small-scale manufacturing industries are considered.
- Women-owned firms are concentrated in low-productivity, low-technology, low-growth sectors. This is due to the less barriers to entry to these sectors.
- Women-owned firms have lower productivity and profit.

Women-Owned Businesses and Access to Finance: The average start-up capital of male-owned enterprises is five times higher than that of female-owned enterprises (World Bank, 2009). This result is consistent with the data presented above. Female-owned firms appear to have less access to finance, fewer land use rights in some areas, smaller networks, and are more vulnerable to be victims of crime/corruption¹⁸.

¹⁸IMF. The Democratic republic of Ethiopia Selected Issues, 2018

Chapter Seven

Urban Employment Unemployment

7.1. Introduction

Gender equality has been conclusively shown to stimulate economic growth, which is important, especially in countries with higher unemployment rates and less economic opportunity. It is deemed important for the fight against poverty and ensuring economic and social development by empowering women in the family, community, and society¹⁹. In other words, women's employment increases their control over the possession and allocation of household resources that ensure economic independence and self-determination, thus empowerment.

The experts can use statistical data and indicators related to employment/unemployment, both in public and private domains, government institutions, researchers, and policymakers, to streamline their planning in the national interest. Data on the composition of workforces might inform strategies on recruitment and promotion and addressing gender imbalances at senior levels. Community-level planners can use gender-disaggregated data to inform their strategies to set targets. With this in mind, this section presents the gender-disaggregated data about the employment unemployment rate in Ethiopia.

7.2. The Gender and Poverty Connection

According to UN Women's report, when women have jobs, they invest as much as 90% of their earnings back into their families – compared to men, who reinvest 35% only. Because of this, when women earn more, the health and education of their children improve too. The UN states that women's education is a crucial factor in cutting child mortality rates²⁰.

¹⁹<https://www.gvi.co.uk/blog/why-is-gender-equality-important/#>

²⁰ <https://www.gvi.co.uk/blog/why-is-gender-equality-important/>

When women are excluded from working, economies are restricted, and poverty continues its cycle. Women and young girls bear the brunt of poverty. These facts or statistics tell the same story: the only way to sustainably add to the economy of a community is to focus on initiatives that support women in empowering themselves. And central to empowerment initiatives are education and employment. GVI has a variety of projects that focus on these areas²¹.

7.3. The Unemployment Situation in Ethiopia

The employed population based on the current activity status approach consisted of those who were engaged in productive activity at least for one hour during the seven days prior to the date of the interview. Whereas, the unemployed population consists of persons without work but who are available and ready to work if any job is found. Those who are neither engaged nor available to work are classified as economically not active. The employed and the unemployed populations together make up the labor force or the current economically active population (CSA, 2020²²).

According to the CSA Urban Employment Unemployment survey (UEUS) in January 2020 in Ethiopia, the activity rate of males is found to be higher than their female counterparts. Looking the activity rates of regions in the last seven days prior to the survey, the highest was reported for Addis Ababa City Administration 64.7% and Amhara region 64.1%, while the lowest in the Somali region compared to other regions i.e., 46.7%. The number of economically inactive persons during the last seven days prior to January 2020 was estimated to be 6,865,362 persons.

Being a student (65.6 %) and homemaking (13.3 %) and old age (6.5 %) are the major reasons for the inactivity status of the survey respondents.

On the other hand, the employment to population ratio provides information on how the population is engaged in economic activities. It is calculated as the

²¹Ibbid

²² CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

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percentage of total employed persons to the total population aged ten years and above.

According to CSA January 2020 survey, the employment to population ratio of urban population was 49.7%. This means about 50% of the total urban population of the country aged ten years and above are employed. The differential by sex also depicts that the ratio of males 60.6% is significantly higher than females about 39.9%.

As the survey result shows, nearly two-thirds of the urban employed population is engaged in three occupations, namely: service, shop, and market sales workers (28.1 %); craft and related activities (6.1 %) and elementary occupation (24.4 %). Professional and Technical and associate professionals together constituted (18.2 %) while those persons are working as legislators and managers contributed the lowest proportion, only about 1.8 %.

Concerning main Industrial Divisions, urban people who were engaged in the industrial group like in manufacturing activities (6.4 %), construction (6.2 %t), and mining quarrying (0.3 %) together making up (12.9 %). Those who have worked in urban agriculture contributed 14.6 %, wholesale and retail trade 17.9 %. The rest of other services activities such as electricity, gas and water supply, financial intermediation, education, health, and social work, public administration, public administration, and defense¹; Professional, scientific and technical activities and real estate, information and communication, Extra-territorial organizations, hotel and restaurant, private household activities together share about 55 %t.

The unemployment rates for females were more pronounced in the literate than the illiterate categories in January 2020. The higher percentage share of unemployment by educational attainment at the urban country level shows the highest 35.1% of the elementary educational level. The lowest unemployment share was registered for persons who attained preschool and Alternative Basic Education (ABE). With regard to sex, females found to be more unemployed than in elementary education and in the never attended categories. Females more dominantly appeared in the not trained category than the trained one compared to their male counterparts. Out of the total

urban unemployed persons in the country, 51.9 % had no work experience, and 48.1% have had previous work experience prior to the survey date.

7.4. Economic Dependency Ratio

The economic dependency ratio refers to the ratio of the number of employed persons to unemployed persons and persons in the inactive population. The inactive population includes persons aged 0 to 14, students and pupils, conscripts and those in non-military service, pensioners and others in the inactive population²³.

The Economic Dependency Ratio (EDR) is calculated as the sum of the total number of unemployed, inactive population and those children of age 0-9 years divided by the total number of employed person times 100. The economic dependency ratio (EDR), which relates the number of non-workers to the number of workers in a given economy, provides a better representation of the share of the dependent population.

As per the January 2020 UEUS finding of CSA, the economic dependency ratio is 163 dependents at urban country level. This means for every 100 employed persons, there are almost 163 dependents to be supported in terms of food, clothing, health, education and so on. In other words, there were 163 non-employed persons per one hundred employed persons. The economic dependency ratio of males and females are 120 and 222, respectively. As compared to the 2018 economic dependency ratio of 149, the 2020 result shows an increasing trend. At the regional level, the highest EDR registered in Somali (280), and the lowest is recorded in Addis Ababa City Administration (134). Similarly, at the country level, EDR is more intense on females than males.

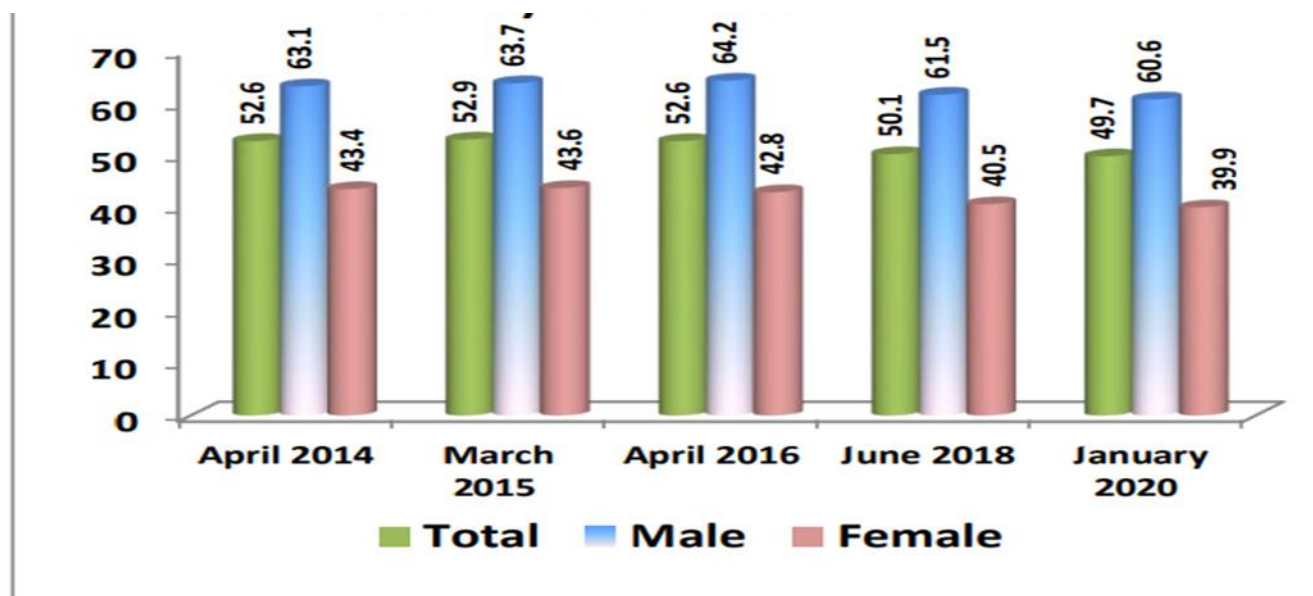
As it is indicated in figure 7.1, the January 2020 UEUS of CSA shows that the employment to population ratio in the urban area of the country is 49.7% and in which male occupies 60.6% of the total employment. This means about 50% of the total urban population of the country age ten years and above are employed. The

²³ <https://findikaattori.fi/en/32>

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differential by sex also depicts that the ratio of males (60.65) is higher than females (39.9 %). The trends of male and female employment to population ratio have declined since March 2015 survey period (see Figure 7:1).

Figure 7.1: Economic Dependency Ratio employment to population Ratio by sex, during the five-survey period country -urban total



Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

7.5. Employment by Occupation

As it is indicated in Table 7-1 below, the majority of the employed persons (34.2%), out of which 17.5% male and 16.7% female was engaged in service and sales workers and craft and related trade work. Elementary occupations occupy the second position (24.4 %), in which 12.3%are male and 12.1% are female. Those employed persons who were participated in the professionals together with technical and associate professionals constituted 18.2 %(11.4 % male and 6.7 female). Skilled agricultural and fishery workers were about 13.0% (8.6% male and 4.3% female). Plant machine operators and assembler's 5.7% (5.1% male and 0.6% female). The lowest percentage share is observed for managers 1.8 percent (1.4% male and 0.6% female) and clerk's 2.0 %(0.6 Male and 1.4 % female) of the total employed population in January 2020. The trends in trade and business are slightly declined, while agriculture

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and elementary occupation relatively increased as compared to the previous survey results.

As it can be seen from the sex-disaggregated employment data by occupation, male is more concentrated in clerk work, the managerial, the professional, the skilled agricultural and fishery plant, machine operators & assemblers.

Table 7.1: Percentage Distribution of Employed Population by Occupation

Key Indicators	April 2014			March 2015			April 2016			June 2018			January 2020		
	Tot	M	Fe	To	M	Fe	To	M	Fe	To	M	Fe	To	M	Fem
Managers	2.6	2.0	0.6	2.3	1.8	0.5	3.1	2.2	0.9	3.3	2.4	0.9	1.8	1.4	0.4
Professional, Technical and Associate Professionals	14.5	9.4	5.1	15.9	10.1	5.8	15.4	9.7	5.7	18.3	11.5	6.8	18.2	11.4	6.7
Clerks	3.6	1.2	2.4	3.6	1.3	2.4	3.9	1.6	2.3	3.7	1.5	2.3	2.0	0.6	1.4
Service, Shop & Market sales, Crafts related Workers	50.0	23.8	26.2	45.9	22.7	23.2	47.9	23.2	24.7	46.6	22.5	24.1	34.2	17.5	16.7
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery	6.4	4.4	2.0	5.5	3.8	1.7	5.3	3.7	1.6	6.2	4.0	2.2	12.9	8.6	4.3
Plant, Machine operators & assemblers	6.2	5.0	0.7	6.0	5.0	0.6	6.0	6.0	0.6	7.0	6.0	0.7	5.0	5.1	0.6

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Machine Operators & Assemblers	6	5	9	9	3	6	9	7							
Elementary Occupation	16.8	9.4	7.3	20.3	10.4	9.9	17.5	9.1	8.4	14.1	7.1	7.0	24.4	12.3	12.1
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.8	0.6	0.2

Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey (UEUS)

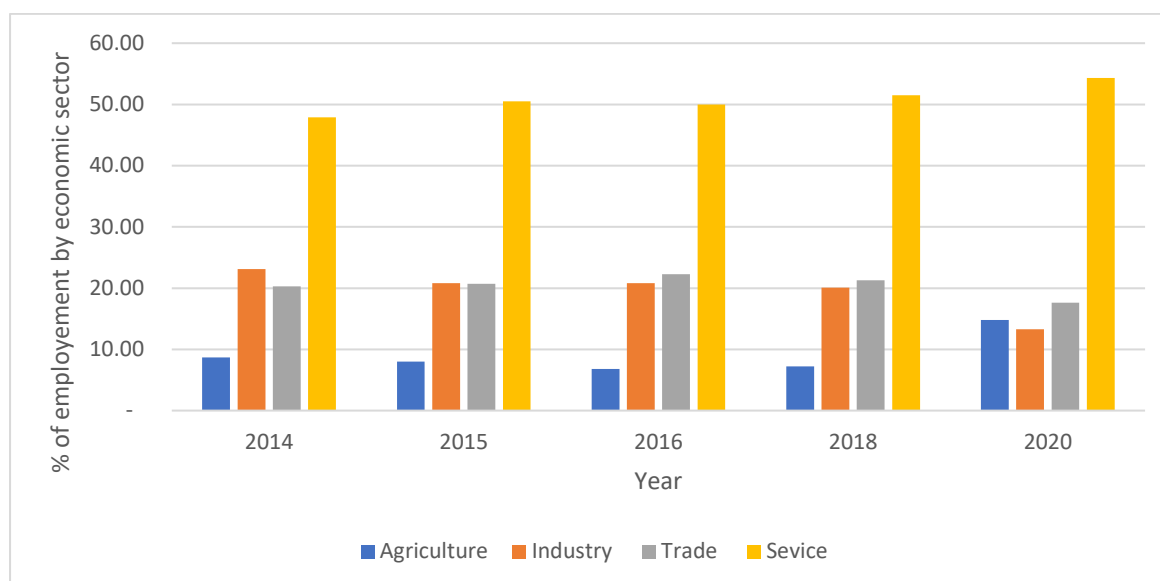
7.6. Employment by Main Economic Sectors /Major Industrial Division/

As it is shown in figure 7-2 below, the highest proportion of the employed persons (54.3%) was absorbed by the service sectors. Wholesale and retail trades account 17.6%, and agriculture in urban areas relatively shows the lowest shares 14.8%. Though manufacturing, mining, quarrying, and construction industry divisions is growing in urban areas, its share of creating employment opportunity was only 13.3% in January 2020.

Periodical analysis by major sectors also shows that the percentage share of employed persons in urban areas has been increased in service and agricultural sectors. Whereas, the employment share for manufacturing, mining quarrying together and construction, as well as wholesale and retail trades, portrays a declined trend compared to the previous survey results even if there are ups and downs over the last five years. The service sector is the major employer to urban population, which accounted 47.9% in 2014 and increase to 54.3% in 2020. As expected agriculture is the least employer.

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Figure 7.2: Percentage share of employed population of urban areas by main economic sectors during the five survey periods, country-urban total



Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

As it is indicating in Table 7.2 below female employment ratio in the major sectors is very low. In the industrial sector (10.2% male and 3.1 % female, in Service Sectors (29.1% male and 25.2 % female), Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing (10.0% male and 4.8% female).

Table 7.2: Percentage Distribution of Employed Population by Major Industrial Divisions / Economic Sectors/

Key Indicators	Survey Periods									
	April 2014		March 2015		April 2016		June 2018		January 2020	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Industrial sector (i.e., manufacturing, Mining, Quarrying and Construction)	15.4	7.7	13.3	7.5	13.1	7.6	13.3	6.8	10.2	3.1
Whole sale and Retail Trade	9.4	10.9	10.0	10.7	10.7	11.6	10.0	11.1	8.2	11.1
Other Service	25.3	22.6	27.3	23.2	27.3	22.7	28.1	23.5	29.1	25.2

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Key Indicators	Survey Periods									
	April 2014		March 2015		April 2016		June 2018		January 2020	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Sectors *										
Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	5.8	2.9	5.4	2.6	4.6	2.3	4.7	2.5	10.0	

Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

As per the 2020 national labor force (NLF) study findings, the majority of persons in urban areas who were working as self-employment either in business or agriculture were 35.6% (20.3% Male and 15. % female) government employees about 23% (13.8 % male and 9.2% female) followed by private organization employees 17.6% (11.5 % male and 6.1% female). Unpaid family workers in both business and for own household consumption together reported 10%. The share for domestic employees working in private households was 5.7% (2.0% male and 3.7 % female).

Table 7.3: Percentage Distribution of Employed Population by Status in Employment

Key Indicators	Survey Periods									
	April 2014		March 2015		April 2016		June 2018		January 2020	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Government Employees	12.3	8.0	13.1	8.6	13.0	9.0	14.5	10.0	13.8	9.2
Private Organization Employees	13.0	7.1	12.7	6.8	12.9	7.2	12.1	7.8	11.5	6.1
NGO'S Employees	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.2
Domestic Employees	1.3	4.5	1.3	4.0	0.7	3.6	1.0	4.0	2.0	3.7
Self-	22.3	17.2	22.6	17.9	22.9	18.6	23.2	17.8	20.3	15.3

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employed /Own account Workers/										
Other Employees	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.9	0.5
Employer	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0

Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

7.7. Unemployment Rate

The unemployment rate is the most commonly used indicator of the labour market. It is defined the sum of the total persons employed and unemployed²⁴.

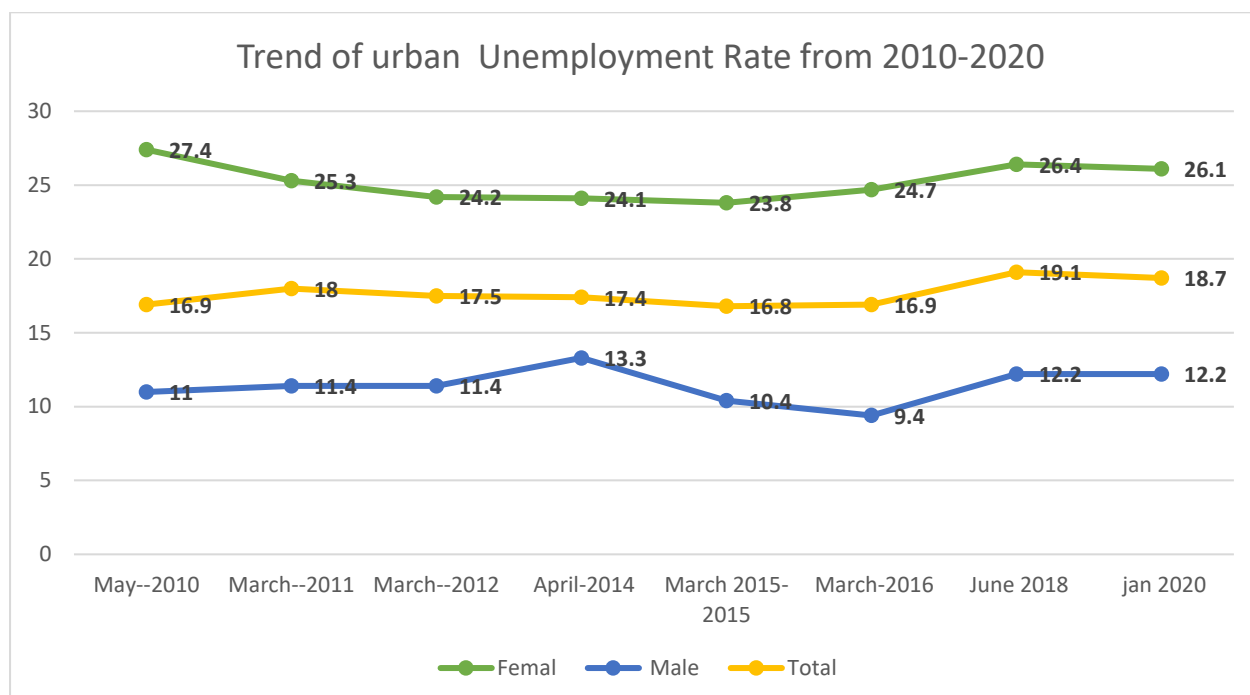
As per the current urban unemployment 2020 survey unemployment rate was 18.7% percent(26.1% female and 12.2% male) in Ethiopia. This means that out of 100 economically active persons aged ten years and above, about 19 persons are unemployed. The differentials of unemployment rate by sex demonstrate female unemployment rate (26.1%) is more than double as compared to male (12.7%). As shown in Figure 7.3, the total unemployment rate depicts a declining trend from 17.4%in April 2014 to 16.9%in March 2016 and increases thereafter to 19.1 percent and again declined to 18.7% percent. This implies that the general trend show fluctuation over time.

With regards to sex, females are more affected by the incidence of unemployment than males,the female unemployment rate in the country is 26.1.Whereas the male unemployment rate was 12.2 %.The female unemployment rate has shown an increment since 2015.

²⁴<https://www.epi.org>

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Figure 7.3: Trend of urban unemployment rate form 2010-2020



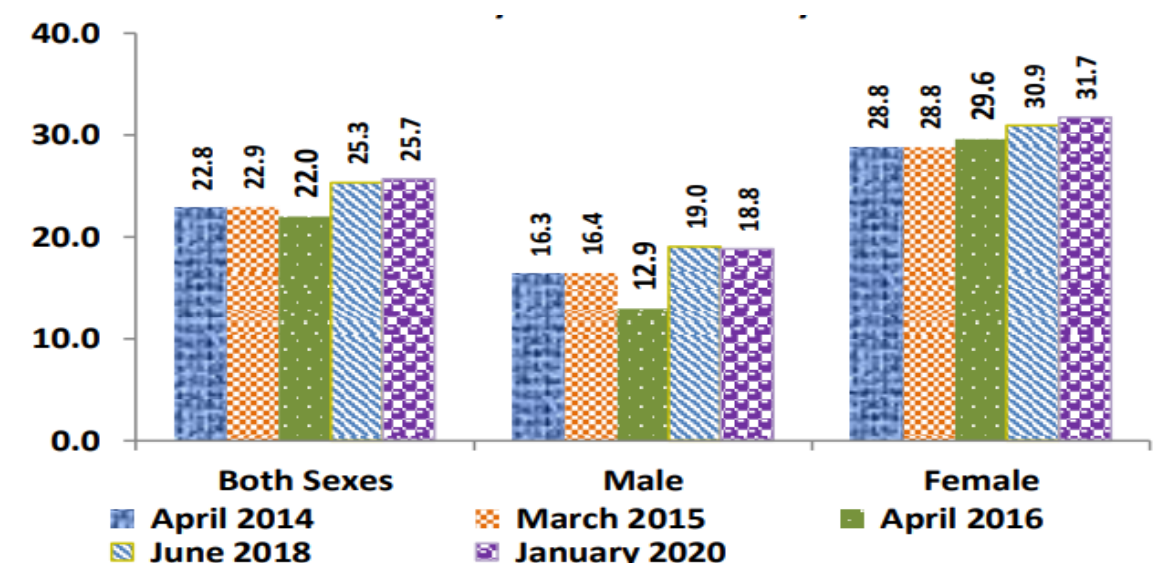
Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey (UEUS)

7.7.1. Youth unemployment rate

According to the CSA 2020 national UEUS, youth comprises those persons in the age category of 15-29 years old. According to the survey, the youth unemployment rate was 25.7%. When disaggregated by gender, female and male youth unemployment rates were 31.7 % and 18.8 %, respectively. The overall youth unemployment rate shows a fluctuating trend from April 2014 to January 2020, the same pattern holds true for male youth female youths are characterized by upward trends accompanied by higher rate of unemployment compared to their counterparts (see Figure 7.4)

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Figure 7.4: Youth unemployment rate by sex during 2014 to 2020, country -urban total



Source: CSA, The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

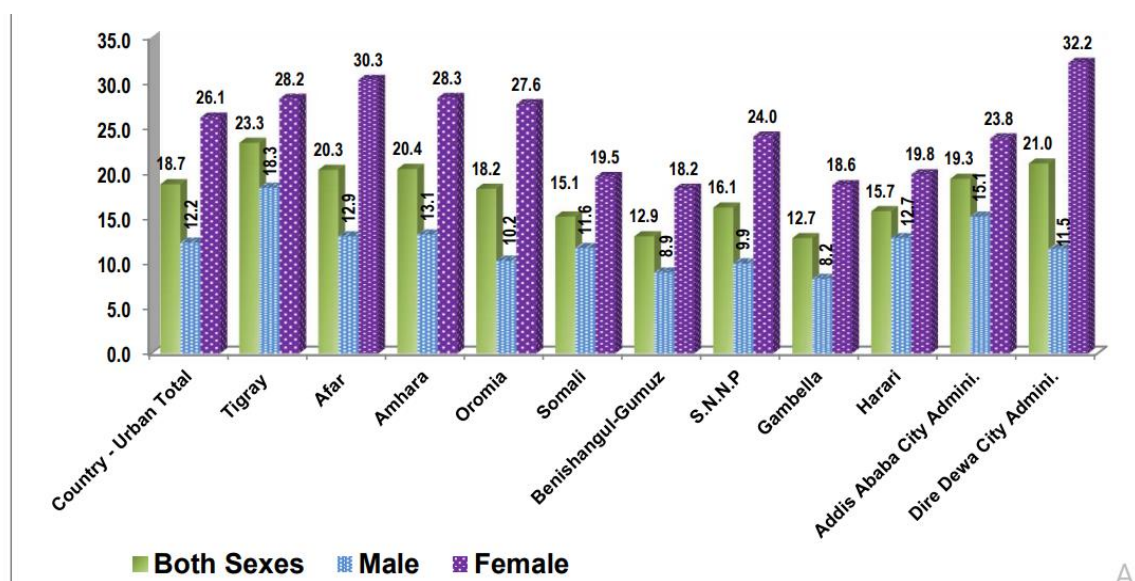
7.7.2. Unemployment Rate in Urban Areas of Regions

The UEUS shows that the unemployment rate in the Tigray region (23.3 %), Amhara region (20.4%), Dire Dawa City Administration (21.0 %), and Addis Ababa City Administration (19.3%) were above the national average. Oromia Region (18.2 %) and SNNPR (16.1 %) took the intermediate position. The rest of the urban areas of other regions fall between 12 – 16 % of the unemployment rate in January 2020.

When disaggregated by gender, the female unemployment rate is higher than male unemployment in all regions, whereas Dire Dawa recorded the highest female unemployment rate of 32.2%. Whereas in BenishangulGomez, female unemployment was the lowest rate compared to other regions in Ethiopia.

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Figure 7.5: Unemployment rate in urban areas of regions by sex: January 2020

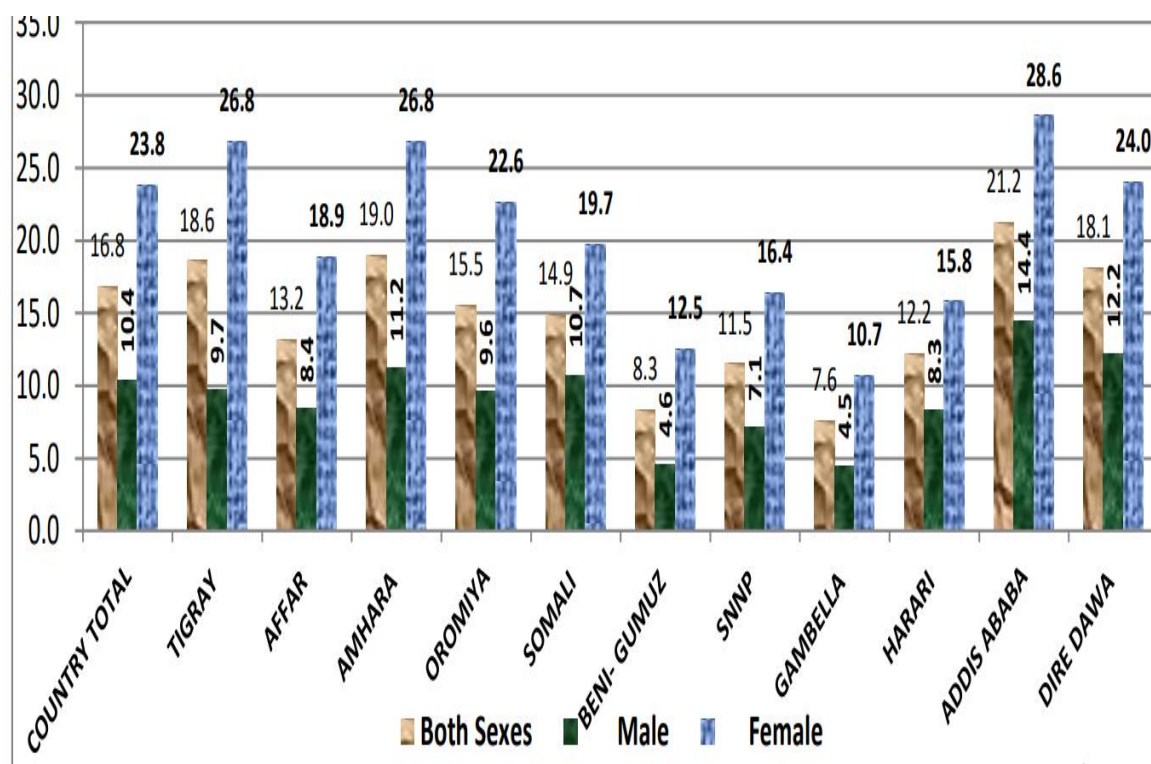


Source: CSA, the 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

As per the UEUS 2020 report presented in Figure 7.6 below, the urban unemployment rate is the highest in Addis Ababa City Administration, which accounts for 14.4% (female 28.6%, male 21.2%) followed by Dire Dawa City administration. The lowest urban unemployment rate was recorded in Gambella Region accounts, which accounts 7.6 % (female 10.7% and 4.5% male) and Benishangul-Gumuz region account 8.3 % (female 12.5% and 4.6% male). This may be due to the low population rate in the urban areas. The most shocking result is the urban unemployment rate among females. It was disproportionately higher than males in all regions.

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Figure 7.6: unemployment rate in urban areas of regions by sex, 2015



Source: CSA, the 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

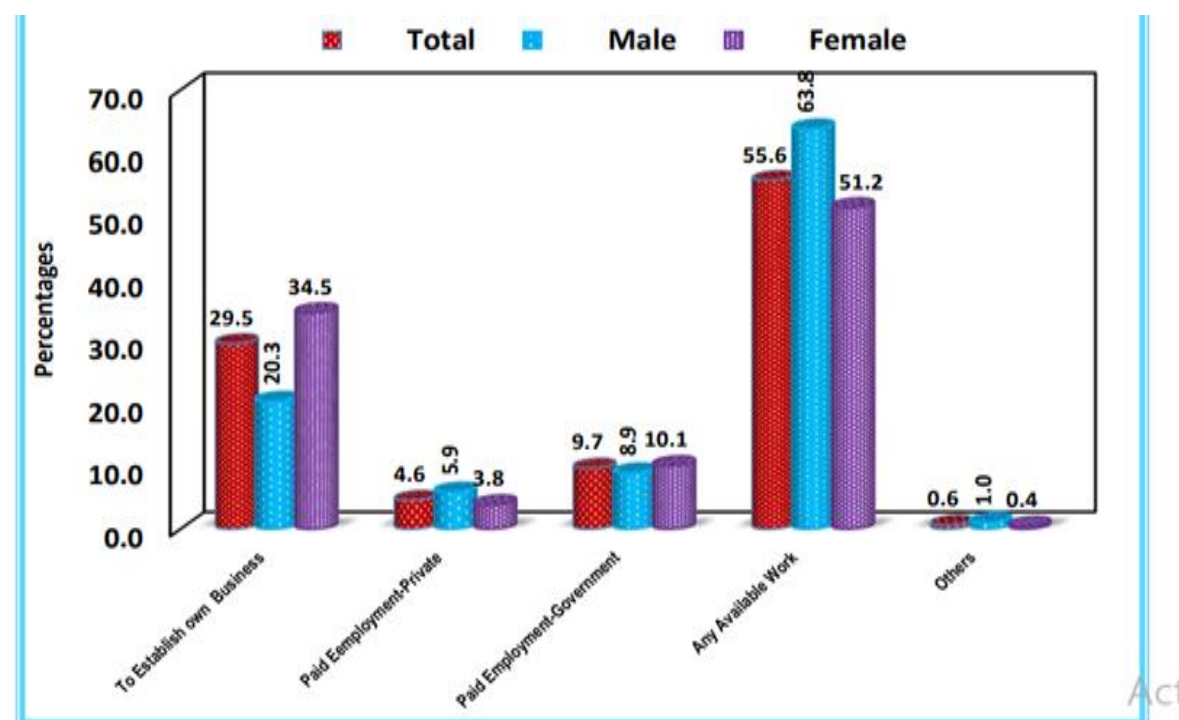
7.7.3. Unemployed Persons by Types of Job Sought and the Problems they faced

As per the survey collected by CSA, the types of job the unemployed were looking for, the majority of unemployed, about 55.6% (51.2% female and 55.6% male) were available to take up any kind of job followed by persons who sought or intended to establish own business accounts 29.5 % (34.5% female and 20.3% male), while those who were looking for a paid job in government institution accounted to be about 10% (10.1% female and 8.9% male).

Private sector employees cover only 5% (3.8% female and 5.9% male), and the remaining others 0.6%. More females than males found in the category of establishing own business, while more males were preferring to be available for any kind of job (see Figure 7.7.). This may be due to the lack of job opportunities as a result of discrimination by their gender.

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Figure 7.7: Unemployed population in urban areas age 10 years. and above by the types of job sought and sex: January 2020



Source: The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

From the perspective of seeking self-employment, the great majority of the unemployed who would like to establish their own business, 63.4%, faced financial constraints. The next important reason is lack of finance in combination with working place and training were about 19%, followed by the problem of working place or land 8.2%. In a nutshell, those who reported different kinds of problems cover 96%, while those who do not have faced any problem were only about 4%.

Table 7.4: Unemployed population by the types of job and ownership sought and sex: January 2020

Key Indicators	Survey Periods														
	April 2014			March 2015			April 2016			June 2018			January 2020		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Percentage Distribution of Unemployed Population by types of job looking for															
Self-Employment	48.4	53.8	45.7	32.9	24.0	37.1	36.5	26.6	40.5	34.0	25.4	38.3	29.5	20.3	34.5
Paid Employment-Private	33.5	25.0	37.9	7.8	10.7	6.3	4.7	7.5	3.6	6.7	9.0	5.6	4.6	5.9	3.8
Paid Employment-Government	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.7	8.9	10.1
Paid Employment-Others	6.2	8.8	4.9	12.0	13.4	11.2	10.2	11.5	9.8	10.9	11.3	10.6	-	-	-
Any Available Work	9.9	10.6	9.6	46.7	51.1	44.6	48.0	53.4	45.8	47.9	53.6	45.1	55.6	63.8	51.2
Others	2.0	1.9	2.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.6	1.0	0.4
Percentage Distribution of Unemployed Population Who Would Like to Establish Own Business by Types of Problems of They Faced															
Who do not have problem	6.7	5.3	7.2	7.3	8.4	7.0	8.3	9.5	8.1	4.3	2.6	4.8	4.3	4.2	4.3
Shortage of Finance	52.5	55.6	51.5	48.9	51.3	48.2	51.1	51.4	51.0	53.8	59.5	51.9	63.4	67.1	62.2

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Lack of Training	2.0	1.5	2.1	1.0	1.7	0.8	3.0	5.0	2.5	5.3	4.8	5.5	1.3	1.2	1.4
Lack of Working Place/land	13.2	12.0	13.6	13.1	9.3	14.3	10.7	8.0	11.4	10.9	7.9	11.9	8.2	6.4	8.8
Shortage of Finance and Training	3.2	3.0	3.2	3.7	6.5	2.8	2.1	2.3	2.1	3.7	4.9	3.3	4.0	3.6	4.0
Shortage of Finance and Lack of Working Place/land	12.7	11.8	13.0	16.5	15.7	16.8	13.3	15.5	12.7	14.8	10.1	16.3	15.0	13.9	15.3
Others	9.8	10.9	9.4	9.5	7.1	10.2	11.4	8.3	12.2	7.2	10.2	6.3	3.9	3.5	4.0

Source: The 2020 urban employment unemployment survey

7.8. Informal sector

This section provides a brief description of the role of the informal sector, its characteristics, and women in the informal sector. Finally, a way forward is suggested.

7.8.1. Role of the informal sector

The informal economic activities are as old as the formal economic activities. However, the term informal sector (economy) is a much more recent phenomenon. Nowadays, the informal dimension of the formal economic activity under the term informal economy (sector) is defined as “a way of doing things characterized by unregulated activities”²⁵.

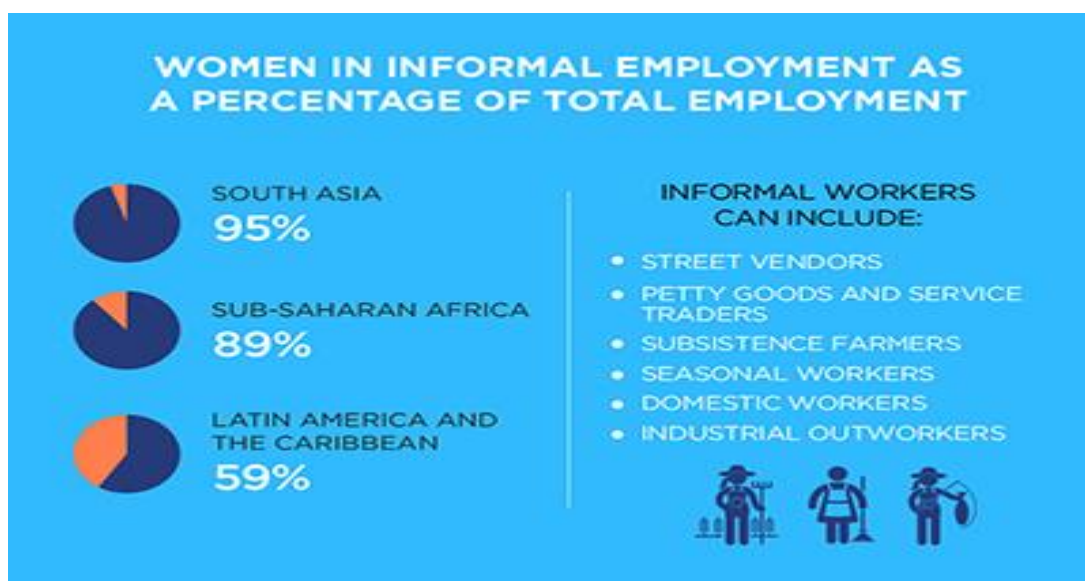
The informal sector represents a fundamental component of the economic structure of many developing countries. Studies have shown that, in many developing countries, the informal sector could account for over 50% of non-agricultural employment and nearly 30% of non-agricultural GDP²⁶.

Similarly, according to a report by UN Women (year), from street vendors and domestic workers to subsistence farmers and seasonal agriculture workers, women make up a disproportionate percentage of workers in the informal sector. In South Asia, over 80% of women in non-agricultural jobs are in informal employment; in sub-Saharan Africa, 74%; and in Latin America and the Caribbean, 54%²⁷. Furthermore, the following facts characterize women in the informal sector.

²⁵Fillimon T (2011) The Role of Informal Sector on Household Livelihood in Mekelle

²⁶<https://communities.unescap.org/asia-pacific-economic-statistics/informal-sector>

²⁷<https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/in-focus/csw61/women-in-informal-economy>



Source: <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/in-focus/csw61/women-in-informal-economy>

As a result, the sector is a priority option, especially in developing countries where the labor force is large and rapidly growing (Sibongile. et al., 2013). The sector has the advantage of easy entry and low requirements for education, skills, technology; because of this, the sector has a significant job and income generation capacity, especially in the situation where unemployment is high, underemployment and poverty are the bottlenecks for growth (Ahmadou, 2014).

For the governments, the informal sector might also be a remedy for unemployment problems, in addition to other economic questions where the formal economy cannot absorb the majority of labor, due to its own limitations.

Though there are several benefits, working in this informal or grey economy leaves women often without any protection of labor laws and social benefits such as pension, health insurance, or paid sick leave. They routinely work for lower wages and in unsafe conditions, including risk of sexual harassment. The lack of social protection has a long-term impact on women²⁸.

²⁸<https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/in-focus/csw61/women-in-informal-economy>

7.8.2. The informal sector and Women in Ethiopia

Up to 92% of all employed women in low-income countries are in informal employment, compared with 87% of men. In lower-middle-income countries, the proportions are 83% and 85% (ILO, 2018). The share of women in informal employment exceeds the share of men in a majority of countries (55%)²⁹.

The informal sector plays a significant role in the socio-economic development process of poor countries like Ethiopia³⁰. For instance, in Somali Regional State, the economy is driven by the informal sector. A study conducted in Jigjiga and the major cities shows that informal business is the main source of employment and income for a considerable number of women, particularly those under the age of 30. For some, operating in the informal sector is the only viable economic option. Studies show that many women cite a lack of alternative employment opportunities as well as low income from formal employment as key factors leading them to engage in the informal economy. Across the board, burdensome business registration requirements and tax responsibilities continue to incentivize informal work³¹. This situation is similar in other cities of the country.

Women in the informal sector face a unique set of challenges. In Jigjiga, women are up against a lack of consistent access to working space, difficulty acquiring credit to expand their businesses, and significant security challenges. Many have also noted that despite the vital role played by informal businesses, they are still considered illegal - a classification that many women in Jigjiga's informal sector push back on. What is more, the COVID-19 pandemic has placed increasing strain on individuals providing for themselves and their families, driving even more women into the informal sector and exacerbating existing challenges. As the main source of employment for such a

²⁹ [Addressing the gender dimension of informality: https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org](https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org)

³⁰ <https://mpira.ub.uni-muenchen.de/104746/>

³¹ <https://www.cipe.org/blog/2021/05/26/supporting-women-in-the-informal-sector-in-jigjiga-ethiopia/>

substantial section of the region's labor force, it is crucial that future economic policy changes are inclusive of women in the informal sector³².

There is no special policy for women-owned enterprises, but the strategy provides 50%, 75%, and 3% MSE supports mechanisms as a quota to women, youth, and MSE operators with a disability, respectively (AACCSA, 2018)³³. More specifically, the following are characteristics of the informal sector in Ethiopia:

- The awareness and attitude of the communities and other stakeholders is not yet changed about the informal economy. As a result, the role of the sector is not yet maximized.
- The large numbers of informal activities are operating without having a fixed location. They are not recognized, regulated, and supported by the government.
- There is a policy in place to unlock these people from their low productivity activities, enable them to be more productive, and provide them with economic opportunities.
- The sector has no formal financial sector support or credit availability, so there is an indication that the sector can contribute beyond this if there are credit services.

Therefore, taking the above characteristics and the sector's role into account, the following actions should be taken by the government and concerned stakeholders (NGOs and private sector):

- There should be an awareness-raising program to create an understanding of the role of the sector and sustain it.
- The government should create an enabling environment with appropriate policies supporting their activities and transforming them into a licensed formal business.

³²Ibbid

³³ Ibbid

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- To sustain their contribution, policies and positive measures should unlock these people from their low productivity activities, enable them to be more productive and provide them with economic opportunities.
- There should alternative financial sources to the sector so that it can contribute more to the operators and the economic development of the country.
- A real linkage between informal and formal sectors should encouraged.

Chapter Eight

Women Empowerment and Violence Against Women

8.1. Introduction

Gender inequality is a marked impediment to a nation's overall development. The issue of gender and gender equality is one of the seventeen goals of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that set the agenda for 2030. Goal 5 of the SDGs, which reads as "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls" (European Parliament, 2016, p. 16), is devoted to gender equality and women's empowerment in its entirety. Gender and women empowerment are also implicitly implicated in the rest of the 16 SDGs and their targets. In other words, all of the 16 SDGs have gender dimensions in addition to goal 5, which is dedicated to gender equality and women's empowerment. So, gender is closely linked to the global agenda for 2030-SDGs. Therefore, national attainment of the SDGs is unquestionably dependent on the extent to which gender equity has been ensured, and women are empowered. In a nutshell, achieving gender equality is a key to the attainment of the SDGs, and women's empowerment is a key tool to achieve gender equality. In spite of the centrality of gender equality and women's empowerment to the attainment of SDGs by 2030, empirical data regarding the progress of countries towards meeting the SDGs in general and goal 5, in particular, seem to lack, especially in developing countries such as Ethiopia. This analysis set out to help fill the gap in research into the issue by analyzing some selected indicators of women's empowerment and violence against women from the three waves of Ethiopia demographic and health survey (EDHS 2005, 2011, and 2016) abbreviated as EDHS after all and related sources.

8.2. Employment and Cash Earnings as Indicators of Women's Empowerment

One prominent area that reflects women's empowerment is employment and cash earnings. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect an increment in the number of women

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who were employed and decrement in the number of who were not employed 12 months prior to the survey from 2005 through 2011 to 2016.

In other words, improvement among women in terms of employment and forms of earning across time is an indicator of improvements in gender inequality and women's empowerment. With this assumption, comparisons of data from EDHS 2005, EDHS 2011, and EDHS 2016 on these indicators have been conducted. Results were summarized in the table below.

Table 8.1: Employment and Cash Earnings

Time		2005	2011	2016
Number of Women Interviewed (15-49 years old)		14,07	16,515	15,683
% of Employed		31.5	56.5	48
Forms of earning	% of cash only earners	26.5	35.7	35
	% of cash & in-kind earners	3.4	26	7
	% of in-kind only earners	10	8	-
% of not paid		59.5	30.1	49

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Table 8.1. Employment and forms of earnings of currently married women of reproductive age in 2005, 2011, and 2016 or EDHS series, participants were considered employed if they have done any work other than their housework in the 12 months before the survey. Table 1 above shows that the rate of employment of currently married 15-49 years old women noticeably increased from 31.5% in 2005 to 56.5% in 2011 and then slightly declined to 48% in 2016. The trend of cash earning as a form of employment rose from about 27% to about 36% between 2005 and 2011 and essentially remained constant at 35% between 2011 and 2016.

The percentage of women who used to earn in cash and in-kind increased significantly from about 3% to 26% between 2005 and 2011 and then considerably dropped to 7% in 2016.

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The percentage of women who used to be in-kind only showed a slight decline from 10% to 8% between 2005 and 2011 (data is missing for 2016). The percentage of women who were not paid for any work they have done decreased remarkably between 2005 and 2011 from about 60% to about 30% but noticeably increased to 49% between 2011 and 2016.

8.3. Participation in Decision-Making

Women who are empowered are much more likely to autonomously make or at least participate in decisions that affect their lives than women who are not empowered. Given the interventions put in place over the last two decades in Ethiopia, women's engagement in decision-making that affect their lives and that of their family and society is expected to significantly improve.

By extracting data from EDHS 2005, 2011, and 2016 on this issue, I tried to show how women's involvement in decision-making changed overtime. Table 8.2 shows the trends of women's participation in three main decisions that affect their lives in one way or the other between 2005 and 2016. , The percentage of women who participated in decisions regarding a "woman's own health care" changed from 66% to about 74% between 2005 and 2011, and it then slightly increased from about 74% to 81% between 2011 and 2016. , The percentage of women who participated in "making major household purchases" has shown a moderate rise (from 57% to about 66%) between 2005 and 2011.

Table 8.2: Women's involvement in decision-making in 2005, 2011, and 2016

Specific Decisions	Time Period		
	2005	2011	2016
Women's own health care	66	74.4	81
Making major household purchases	57	66.2	78
Visit to her family or relatives	78	77.8	84
Participated in all of the three decisions above	44	56.1	71
Participated in none of them	8	11.8	10

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

It has shown a slightly better increase between 2011 and 2016 by changing from about 66% to 78%. The rate of women's participation in decisions regarding "paying visits to their family or relatives" slightly declined from about 85% to 80% between 2005 and 2011 and it then showed slight growth from about 80% to 84% between 2011 and 2016. The percentage of women who participated in all of the three decisions (woman's own health care, making major household purchases, and paying visits to their family or relatives) has shown a slight increase between 2005 and 2011 and between 2011 and 2016 by changing from about 52% to about 56% and from about 56% to 71%, respectively. The rate of women's non-participation in decision-making should have declined from 2005 to 2016, but the data show the opposite. The percentage of women who did participate in none of the three decisions increased from about 5% to about 12% between 2005 and 2011 and then remained at 10% between 2011 and 2016.

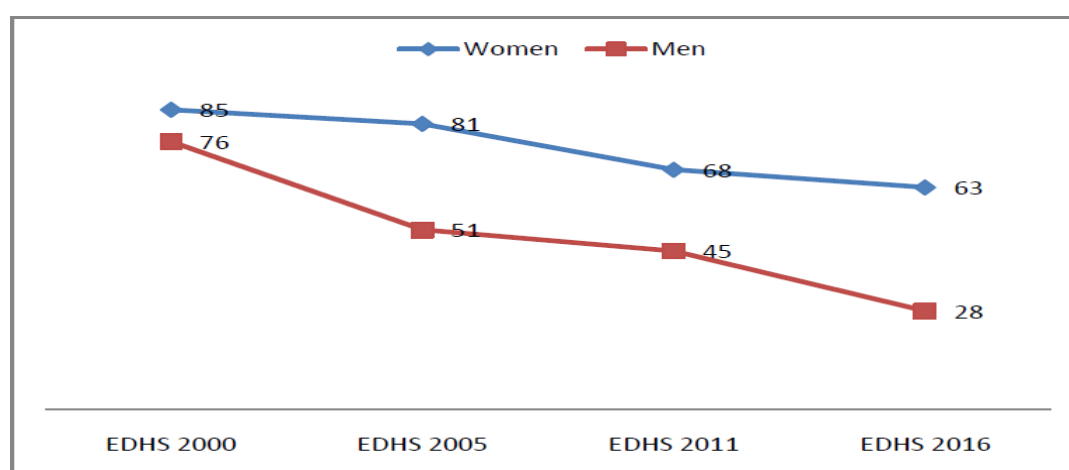
8.4. Attitude towards Wife Beating

Wife beating is likely to be the manifestation of powerlessness among women and of powerfulness among men. It is associated with tolerance of gender-based violence and conflictual relationships. In other words, women who accept wife-beating are very much likely to tolerate gender-based violence and stay in conflictual intimate relationships. Likewise, men who accept wife-beating are much more likely to perpetrate intimate partner violence. On the other hand, rejection of wife-beating is a manifestation of empowerment and is likely to lead to non-tolerance of gender-based violence among both women and men. A multitude of socio-economic and politico-legal interventions have been put in place to empower women and reduce gender inequality since 1991 in Ethiopia. Given such concerted interventions and with the passage of time, it is reasonable to expect more empowerment among women and a decline in acceptance of wife-beating among women and men. With this logic, comparisons of data from EDHS 2000, EDHS 2005, EDHS 2011, and

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EDHS 2016 on attitude towards wife-beating were performed. As a measure of attitude towards wife-beating, women and men were asked whether a husband is justified in beating his wife under five circumstances: if the wife burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children, or refuses sexual intercourse with him. The figure below displays the proportion of women and men who agreed at least with one of the reasons (circumstances) for which a husband is justified from the four demographic and health surveys for women and men.

Figure 8.1: Proportion of women and men who accepted the justifiability of wife beating in 2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016



Source: CSA, DHS 2005, 2011 and 2016

As vividly visible from Figure 8.1 above, tolerance of wife-beating declined significantly among both women and men. But the decline was rather slower among women compared to men. Tolerance and/or acceptance of wife-beating decreased fast from 76% to 51% between 2000 and 2005, decreased slightly from 51% to 45% between 2005 and 2011, and then steadily from 45% to 28% between 2011 and 2016 among men. Among women, it decreased marginally from 85% to 81% between 2000 and 2005; it dropped a little bit faster from 81% to 68% between 2005 and 2011 and then slightly from 68% to 63% between 2011 and 2016.

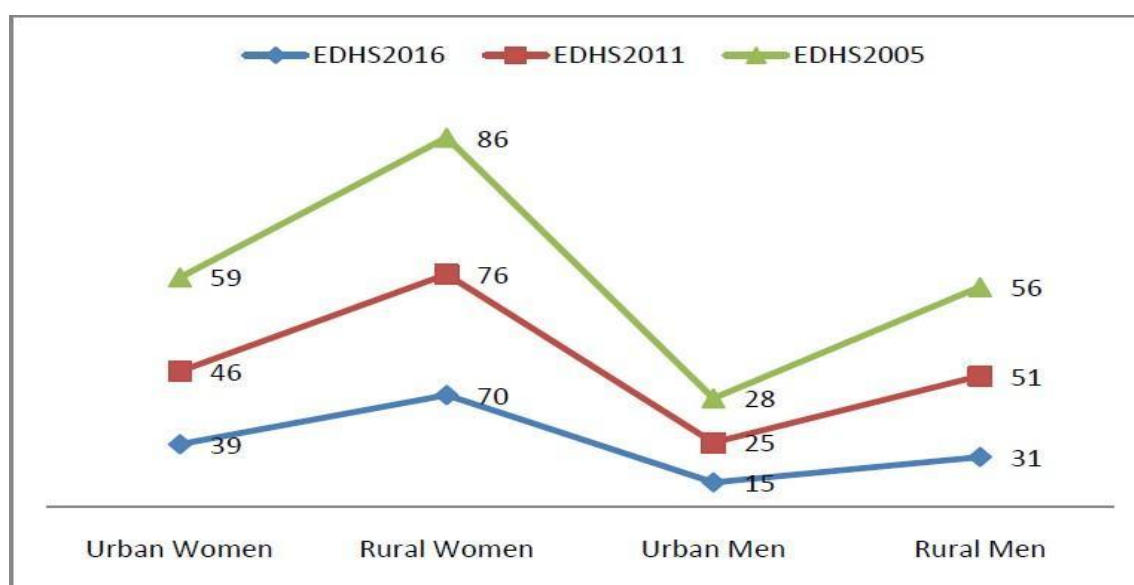
8.5. Attitude towards Wife Beating by Region and Residence

Data from the three surveys were compared to see how changes in attitude towards wife-beating varied by place of residence (rural versus urban) and region (across the nine regional states and two city councils). Figure 8.2 shows changes in attitude towards wife-beating among urban and rural women and men from 2005 through 2011 to 2016. As evident from the figure, the proportion of urban women who endorsed at least one of the five circumstances under which a husband is justified to beat his wife decreased significantly from 59% to 46% between 2005 and 2011 and slightly from 46% to 39% between 2011 and 2016.

Similarly, the proportion of rural women who endorsed at least one of the five circumstances under which a husband is justified to beat his wife decreased significantly from 86% to 76% between 2005 and 2011 and slightly from 76% to 70% between 2011 and 2016. The rate of the change is rather slower among urban men compared to rural men. The percentage of urban men who accepted the justifiability of at least one of the five circumstances under which a husband is justified to beat his wife decreased insignificantly from 28% to 25% between 2005 and 2011 and slightly from 25% to 15% between 2011 and 2016.

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Figure 8.2: Change in acceptance of wife-beating among women and men by place of residence



Sourec: CSA, DHS 2005, 2011 and 2016

The proportion of rural men who agreed with the justifiability of at least one circumstance for which a husband is excused in beating his wife decreased marginally from 56% in 2005 to 51% in 2011, and it then declined meaningfully from 51% to 31% between 2011 and 2016. As with place of residence, the changes in attitude toward wife beating between 2005 and 2016 tended to vary by region of residence. Figures 8.3 and 8.4 display patterns of the change in attitude towards wife-beating among women and men by region, respectively. In all regions, except Dire Dawa, acceptance of wife-beating declined overtime with slight variations. In Tigray, the proportion of women who agreed with at least one circumstance under which a husband is justified in beating his wife decreased slightly from about 73% in 2005 to about 67% in 2011 and then marginally to 65% in 2016. Likewise, in Afar, it declined from about 80% in 2005 to about 73% in 2011 and then to about 69% in 2016. The decline was more meaningful in Amhara since it dropped from as high as 91% in 2005 to about 75% in 2011 and then to 65% in 2016. In Oromia, the percentage of women who agreed with at least one circumstance under which a husband is justified

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in beating his wife decreased significantly from about 81% in 2005 to 66% in 2011 and then rose marginally to about 69% in 2016. In Somali, the drop was slight between 2005 and 2011 (from about 88% to 82%) but it was radical between 2011 and 2016 for it shrunk from about 82% to 43%, the drop being 39% between 2011 and 2016. In Amhara 91% (highest among all regions) justified beating in 2005 but declined during 2011 and 2016.

In the Benishangul-Gumuz region, the drop was meaningful between 2005 and 2011 as it decreased from about 84% in 2005 to about 62% in 2011, but the rate of the drop was rather slight between 2011 and 2016 being about 7%. In the South Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples (SNNP) region, it dropped slowly from about 81% in 2005 to about 77% in 2011 and marginally significantly from about 77% to 66% between 2011 and 2016. The drop in Gambella was significant between 2005 and 2011 and slight between 2011 and 2016 at about 13% and 6%, respectively. In Harari regional state, the proportion of women who entitled a husband to beat his wife at least under one of the five specific reasons dropped moderately from 67% to about 58% between 2005 and 2011 and then drastically from about 58% in 2011 to about 39% in 2016. In Addis Ababa, the shrinkage was strong between 2005 and 2011 at about 18%, but it remained stagnant at about 23% between 2011 and 2016. Finally, in Dire Dawa, it remained almost unchanged between 2005 and 2011 and 2011 and 2016 at about 47%.

Figure 8.3: Change in acceptance of wife-beating among women by region

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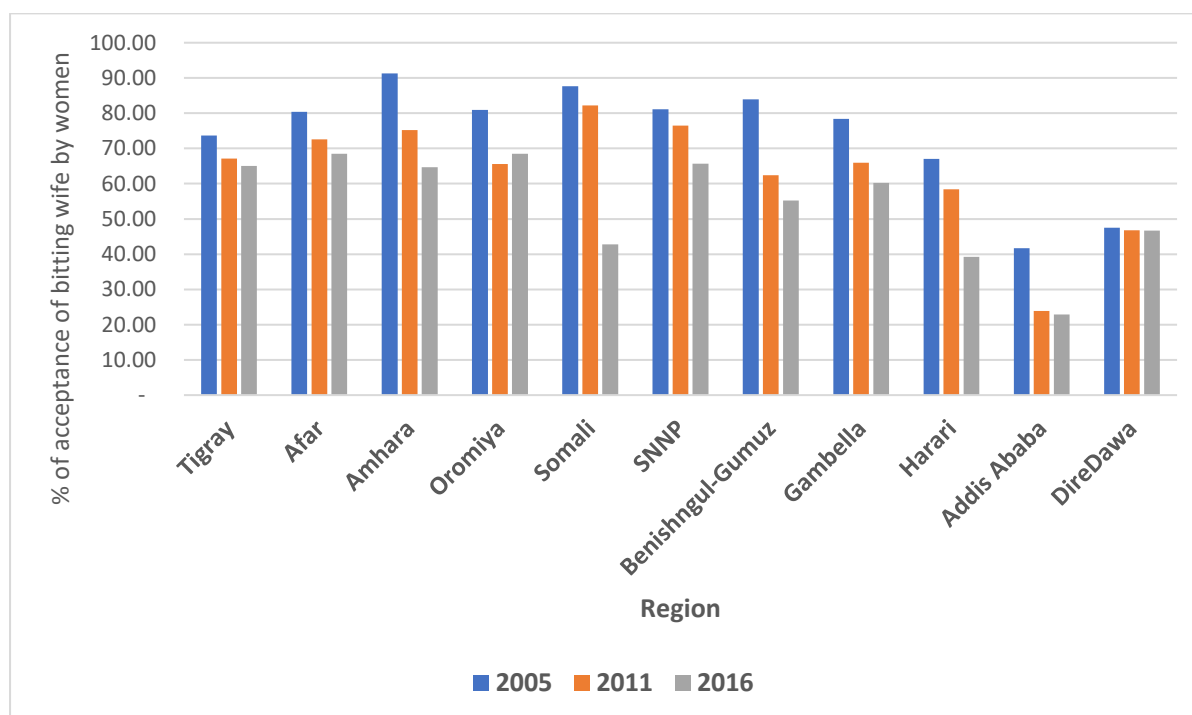


Figure 8.4 shows change in acceptance of wife-beating overtime (2005-2016) among men by region. As can be seen from the figure, acceptance of wife-beating among men in all regional states of Ethiopia decreased except in Tigray and Somali regions. In Tigray regional state, the proportion of men who agreed with the justifiability of a husband in beating his wife by agreeing with at least one of the five conditions posed increased from about 35% in 2005 to 46% in 2011 and then declined to about 31% in 2016. Like in Tigray, in Somali, it significantly increased from 38% in 2005 to about 58% in 2011, and it then drastically decreased to about 14% in 2016.

In Afar, it dropped significantly from about 61% in 2005 to about 43% in 2011 and then to about 16% in 2016. In the Amhara regional state, the change was rather gradual. It dropped marginally from about 53% in 2005 to about 51% in 2011 and then to about 46% between 2011 and 2016. In Oromia, the shrinkage was meaningful enough; it dropped from 56% to about 40% and from 40% to about 26% between

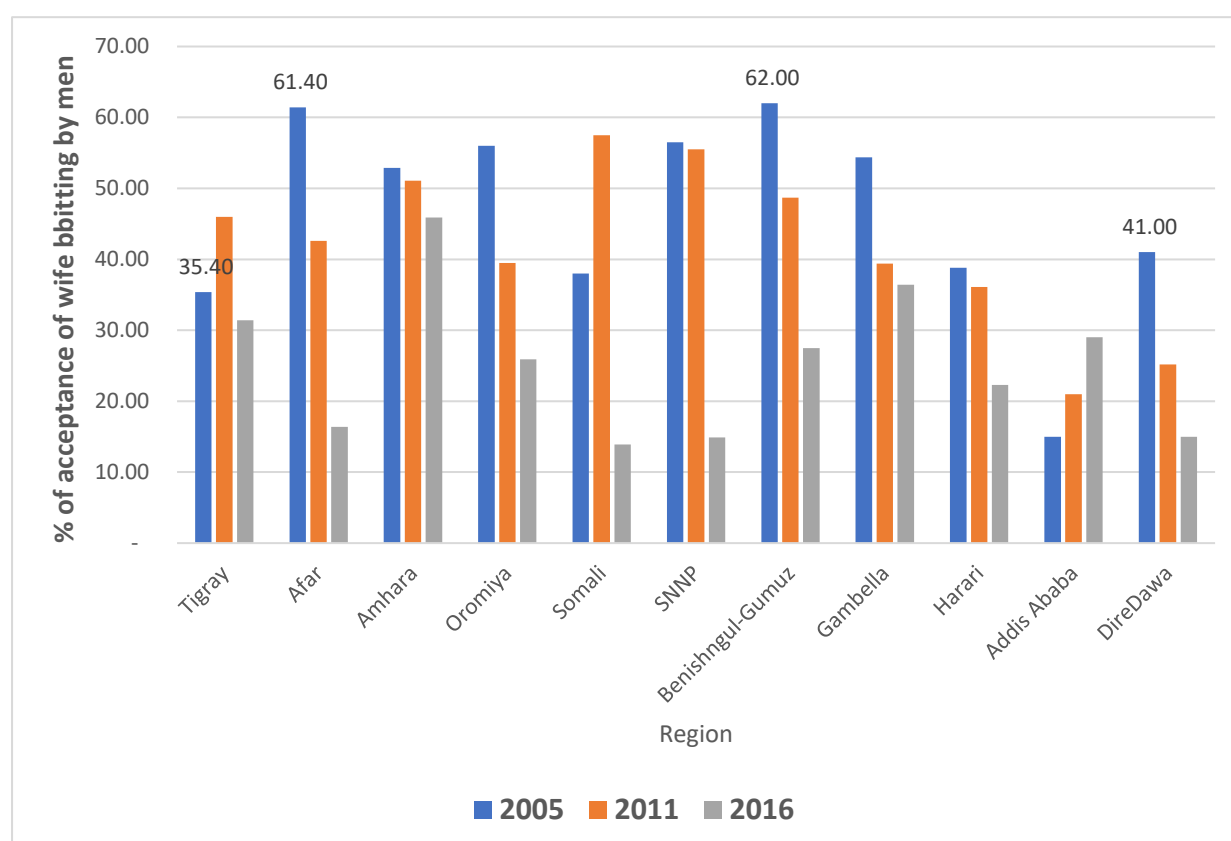
2005 and 2011 and between 2011 and 2016, respectively. The fall in the percentage of men who accepted at least one of the circumstances under which a husband is justified

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to beat his wife in Benishangul-Gumuz was significant at about 14% between 2005 and 2011, and it was drastic at about 21% between 2011 and 2016.

In SNNP, the fall was insignificant between 2005 and 2011 but was so drastic by dropping by about 41%. In Gambella, it fell by about 15% between 2005 and 2011, but the fall was so small (3%) between 2011 and 2016. Harari saw a marginal fall (about 3%) between 2005 and 2011, but it was significant (about 14%) between 2011 and 2016. The rates of decline in Addis Ababa were small at about 4% between 2005 and 2011 and 2011 and 2016, too. Finally, the percentage of men who supported at least one of the five specific conditions under which a husband is justified to beat his wife decreased by about 16% between 2005 and 2011 and by about 10% between 2011 and 2016 in Dire Dawa City.

Figure 8.4: *Change in acceptance of wife-beating among men by region*



Source: CSA, DHS 2005, 2011 and 2016

8.6. Gender-based Violence

According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2013), gender-based violence (GBV) refers to any act perpetrated against a person's will and is based on gender norms and unequal power relationships. Gender-based violence (GBV) is a global phenomenon that occurs without geographical, cultural, social, economic, ethnic, or other boundaries. It occurs across all societies and represents a brutal violation of human rights, the worst manifestation of gender-based discrimination, and a major obstacle to the achievement of gender equality (UNESCO, 2014).

Gender-Based Violence (GBV) is described as an “endemic” in communities around the world across all classes, races, sex, age, religion, and national boundaries (Population Council Inc, 2008b). While men and boys can also be victims of gender-based violence, there is a tendency to associate GBV with violence against women and girls.

A study by WHO (2014) shows that gender-based violence is the fourth leading cause of death worldwide for people aged 15 - 44 years, and more than 1.3 million people die each year as a result of this violence, accounting for 2.5% of global mortality. It was estimated that one in three women experiences physical or sexual abuse in her lifetime, and one in five women is sexually abused as a child (Milton et al., 2016, García-Moreno et al., 2013).

The term GBV, in its broadest sense, refers to the sexual, physical, emotional, economic, and educational abuse directed against a person because of his/her gender or gender role in society. In this case, the person has no choice to refuse or pursue other options without serving social, physical, and psychological consequences (USAID, 2008; Heise et al., 1999).

Violence against women and girls is a violation of basic human rights. In many developing economies, like Ethiopia, violence against women/girls remains a challenge to women's empowerment. However, Ethiopia has put in place appropriate and effective legal and policy provisions to promote women and girls' rights and

ratified many of the international and continental agreements that promote and protect women's rights.

The violence against women and girls, also known as gender-based violence and gender-based violence, is collective, violent acts that are primarily or exclusively committed against women and girls. Gender-based violence against women and girls can occur in both public and private spheres of life and at any time of their life span and can take physical, psychological, sexual forms, which often keeps women away from wholly contributing to the social, economic, and political development of their communities. As a result, updated information for a systematic review of domestic violence is needed to support policy and program recommendations.

In Ethiopia, violence against women and girls continues to be a major challenge and a threat to women's empowerment. Women and girls face physical, emotional, and sexual abuses that undermine their health and ability to earn a living, disrupt their social systems and relationships and rob them of their childhood and education (Gebre et al., 2020). In Ethiopia, GBV has its roots in the gender inequalities between men and women. Although violence against women has begun to receive more attention nationally over the last two decades, violence against women is still largely hidden in Ethiopia.

GBV in Ethiopia is a serious public health concern. According to World Health Organization Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women, found that 71% of ever partnered women in Ethiopia had experienced physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner (WHO, 2005).

In Ethiopia, there is no compressive study on the prevalence of GBV. Some cross-sectional and geographically restricted studies have been done in Ethiopia on the prevalence, risk factors, and health outcomes of gender-based violence among women (Abeya et al., 2011, Deribe et al., 2012, Feseha et al., 2012, Yigzaw et al., 2004, Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015, Meleku & Sendo, 2015). The results of these studies cannot be generalized to other areas and populations. Mullu et al.,(2018), in their meta-analysis of previous GBV studies in Ethiopia, confirmed that the existing

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data is uninformative due to lack of local focus and limited scope and may not guide implementation of available interventions.

Moreover, studies on the prevalence of GBV in Addis Ababa city administration are subtle, as the above-stated studies were focused on GBV in regional cities that might be subject to the shortage of area-specific information. As a result, there was a knowledge gap about violence against women and children, which might affect the ability of policymakers to pass workable legislation and introduce policy reforms, ensure adequate provision of targeted and effective services, monitor trends and progress in addressing and eliminating violence against women, men and children in the study area (Gebre et al., 2020).

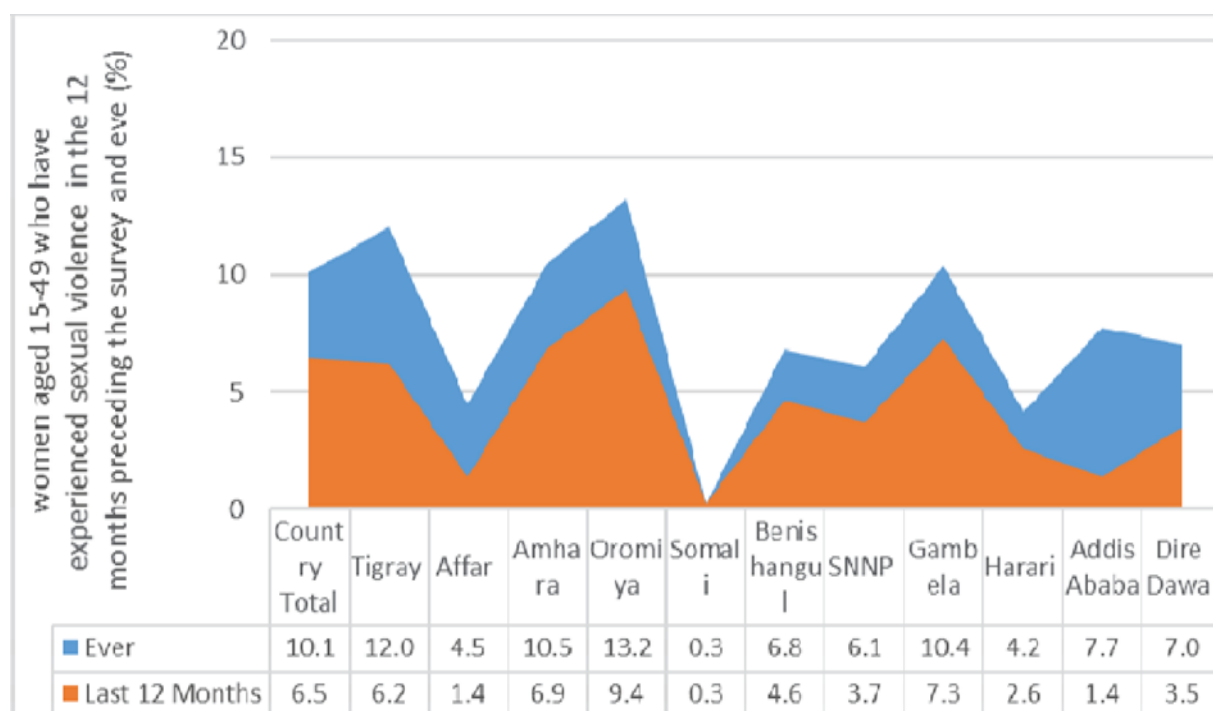
Violence against women

According to the 2016 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS), around 23% of women between the ages of 15-49 have ever experienced physical violence, and 10% have ever experienced sexual violence (CSA, 2016). The survey also identified that 15% of women in this same age group had experienced physical violence in the last 12 months prior to the survey. This shows that there is a need to take appropriate measures to overcome the negative impact of GBV

As illustrated in Figure8-5there are varying patterns across the regions among the women who ever experienced sexual violence and/or before 12 months of the DHS 2016 survey year. As witnessed, regions like Oromia, Tigray, Amhara, and Gambela scored above the country average in experiencing sexual violence ever, while a much lesser percentage for the same appeared from Somali (0.3%).

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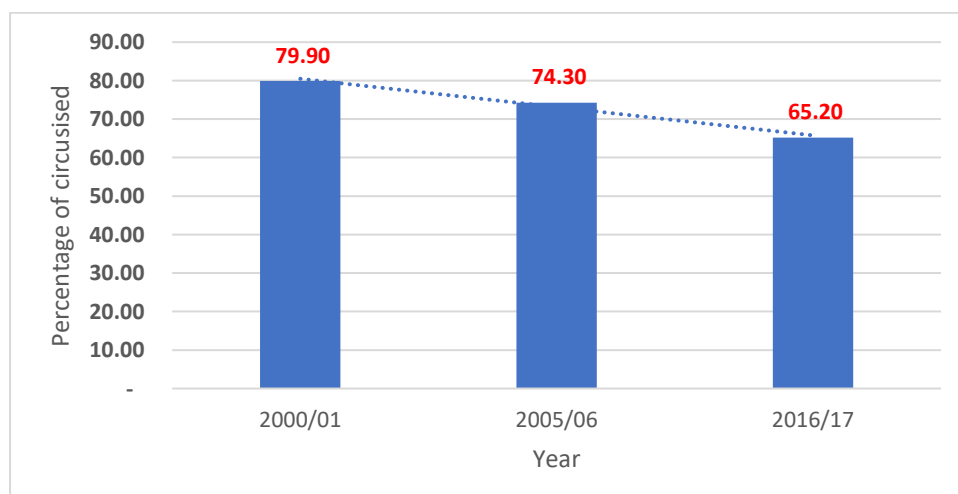
Figure 8.5: Percentage of women aged 15-49 who have experienced GBV



Source: CSA, DHS: 2016

Figure 8-6 depicts women age 15-49 who are circumcised by the survey years (2000, 2005, and 2016). As a result, there is a gradual decrease in the percentage of women who are circumcised from 79.9% in 2000 to 74.33% in 2005 to 65.2% in 2016 in the country.

Figure 8.6: Percentage of women age 15-49 who are circumcised by year, Country Total



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Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005 and 2016

Similarly, there appeared to be a declining trend across all the regions between 2000 and 2016 in the percentage of women who are circumcised. Specifically, the higher percentages of women being circumcised in regions of Somali and Afar (Table 8-3).

Table 8.3: Percentage Distribution of women age 15-49 who are circumcised by region and year

Region	2000	2005	2016
Country Total	79.9	74.3	65.2
Tigray	35.7	29.3	24.2
Afar	98.6	91.6	91.2
Amhara	79.7	68.5	61.7
Oromia	89.8	87.2	75.6
Somali	99.7	97.3	98.5
Benishangul-Gumuz	73.7	67.6	62.9
SNRP	73.5	71.0	62.0
Gambela	42.9	27.1	33.0
Harari	94.3	85.1	81.7
Addis Ababa	79.8	65.7	54.0
Dire Dawa	95.1	92.3	75.3
(Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005 and 2016)			

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

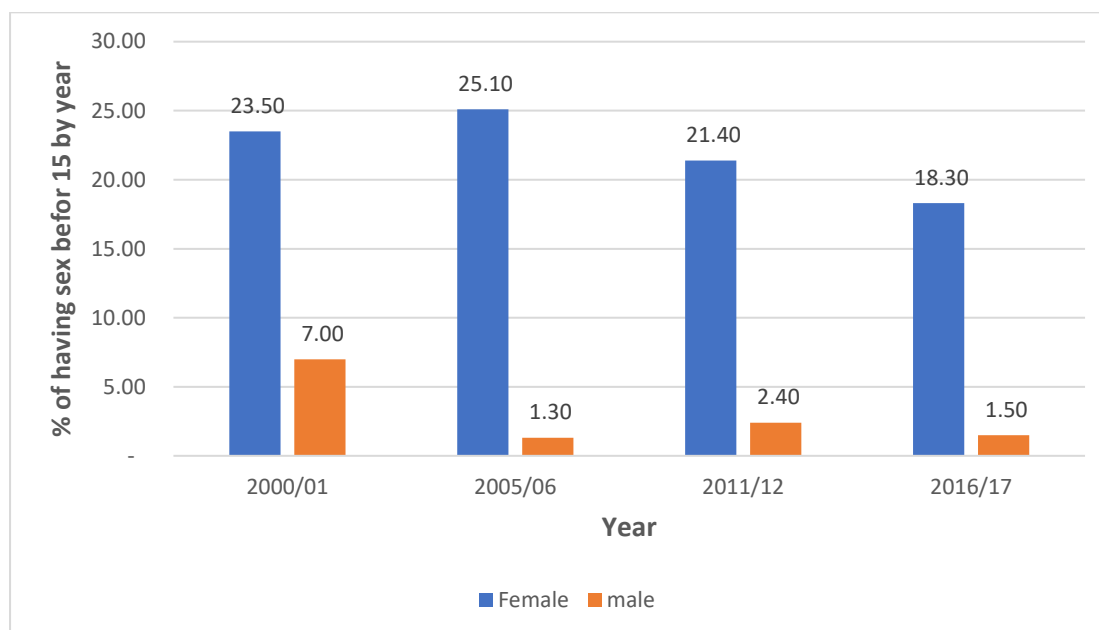
Sexual experience before age 15

Figure 8-7 depicts the country-level statistics of female and male aged 15-49 having sex before age 15 during 2000, 2005, 2011, and 2016. There appeared to be a decrease in the percentages of female and male having sex before they reach 15 years of age. The percentage of female having sex before age 15 are more than male across survey years. Specifically, while 23.8% female experienced sex in the year 2000, only

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7% male found to be having it in the same year. However, by the year 2016, about 18 % of female had sex before age 15, as compared to 1.5% male.

Figure 8.7: Percentage of female and male aged 15-49 having sex before age 15 by years, Country Total



Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Furthermore, Table 8-4 highlights the regional percentage distribution about female and male having sex before age 15 across the survey years (2000 to 2016). Consequently, there is a decreasing trend in both sexes having sex before age 15 across many regions. However, female percentage having sex before age 15 increased between 2000 and 2016 in Oromia region (14.6% to 16.9%), Somali region (7.7% to 9.8%), SNNP region (8.4% to 11%), and Dire Dawa Administration (8.3% to 12.6%) regions.

Table 8.4: % of female and male aged 15-49 having sex before age 15 by Region and Years

Region	2000		2005		2011		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CountryLevel	23.8	7.0	25.1	1.3	21.4	2.4	18.3	1.5
Tigray	33.0	1.9	31.7	0.0	25.4	1.0	22.4	0.3
Afar	28.0	2.8	24.9	3.4	20.2	5.2	18.3	3.7

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Amhara	51.9	4.7	47.5	1.3	36.6	2.3	29.7	0.7
Oromia	14.6	2.0	17.3	1.3	17.8	2.5	16.9	1.8
Somali	7.7	2.2	12.8	1.3	8.0	3.6	9.8	0.8
Beni. Gumuz	27.0	3.5	32.8	1.5	25.8	3.0	18.8	5.1
SNNP	8.4	8.3	15.9	1.1	10.5	2.8	11.0	1.9
Gambela	23.2	5.4	28.2	14.3	23.3	2.9	20.9	3.4
Harari	21.9	1.9	10.2	1.2	12.8	1.5	14.3	3.8
AddisAbaba	12.6	1.9	10.6	2.2	9.6	1.3	6.2	1.6
DireDawa	8.3	3.9	15.5	0.6	10.9	1.4	12.6	1.6

Source: CSA, DHS: 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2016

Different studies such as UN Women (2017) and EDHS (2016) acknowledged the relationship between early sexual initiation and repeated GBV experience in the life of women.

Consequently, the GBV study in Addis Ababa City administration associated study women's' easily sexual initiation with their lifetime GBV experience, as explained in Table 8.5 below.

Table 8.5: Sexual intercourse experience and prevalence of gender-based violence

		Sexual experience before age 18			
		No		Yes	
		count	%	count	%
All GBV	No	987	82.3	2193	78.2
	Yes	213	17.8	612	21.8
Sexual Violence	No	1017	84.8	2334	83.2
	Yes	183	15.3	471	16.8
Physical Violence	No	1088	90.7	2422	86.3
	Yes	112	9.3	383	13.7
Psychological Violence	No	1068	89	2299	82
	Yes	132	11	506	18
Economic and Education Violence	No	1144	95.3	2598	92.6
	Yes	56	4.7	207	7.4

Source: AAWCA, 2020

As shown in *Table 8.5* above, from the sampled respondents, 78% of them have sexual intercourse experience before the time of the study. Among the female respondents who have a sexual experience before the age of 18, 21.8% of them have experienced different types of GBV in their lifetime for different reasons, such as early

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marriage and rap. This finding is in line with the finding of the 2016 EDHS, as the age of 16 was the median age at first marriage among women age 25-49 in Ethiopia.

Besides, there is a strong association between early sexual initiation and coercion, increasing girls' vulnerability for further sexual, physical, psychological, and educational rights abuse. This was confirmed by International Center for Research on Women as mounting evidence that married female adolescents are among the most vulnerable worldwide (Speizer, I. S., & Pearson, E. (2011). In Uganda, 31% of women reported first sex before the age of 15 years, and they had different GBV experiences in their lifetime (Ugandan DHS, 2016).

The male respondents of this study were asked about their early sexual initiation experience in their lifetime, and 83% of male respondents didn't have a sexual experience before the age of 18. However, almost 33% of them have a sexual experience with girls whose age is under 18 years. Among male respondents who have sexual intercourse experience with girls less than 18 years old, 77% assume that having sexual intercourse with a girl less than 18 years old is not considered as sexual violence as long as she is willing to have sex. As per the response of youth FGD participants, most of the youth girls didn't consider sexual intercourse before the age of 18 as sexual violence as far as the girl accepts the relationship. These respondents considered sexual practice with underage girls as sexual violence only if it was practiced without her consent or with coercion.

This implies that there is a knowledge gap among the respondents that any sexual intercourse and marriage before the age of 18 is a crime and GBV as per the Ethiopian revised criminal code and revised family law (Proclamation No. 213/2000).

The Constitution and Family Code set the age of marriageability at 18 for girls and boys. The Criminal Code sets penalties for transgressors, with higher penalties for those who marry very young children. There are also many international charters, of which Ethiopia is a part, that outlaw the practice, but these have limited tangible impact for ordinary people.

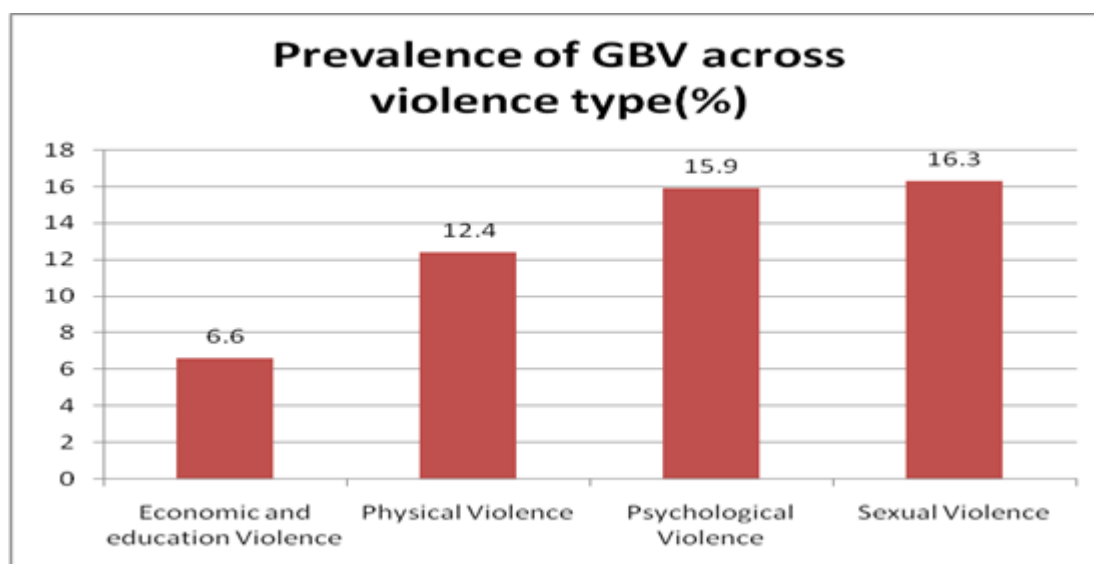
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Thus, an effort is needed by different concerned stakeholders, including the media, to raise the awareness level of the community on the revised criminal law, family law, and the overall legal system as well as the social, economic, psychological, and health consequences of GBV on women and children.

Prevalence of Gender-Based Violence in Addis Ababa City Administration

Gender-based violence takes many forms and may occur throughout a person's life cycle. Many experienced multiple episodes of violence, which will start at the prenatal period and continue through childhood to adulthood and old age. The type of GBV exposure is described and categorized in different ways. It differs from literature to literature. For this study, GBV is categorized in the four main pillars as sexual violence, physical violence, psychological/emotional violence, and economic/ education/ rights deprivation violation. The prevalence of each type of GBV is explained in detail in *Figure 8.8 below*.

Figure 8.8: Prevalence of sexual, psychological, physical, economic, and education violence



Source: Addis Ababa Women and Children Affairs GBV Study Data, 2020

As shown in *Figure 8.8 above*, across the GBV type in the thirty selected Woredas and based on the total sample of respondents, sexual violence has the highest prevalence

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(16.3%), followed by psychological/emotional violence (15.9%) and physical violence (12.4%) on women and children in the last five years. Economic and education access right violation is the least encountered violence, accounting for only 6.6% of the targeted women in the past five years. It can be inferred that the prevalence of sexual violence in this study is higher than other types of GBV.

Chapter Nine

Participation in Decision-Making

9.1. Introduction

Women who are empowered are much more likely to autonomously make a decision or participate in decision making that affects their lives than women who are not empowered. Given the interventions put in place over the last two decades in Ethiopia, women's engagement in decision-making that affects their lives and that of their family and society has been significantly improved. However, it also has to be done to ensure gender-equal participation.

9.2. Women's Involvement in Decision making on their own Issues

By extracting data from EDHS 2005, 2011, and 2016 on this issue, Table 9.1 below shows that the percentage of women who participated in decisions regarding a "woman's own health care" increased from 66% to about 74% between 2005 and 2011, and it then slightly increased from about 74% to 81% between 2011 and 2016. The percentage of women who participated in "making major household purchases" has shown a moderate rise (from 57% to about 66%) between 2005 and 2011. It has shown a slightly better increase between 2011 and 2016 by changing from about 66.2% to 78%.

Table 9.1: Women's involvement in decision-making in 2005, 2011, and 2016

Specific Decisions	Time Period		
	2005	2011	2016
Women's own health care	66	74.4	81
Making major household purchases	57	66.2	78
Visit to her family or relatives	78	77.8	84
Participated in all the three decisions above	44	56.1	71
Participated in none of them	8	11.8	10

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The rate of women's participation in decisions regarding "paying visits to their family or relatives" slightly declined from about 85% to 80% between 2005 and 2011 and it then showed slight growth from about 80% to 84% between 2011 and 2016. The percentage of women who participated in all the three decisions (woman's own health care, making major household purchases, and paying visits to their family or relatives) has shown a slight increase between 2005 and 2011 and between 2011 and 2016 by changing from about 52% to about 56% and from about 56% to 71%, respectively.

The rate of women's non-participation in decision-making should have declined from 2005 to 2016, but the data show the opposite. The percentage of women who did participate in none of the three decisions increased from about 5% to about 12% between 2005 and 2011 and then remained at 10% between 2011 and 2016.

9.3. Power and Decision-Making in Public Life

When it comes to authority and decision-making, it's important to remember that women and men participate in political and/or public life in different ways. Their involvement ranges from holding a political post or office to practicing citizenship rights such as voting and participating in community and voluntary groups. Holding leadership roles at various levels of government is most obvious from a decision-making standpoint. Nevertheless, persons holding senior/managerial positions in a wide range of public and private sector organizations also wield power and influence in molding society. This section aims to highlight the distinctions between men and women in terms of political and public life authority and decision-making options. Most of the data for this analysis came from several agencies' administrative databases, such as the National Election Board, Federal Police, Federal Attorney, and Civil Services Commission.

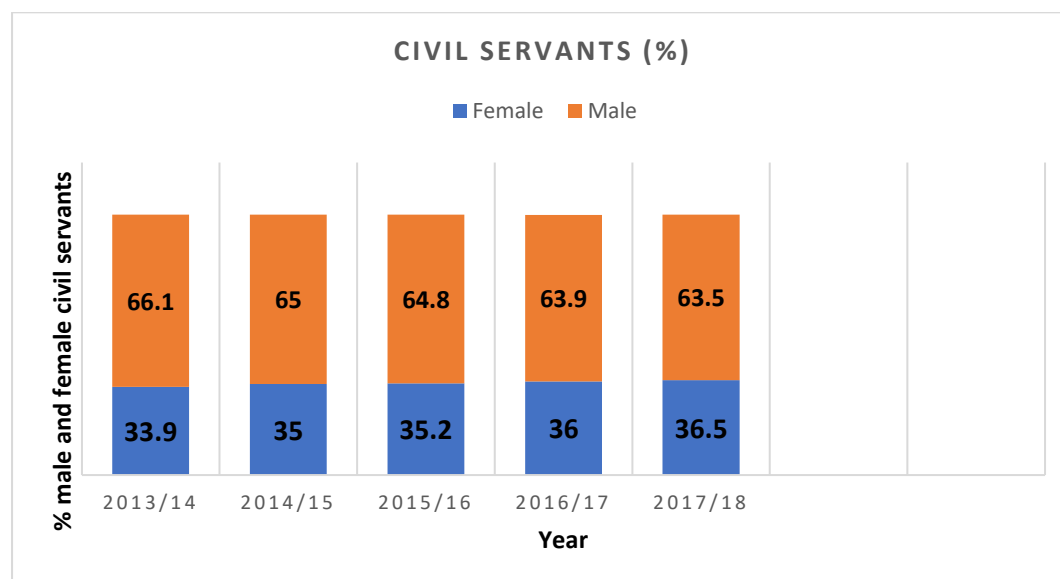
9.4. Participation as a Civil Servant

Figure 9-1 depicts the number of civil servants disaggregated by gender at the country level for the period of 2013/14 to 2017/18. In terms of gender representation in the

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civil service, females reported being less representative of the country during the stated years than their male counterparts. However, there was an increase in their representation in civil services from 33.9% in 2013/14 to 36.5% in 2017/18.

Figure 9.9: Percentage of civil servants by sex and year, Country Level



Source: CSC: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16. 2016/17, 2017/18

When disaggregated by regions and city administrations, *Table 9-2* shows that male government servants outnumber female civil workers in all regions except Addis Ababa City Administration in all reporting years, though there are variable patterns. Between 2013/14 and 2017/18, there was a gradual decrease in male civil servants in all regions and city administrations. For instance, in Tigray (60.9% to 56.3%), Amhara (63.3% to 60%), Oromia (69.2% to 66.4%). On the other hand, during the same period, female civil servants show an increase in these regions, despite remaining in lower numbers than males. In the Addis Ababa City Administration alone, female public servants outnumber male civil servants. In 2017/18, Somalia (22.7%), Afar (29.3%), and SNNP (30.4%) reported less than one-third of female civil servants.

Table 9.2: Percentage of civil servant by sex, region and year

Region	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18
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	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	33.9	66.1	35.0	65.0	35.2	64.8	36.1	63.9	36.5	63.5
Tigray	39.1	60.9	40.2	59.8	41.5	58.5	42.7	57.3	43.7	56.3
Afar	29.3	70.7	31.0	69.0	31.6	68.4	38.6	61.4	29.3	70.7
Amhara	36.7	63.3	37.8	62.2	38.1	61.9	39.1	60.9	40.0	60.0
Oromia	30.8	69.2	31.6	68.4	32.4	67.6	33.4	66.6	33.6	66.4
Somali	17.2	82.8	20.6	79.4	20.7	79.3	22.5	77.5	22.7	77.3
Benishangul-Gumuz	26.8	73.2	33.6	66.4	34.3	65.7	34.6	65.4	35.5	64.5
SNNP	29.3	70.7	29.3	70.7	29.4	70.6	29.7	70.3	30.4	69.6
Gambela	28.2	71.8	28.3	71.7	31.3	68.7	33.1	66.9	33.4	66.6
Harari	43.9	56.1	45.4	54.6	42.8	57.2	44.0	56.0	44.0	56.0
Addis Ababa	51.0	49.0	51.7	48.3	51.2	48.8	53.3	46.7	54.1	45.9
Dire Dawa	37.7	62.3	39.4	60.6	38.9	61.1	39.6	60.4	39.2	60.8

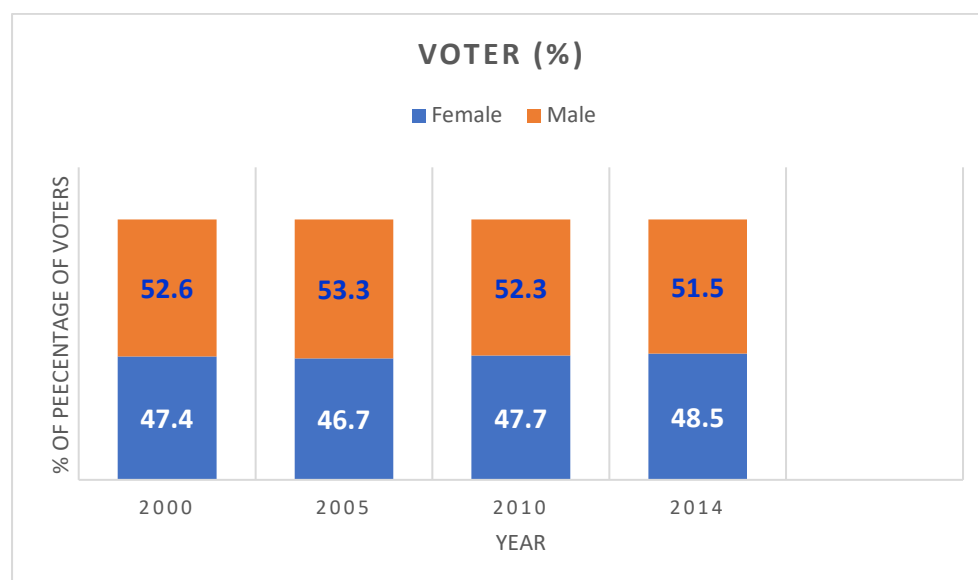
Source: CSC: 2013/14, 2014/15, 2015/16. 2016/17, 2017/18

9.5. Participation in National Election as Voter

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As shown in Figure 9-2, across the reported election years (2000, 2005, 2010, and 2014), a similar pattern has been seen in terms of both sexes voting participation. However, female participation in voting has increased from 47.4% in 2000 to 48.5% in 2014.

Figure 9. 2: Percentage of voters by sex and election year, Country Total



Source: NEBE: 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2014

Table 9.3 shows the percentage of voters who voted in the last four elections by gender in each region and city administration. The result, between the years 2000 and 2014, indicates female voter registration climbed steadily across the regions. For instance, there was an increase from 45.8% to 47.7% in Oromia, from 45.9% to 49.4% in the SNNP region, and from 46.9% to 49.7% in the Dire Dawa Administration. Furthermore, female voters (51.8%) outnumbered male voters (48.2%) in the Tigray region across all election years.

Table 9.3: Percentage of voters by sex, region and election year

Region	2000		2005		2010		2014	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	47.4	52.6	46.7	53.3	47.7	52.3	48.5	51.5

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Tigray	56.6	43.4	51.3	48.7	52.3	47.7	51.8	48.2
Afar	36.9	63.1	36.3	63.7	40.9	59.1	44.2	55.8
Amhara	49.2	50.8	48.2	51.8	48.7	51.3	49.3	50.7
Oromia	45.8	54.2	46.6	53.4	47.1	52.9	47.7	52.3
Somali	46.5	53.5	42.2	57.8	44.5	55.5	46.1	53.9
Benishangul-Gumuz	46.1	53.9	46.1	53.9	46.8	53.2	46.7	53.3
SNNP	45.9	54.1	46.9	53.1	49.2	50.8	49.4	50.6
Gambela	50.7	49.3	25.5	74.5	37.5	62.5	41.2	58.8
Harari	51.0	49.0	49.3	50.7	46.7	53.3	48.2	51.8
Addis Ababa	49.3	50.7	47.2	52.8	47.6	52.4	48.7	51.3
Dire Dawa	46.9	53.1	47.6	52.4	48.3	51.7	49.7	50.3

Source: NEBE: 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2014

9.6. Involvement in Police Activities

Figure 9-4 depicts police employee data by gender at the country level for the years 2015/16, 2016/17, and 2017/18. In terms of gender representation in the police staff, women have less representation than males during the stated years. Furthermore, female representation as police officers has decreased slightly, from 14.5% in 2015/16 to 14.2% in 2017/18.

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Figure 9. 3: Percentage of police staff by sex and year, Country Level (Source, Federal Police: 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18)

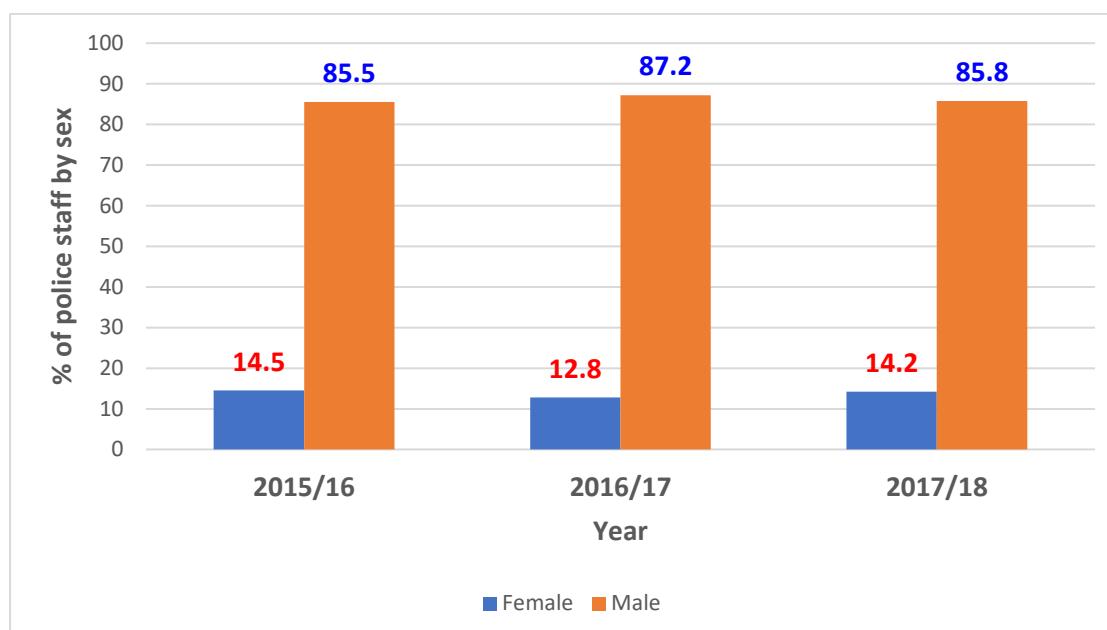


Table 9-4 shows regional police staffing numbers by gender for the last three years (2015/16, 2016/17, and 2017/18). The number for the country comprises officers from all regions as well as the Federal Police Commission. As a result, male representation as police officers proved to be substantially higher (than female) throughout all regions and reporting years despite varying patterns. While male representation increased gradually in Oromia (84.4% to 87.3%) and Benishangul-Gumuz (84.3% to 87.9%) regions between 2015/16 and 2017/18, male police staff declined in Addis Ababa City Administration (79% to 76.8%) and the Federal Police Commission (88.2% to 85.9%) during the same period. On the other hand, female police officers have increased in these areas during the last three years (2015/16 to 2017/18), though still in lower numbers (below one-fourth) than male officers.

Table 9. 4: Number of Police Staff by Sex, Region and Year

Region	2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Country Total	102,432	17,321	115,900	16,988	120,621	19,973
Tigray	3,984	644	4,719	730	5,081	791

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Afar	3,266	271	4,105	221	4,123	236
Amhara	12,773	1,812	12,423	1,129	13,592	1,881
Oromia	22,411	4,158	26,512	3,188	26,609	3,867
Somali	4,062	679	14,770	2,238	14,770	2,238
Benishangul- Gumuz	2,213	411	2,644	372	2,758	379
SNNP	13,488	2,061	12,516	1,678	12,333	1,787
Gambela	2,134	328	799	241	1,668	266
Harari	794	147	778	147	908	253
Addis Ababa	13,113	3,495	13,001	3,613	13,321	4,034
Dire Dawa	1,362	257	1,280	235	1,461	293
Federal Police Commission	22,832	3,058	22,353	3,196	23,997	3,948

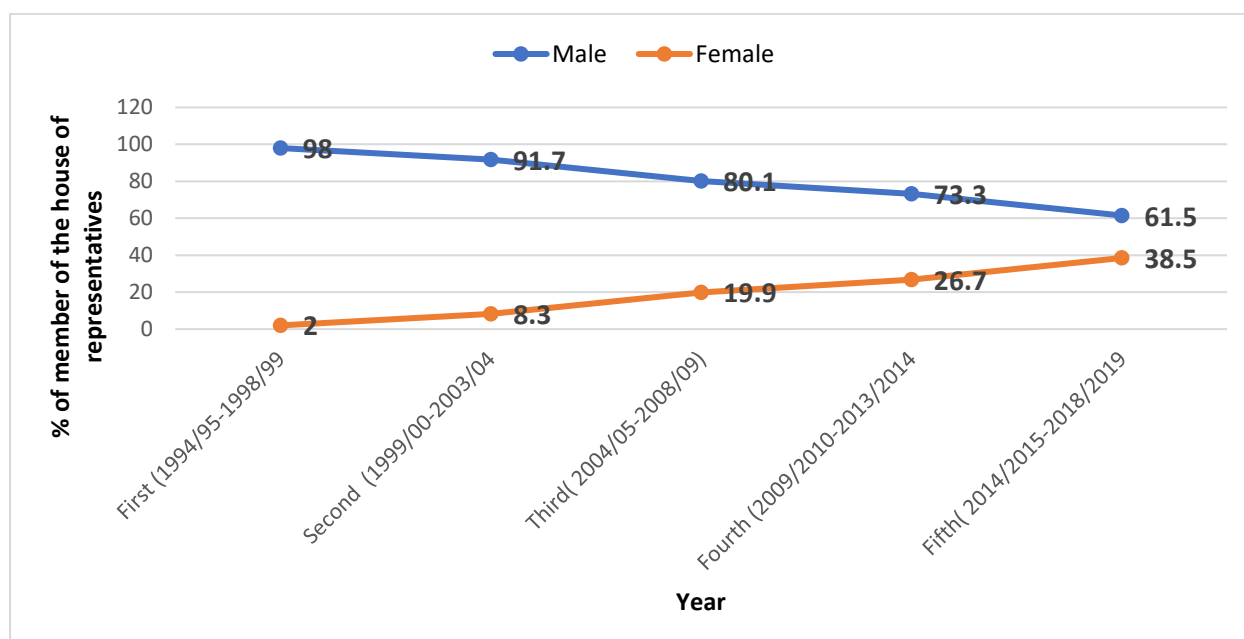
Source: Federal Police: 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

9.7. Working as a Member of the House of Representatives

Figure 9-4 shows statistics on members of the House of Representatives by sex and election term at the country level. As a result, female representation increased from 2% in the first term to 38.5 % in the fifth. Over the course of their terms, there has been a gradual decline in male representation in the House of Representatives (from 98% in first to 61.5% in fifth).

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Figure 9. 4: Percentage of members of House of Representatives by sex & election term, Country



Source: Report of House of People Representatives (HPR), 2019

Geographic patterns of House of Representatives member representation by sex and election period are shown in Table 8-6. While Oromia and Harari regions had no female representation in the first term, other areas, such as Gambela, Harari, and Addis Ababa continue to have female representation in the fifth term too. Though female members of the House of Representatives in the Amhara region show an increase (1.4 % to 39.9%) and Oromia (0 percent to 35 percent), there is still a long way to go.

Table 9.6: Percentage of members of House of Representatives by sex, region, and election term

Region/ Country	First (1994/95- 1998/99)		Second (1999/00- 2003/04)		Third (2004/05- 2008/09)		Fourth (2009/10- 2013/14)		Fifth (2014/15- 2018/19)	
	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Mal e	Femal e	Male

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Total	2	98	8.3	91.7	19.9	80.1	26.7	73.3	38.5	61.5
Trgray	5.3	94.7	10.5	89.5	36.1	63.9	31.6	68.4	36.8	63.2
Afar		-	53.3	46.7	12.5	87.5	0	100	25	75
Amhara	1.4	98.6	10.1	89.9	21	79	32.6	67.4	39.9	60.1
Oromiya	0	100	6.2	93.8	20.4	79.6	25.7	74.3	35	65
Somali		-	0	100	4.3	95.7	0	100	60.9	39.1
Benishang ul		-	-	-	0	100	22.2	77.8	44.4	55.6
SNNP		-	4.8	95.2	22.3	77.7	28.5	71.5	40.7	59.3
Gambella		-	0	100	0	100	0	100	0	100
Hareri	0	100	0	100	0	100	0	100	0	100
Addis Ababa	0	-	0	100	0	100	0	100	0	100
Dire Dawa	0	87	13	87	8.1	91.9	27.3	72.7	39.1	60.9

Source: *Report of House of People Representatives (HPR), 2019*

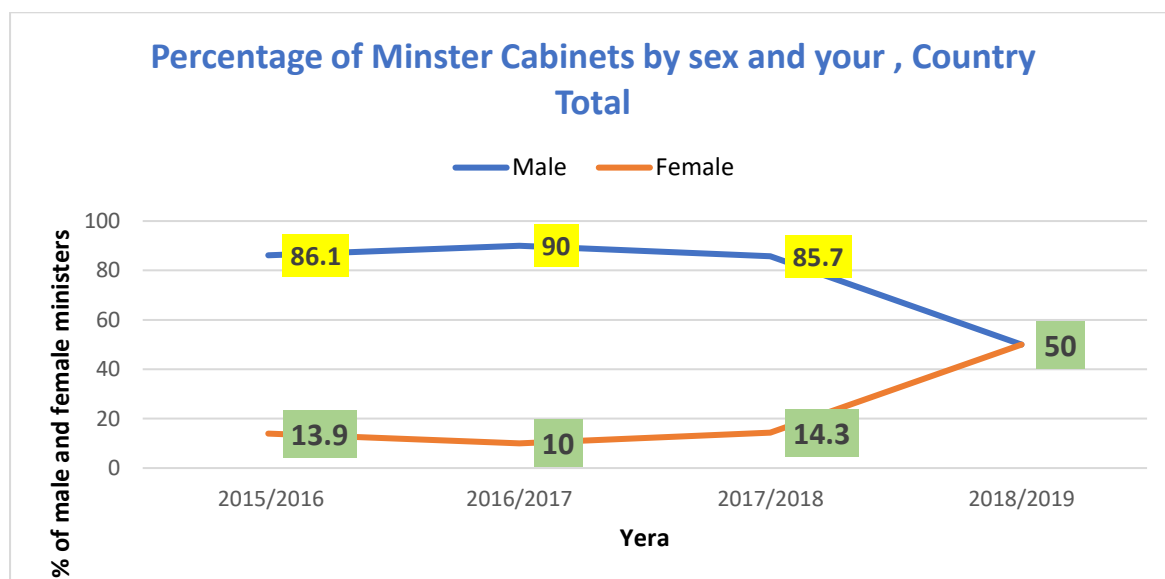
Note: Data is not available in the first term for some regions, including Addis Ababa

9.8. Working as a Minister Cabinets

Figure 8-5 depicts data on minister cabinets by gender at the country level from 2008 to 2010. As a result, female representation in ministerial cabinets grew from 13.9 percent in 2015-16 to 50 percent in 2017-18. Men's representation in ministerial cabinets has been steadily decreasing over the years (from 86.1 percent in 2015/16 to 50 percent in 2017/18).

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Figure 9. 5: Percentage of minister cabinets by sex and year, Country Total



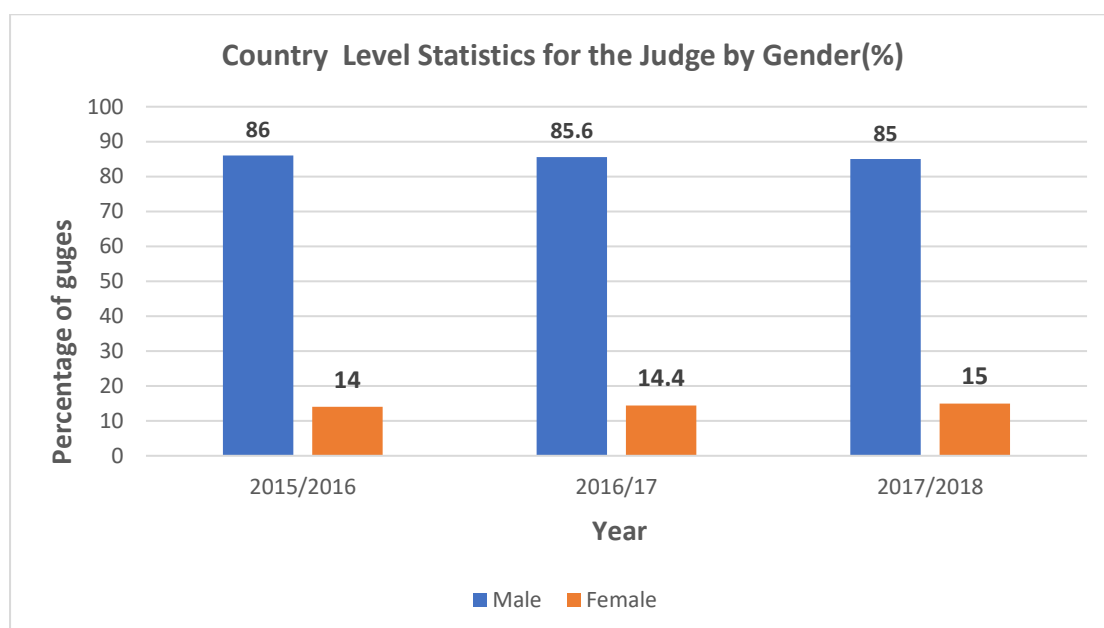
Source: Report of House of People Representatives (HPR), 2019

9.9. Working as a Judge and Attorney

Figure 9-6 depicts the sex-disaggregated data for judges at the country level for three years (2015/16 to 2017/18). The result indicates that men outnumber women in the Ethiopian judiciary system, albeit their share has decreased somewhat from 86% in 2015/16 to 85% in 2017/18. In contrast, women's representation in the judiciary slightly increased from 14% to 15% between 2015/16 and 2017/18.

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Figure 9.10: the country level statistics for the judges by gender



Source: Federal Supreme Court/Regions; 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 9-7 shows the sex-disaggregated figures for judges in the country from 2015/16 to 2017/18, broken down by area. The total number of judges in the country includes those from all regions and the Federal Supreme Court. As a result, female representation is steadily increasing in practically every region. In 2017/18, the Addis Ababa City Administration (40.4%) looked to be the leading other regions in terms of female judge participation. In 2017/18, however, female representation as a judge remained difficult/lower in regions such as Somali (4.6%) and Oromia (9.5%) when compared to men.

Table 9. 7: Number of judges by sex, region, and year

Region	2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	744	4,555	859	5,094	931	5,291
Tigray	-	-	78	331	82	377
Afar	17	142	18	146	18	146
Amhara	353	1,239	341	1,176	356	1,249
Oromia	155	1,671	153	1,870	204	1,954

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Somali	15	411	15	411	15	311
Benishangul-Gumuz	1	16	3	19	3	19
SNNP	98	784	108	790	114	878
Gambela	21	95	21	90	23	112
Harari	8	27	8	35	8	35
Addis Ababa	15	21	20	26	19	28
Dire Dawa	1	7	0	7	0	7
Federal Supreme Court	60	142	94	193	89	175

Source: Federal Supreme Court/Regions; 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

Table 9-8 below shows the number of male and female attorneys at the national and regional levels. Female participation in this activity at the national and regional, and city administration levels is significantly low.

Table 9. 8: Number of Attorney by sex, region and year

Region	2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Country Total	1,254	5,013	1,161	5,491	1,229	5,856
Tigray	109	324	92	336	107	319
Afar	12	88	16	124	13	133
Amhara	293	941	280	980	272	1,025
Oromia	327	1,588	278	1,760	263	1,963
Somali	22	399	27	482	31	360
Benishangul-Gumuz	35	110	35	105	36	114
SNNP	193	1,197	185	1,233	183	1,129
Gambela	16	64	16	64	-	-
Harari	14	34	14	34	13	39
Addis Ababa	-	-	-	-	89	240
Dire Dawa	3	8	3	8	3	7
Attorney General	230	260	215	365	219	527

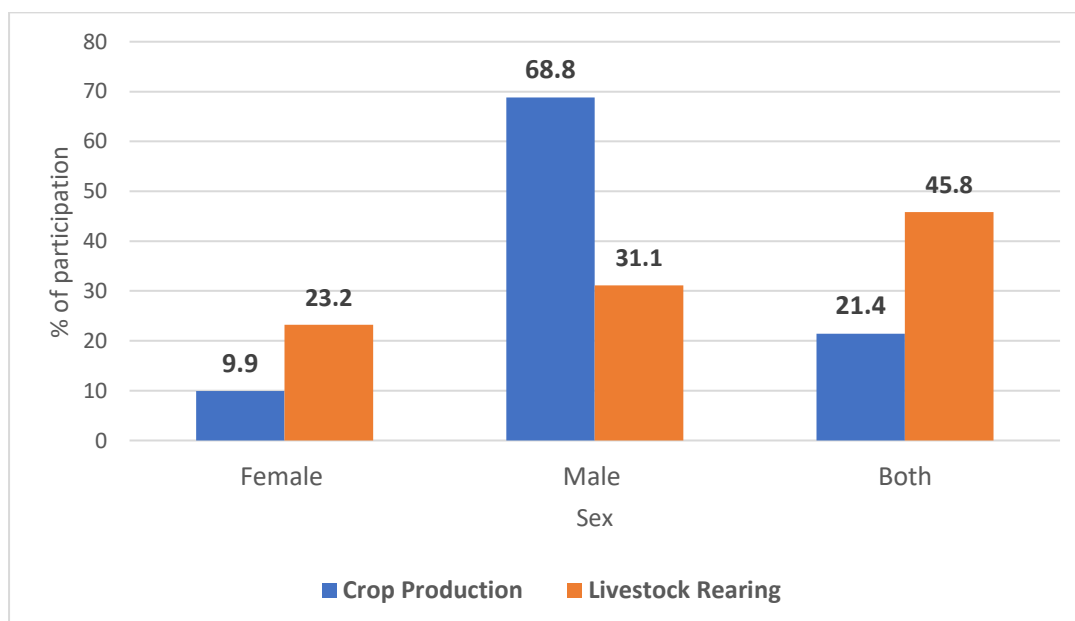
Source: Attorney General/Regions; 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18

9.10. Women Participation and Decision Making in Agricultural Activities

Figure 9-7 depicts the distribution of agricultural landowners' household members who are primarily responsible for or involved in crop production and animal husbandry. Males are primarily responsible for household crop production activity, accordingly 68.8% of agricultural landowners at the national level. While 21% of respondents said their household's agricultural production is shared by both sexes (male and female), just 9.9% said females do most of the work.

Furthermore, the survey finds that (about 46%) of households' livestock-keeping activities are shared by both sexes (female and male household members). Males are largely responsible for cattle rearing operations in their households, according to 31.1% of respondents. Female involvement in livestock husbandry is reported by 23.2% of the farm owners polled.

Figure 9.7: Percentage distribution of agricultural holders who participated in household crop production



Source, CSA, AgSS, 2015/16

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Table 9-10 shows the percentage distribution of agricultural holders who claimed that their household members were largely involved in household crop production and animal rearing in 2015/16, broken down by sex of the household member, agricultural type, and area. According to the survey results, males are primarily responsible for crop-producing activities in most regions. In most of the cases, the figures on the regional level were found consistent with the result at the national level. While for the livestock rearing female were shown a primarily responsible household than men for few regions. In Somali (34.3), Benshangul Gumuze (29), Gambela (32), and Dire Dawa (47.1) regions. Female households are primarily responsible for Livestock Rearing as compared to male households (26.6), (26.3), (27.3), and (33.3), respectively.

Table 9.10: Household Members Region

	Agriculture Activity	Male	Female	Both Sexes/Jointly
Country Total	Crop Production	68.8	9.9	21.4
	Livestock rearing	31.1	23.2	45.8
Tigray	Crop Production	54	19	27.1
	Livestock rearing	36.9	26	37.2
Afar	Crop Production	82.1	7.8	10.2
	Livestock rearing	48.9	24.2	26.9
Amhara	Crop Production	63.3	10.2	26.5
	Livestock rearing	35.6	17.5	46.9
Oromia	Crop Production	69.9	8	22.2
	Livestock rearing	31.6	23.7	44.7
Somali	Crop Production	80.7	5.6	13.8
	Livestock rearing	26.6	34.3	39
Benshangul-Gumuz	Crop Production	45.3	19.4	35.3
	Livestock rearing	26.3	29	44.7
SNNP	Crop Production	75.8	9.9	14.3
	Livestock rearing	24.9	26.7	48.4

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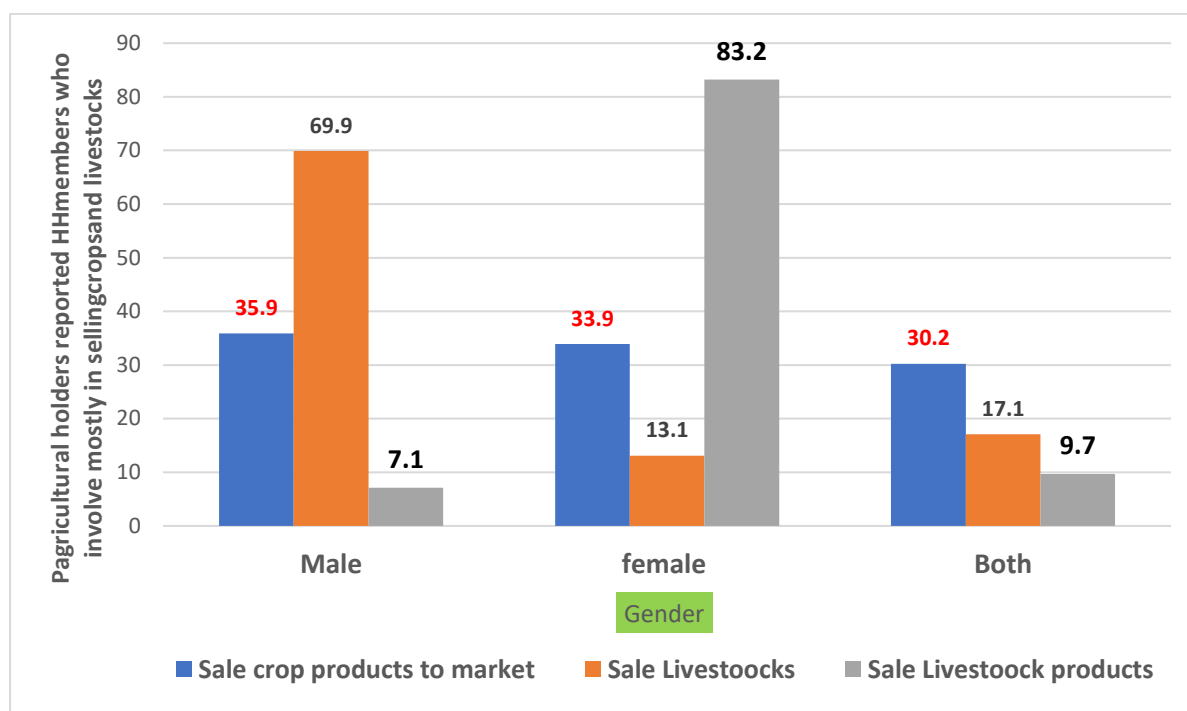
Gambela	Crop Production	70.7	15.1	14.1
	Livestock rearing	27.3	32.6	40.1
Harari	Crop Production	87.8	5.9	6.3
	Livestock rearing	42.4	18.5	39
Dire Dawa	Crop Production	88.3	6.1	5.6
	Livestock rearing	33.3	47.1	19.5

Source: CSA AgSS 2015/16

9.10.1. Sale of Agricultural Produce

At the national level during the 2015/16 production years, Figure 5-10 depicts the percentage distribution of agricultural holders who claimed that household members mostly decide on the sale of household crops and animals by sex of the household member. According to the survey results, 35.9%, 33.9%, and 30.2 % of farm owners say that selling crop produces in their home is primarily the responsibility of male, female, and both (male and female) family members, respectively. This demonstrates that the roles played by male and female household members in the market sale of crops are nearly identical. However, according to the survey's findings, male household members are mostly responsible for deciding whether to sell live animals. According to the survey, 83% of respondents believe that female household members play a major part in the choice to sell animal products.

Figure 9.11: Percentage distribution of women and males in selling and decision-making

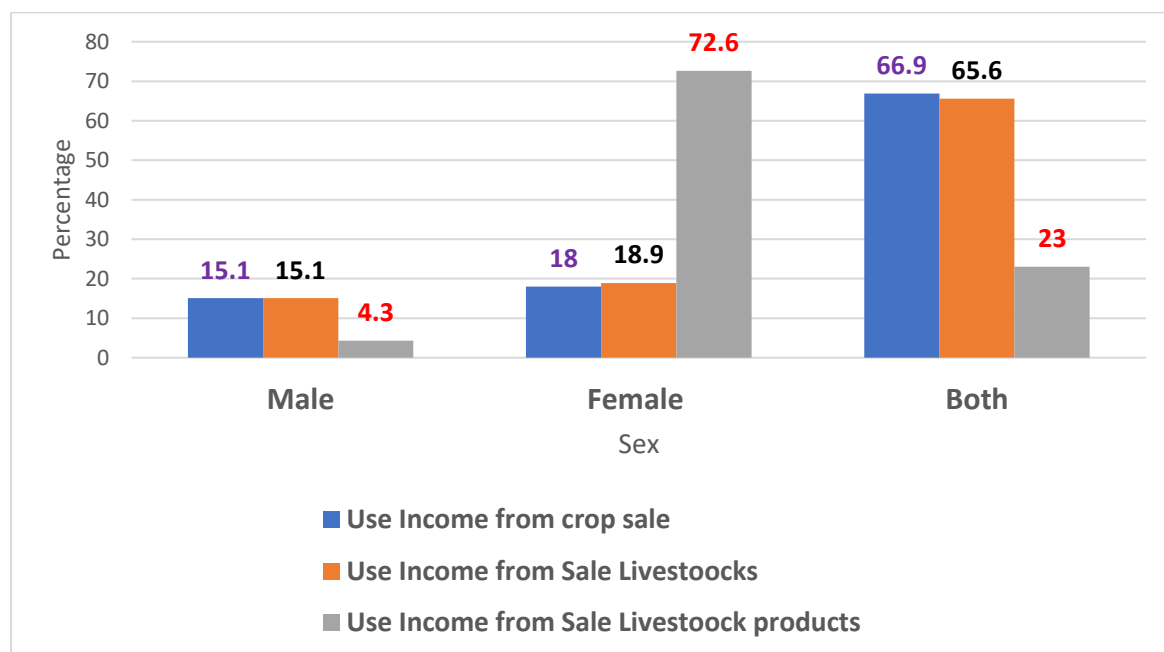


9.10.2. Decision on the use of Income from agriculture

Figure 5-11 depicts the percentage distribution of agricultural holders who claimed that the sex of the household member mostly determines income from crop, livestock, and animal products sales at the national level in 2015/16. According to the results, both sexes (male and female household members) jointly decide on the use of income from the sale of crops and animals, respectively, in their families. When it comes to decisions regarding how to spend money earned through the sale of animal products, around 73 % of respondents said that women in their homes make the majority of the decisions.

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Figure 9.12: Percentage distribution of agricultural Holders reported the household members that mostly decide income by sex of the household member at the national level, 2015/16.



Source: CSA, AgSS 2015/16

Table 9-11 below shows the regional distribution of agricultural holders who claimed that income from the sale of crops, livestock, and animal products is primarily determined by the sex of the household member for the 2015/16 survey year. Female home members are found to be more responsible than male household members for the utilization of income from the sale of animal products across all regions, according to the survey results. In contrast, across all regions, both sexes (female and male household members) have a say in how income from agricultural and animal sales is spent.

Table 9-11 below shows the regional distribution of agricultural holders Region

Decides on	Male	Female	Both Sexes/Jointly
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Country Total	Use of Income from crop sale	15.1	18.0	66.9
	Use of Income from livestock sale	15.5	18.9	65.6
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	4.3	72.6	23.0
Tigray	Use of Income from crop sale	6.8	29.6	63.6
	Use of Income from livestock sale	9.6	25.9	64.5
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	4.2	56.5	39.3
Afar	Use of Income from crop sale	31.3	19.6	49.1
	Use of Income from livestock sale	26.7	30.5	42.8
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	4.7	51.8	43.5
Amhara	Use of Income from crop sale	8.3	19.1	72.6
	Use of Income from livestock sale	9.2	18.6	72.1
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	5.0	56.9	38.1
Oromia	Use of Income from crop sale	14.1	16.8	69.1
	Use of Income from livestock sale	14.1	18.0	67.9
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	3.4	81.6	15.1
Somali	Use of Income from crop sale	22.2	14.5	63.3
	Use of Income from livestock sale	33.6	21.2	45.1
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	2.1	77.0	20.9
Benshang ule- Gumze	Use of Income from crop sale	15.0	20.9	64.1
	Use of Income from livestock sale	16.4	18.8	64.8
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	6.6	65.4	28.0
SNNP	Use of Income from crop sale	24.2	16.2	59.7
	Use of Income from livestock sale	23.9	18.7	57.4
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	5.0	79.5	15.5
Gambela	Use of Income from crop sale	28.9	20.7	50.3
	Use of Income from livestock sale	28.0	20.5	51.5
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	16.7	61.2	22.1
Harari	Use of Income from crop sale	14.9	12.3	72.8
	Use of Income from livestock sale	13.6	14.4	71.8
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	2.7	82.0	15.1
Dire Dawa	Use of Income from crop sale	10.7	18.9	70.4
	Use of Income from livestock sale	14.5	30.0	55.5
	Use of Income from sale Livestock product	3.1	77.0	19.9

Chapter Ten Recommendation

The following key recommendations are forwarded

- 1. Having sex-disaggregated data from sectoral systems (MIS), particularly those dealing with poverty and welfare, water, sanitation, electricity, and roads/transport, remains a challenge. As a result, line ministries responsible for such areas/sectors should fill their MIS database in addition to the CSA data mining's with sex-disaggregated data that can be obtained as part of the routine (administrative data) or through survey, or appropriate proxy indicators can be agreed upon to assess the needed one.*
- 2. Many gender-specific indicators or sex-disaggregated data pertaining to areas such as agricultural development, and rural transformation, reproductive health, water, and energy are missing to meet the SDGs targets and indicators. An attempt should be made to streamline the NSS to produce and use at least some of the gender indicators targeting these areas of development.*
- 3. There is a pragmatic challenge in obtaining sex-disaggregated data from sectoral data systems; we recommend MIS with robust sex-disaggregated data collection processing monitoring and evaluation system shall be integrated into sectoral and gender mainstreaming in Ethiopia.*
- 4. Efficient and Effective gender indicators should be included in the national and sectoral planning, implementation, and reporting procedures with appropriate training to be given with government offices and CSOs for collection, processing, and reporting of sex-disaggregated data*
- 5. For developing and empowerment of women in Ethiopia and specific to regions, the public-private partnership can be explored in providing more employment opportunities to the women to enhance their social status and participation in decision-making*
- 6. Gender balancing in employment should be performed through equal opportunities provided to the female, both in the public and private sectors, while comparing the interests of the national and regional domain/indicators at the same time*

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7. *Integration of by taking gender mainstreaming approach that goes beyond providing only sex-disaggregated data with official statistical system producing gender statistics based on areas/sectors and problems identified in policies, plans, and programs of national/regional development.*
8. *Training, awareness-raising, and orientation on the relevance of sex and sex disaggregation for achievements of SDG and national plans should be made.*
9. *There should be gender mainstreaming and sex-disaggregated data systems for Government sectorial offices and CSOs for gender program designing.*

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