ETHIOPIA COUNTRY ASSESSMENT

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1 SCOPE OF DOCUMENT

1.1 This assessment has been produced by the Country Information and Policy Unit, Immigration and Nationality Directorate, Home Office, from information obtained from a wide variety of recognised sources. The document does not contain any Home Office opinion or policy.

1.2 The assessment has been prepared for background purposes for those involved in the asylum / human rights determination process. The information it contains is not exhaustive. It concentrates on the issues most commonly raised in asylum / human rights claims made in the United Kingdom.

1.3 The assessment is sourced throughout. It is intended to be used by caseworkers as a signpost to the source material, which has been made available to them. The vast majority of the source material is readily available in the public domain.

1.4 It is intended to revise the assessment on a six-monthly basis while the country remains within the top 35 asylum-seeker producing countries in the United Kingdom.

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2. GEOGRAPHY

2.1 The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia has an area of 1,133,380 sq km and lies in north-eastern Africa. Ethiopia has been land-locked since the independence of its former province of Eritrea on the Red Sea coast in May 1993. It is bordered by Eritrea and Djibouti to the north, Somalia to the east, Kenya to the south and Sudan to the west. The population at the 1984 census was nearly 40 million (excluding Eritrea) with an official estimate in mid-1995 of 56,677,100.**[1][2]** The 1994 Constitution established a federal structure of nine autonomous ethnically-based `national states' and the federal capital territory.**[9]** The largest city is the federal capital Addis Ababa (population 2,112,737 in 1994). Other important towns are Dire Dawa, Harar, Mekele, Jijiga, Nazret, Gondar Bahir Dahr and Dessie. An official estimate of the population in the middle of 1999 was 61,672,000. **[1][2]**

2.2 The official language is Amharic but many other languages are spoken. English is used widely in official and business circles. There are over 70 different ethnic groups in Ethiopia, referred to officially as `nationalities'. The Oromos are the largest single group, comprising over one third of the total population. The Amharas make up almost another third. Other important population groups are the Tigrayans (or Tigrayans), Somalis and Afars.**[1][2]** The nine autonomous national states established under the 1994 Constitution, broadly reflecting regional ethnic boundaries, are those of the Afar, Amhara, Benishangul/Gumuz, Gambela, Harari, Oromo, Somali, Southern and Tigray (or Tigrai) peoples.**[9]** About 45% of the population are Muslims and 40% adherents of the Ethiopian Orthodox (Tewahido) Church. There are small Evangelical Protestant and Roman Catholic populations.**[1][2]** Most of the Jewish Beta Israel/Falasha population was evacuated to Israel between 1984 and 1991. **[3a]**

2.3 Ethiopia's climate is mainly temperate owing to its high plateau terrain. The average annual temperature is 13°C, with abundant rainfall in some years and low humidity. The lower country is very hot and subject to drought conditions. Ethiopia is one of the world's least developed countries. In 1999 over 82% of the population was engaged in agriculture, and 1997/8 figures show agriculture accounted for over 47% of GDP.**[1][2]** Coffee is the principal cash crop, although overall export earnings from coffee have reduced recently from 69% in 1998 to 41% in the 2000/2001 financial

year.**[36]** Major trading partners are Saudi Arabia, Germany, Italy, Japan and the USA. The economy, blighted by years of war, State repression, drought, famine and forced resettlement, is heavily indebted and dependent on foreign aid. Ethiopia uses its own solar calendar, some seven years behind the Western calendar. **[1][2]**

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3.THE ECONOMY

3.1 The Ethiopian economy relies heavily on the agricultural sector. Agriculture accounts for around half of Ethiopia's GDP, 90% of exports and 80% of total employment. Coffee was the 'cash-crop' of choice for Ethiopia but her reliance on this has lead to problems as the world price plummeted in 2001. However most of the Ethiopian agricultural community exist solely on a subsistence level and seem resistant to government efforts to expand or modernise their operations. The economy is held back by two geographical problems. Firstly since Eritrea's independence, Ethiopia no longer has access to a seaport. Secondly long trading relations with bordering countries have been hard to come by, and indeed maintain. Road links within the country and across the border are poor, and negotiations over conditions of access to the ports of Assab and Djibouti are difficult. As many as 4.6 million Ethiopians need food assistance annually. **[22]**

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4. HISTORY

EARLY ETHIOPIA TO THE END OF THE MONARCHY

4.1 Ethiopia can trace its history back to around 100BC with the kingdom of Axum. It has existed as a political entity since the 1st century BC. In the 1930s Emperor Haile Selassie wrested power from the old nobility and established a modern autocracy, he continued to rule until 1974, apart from a period of Italian occupation from 1936 to 1941. He in turn was wrested from power in a military coup led by radical elements in the armed forces in September 1974, against a background of growing demands for democratisation, army mutinies, the revolt in Eritrea, serious economic difficulties and famine. Haile Selassie was detained by the military and died in their custody in August 1975. **[1][2]**

THE DERGUE AND THE `RED TERROR'

4.2 The 1974 revolution, organised by an Armed Forces Co-ordinating Committee known popularly as the Dergue or Derg (Shadow), established a Provisional Military Government (PMG). This was replaced a few months later by the Provisional Military Administrative Council (PMAC). Ethiopia was declared a socialist state and a programme of rural development introduced. The early years of the regime were fraught with internal disagreements between Marxist-Leninist factions in support of military and civilian rule and in 1977 Lt-Col Mengistu Haile Mariam executed his predecessor and replaced him as Chairman of PMAC and Head of State. He then

began a campaign against political and armed opponents during which tens of thousands of Ethiopians, particularly in urban areas were killed or tortured. This became known as the "Red Terror" campaign. **[1][2]**

4.3 In 1979 all political groups were theoretically abolished and a Commission for Organising the Party of the Working People of Ethiopia (COPWE) was established. This led in 1984 to the formation of the Worker's Party of Ethiopia (WPE) modelled on the Communist Party of the Soviet Union with Lt-Col Mengistu as Secretary General. This party did not attract the support of the population who saw it as a vehicle for the regime to maintain control. In 1986 preparations for the transfer of power to a civilian government commenced, a referendum in February 1987 endorsed a new Constitution and national elections were held in June 1987 for a new legislature, the National Shengo (Assembly) with over 800 seats. The National Shengo abolished the PMAC, renamed the country the People's Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (PDRE) and unanimously elected Mengistu President of the PDRE, as well as head of the armed forces. It also announced the creation of five 'autonomous regions' based on ethnicity including Eritrea and Tigray. **[1][2]**

ETHNIC RESISTANCE 1974 TO 1991 AND THE OVERTHROW OF MENGISTU

4.4 Armed resistance groups took advantage of the confusion following the 1974 revolution. In Eritrea the Ethiopian government forces waged a continuing war against the forces of the Eritrean Liberation Front (ELF) and Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF). Continuing divisions within the Eritrean resistance movement were to lead to a civil war in Eritrea in 1981. The EPLF, in alliance with the Tigray People's Liberation Front (TPLF) from the adjoining Tigray province, forced the ELF into exile in Sudan in 1982. In mid 1986 government forces abandoned the north-east coast to the rebels. **[1][2]**

4.5 Resistance against the central Government also increased in the Somali-populated Ogaden district. Somalia supported some of this resistance and in July 1977 invaded the Ogaden region. With military support from Cuba and the Soviet Union, Ethiopia counter-attacked in February 1978, forcing the Somali army's withdrawal in March 1978. Despite this defeat Somalia continued to support resistance groups which operated in the south-eastern Bale and Sidamo regions, into the mid-1980s. Ethiopia backed opposition groups inside Somalia opposed to Siad Barre's regime. Relations between Ethiopia and Somalia improved in 1986 and in 1988 diplomatic relations were resumed. **[1][2]**

4.6 The Oromo Liberation Front (OLF) became active in the 1980s, advocating self-determination for the Oromo people and the promotion of their culture and language. Although Oromo peasant farmers, who had benefited from land reforms in 1975, initially supported Mengistu's Government, peasant opposition to farming co-operatives increased support for the OLF. The Government responded with widespread arrests of Oromos in Addis Ababa and elsewhere. The OLF was militarily weak, able to operate only along the Sudanese border and in an area southwest of Harar. **[1]**

4.7 In Tigray province the Tigray People's Liberation Front (TPLF), established in 1975,

posed a more serious threat to the Mengistu Government. The Eritrean EPLF provided arms and training to the TPLF, and in 1977-78 it was able to defeat opponents in the EPRP, which had been operating in the Tigray region since 1975. Support for the TPLF grew during the period of Mengistu's "Red Terror" and with its calls for self-determination for the Tigrayan people. The TPLF set up the Marxist-Leninist League of Tigray in the mid-1980s. The TPLF received support, like the Eritrean and Oromo groups, from Sudan. However, conflicts with other anti-Government groups, including its former backers the EPLF, weakened the TPLF and Government forces achieved considerable success against the TPLF in campaigns in 1985 and 1986. After 1988 when co-operation with the EPLF resumed the TPLF rapidly took over the whole of Tigray region. **[1][2]**

4.8 Failure to resolve the political crisis of Ethiopia's nationalities was matched by economic disaster. Recurrent food crises prompted criticisms of the Mengistu Government agricultural policies and the 'village-ization ' programme. Following an attempted coup in 1989 Ethiopian socialism was abandoned in 1990, leading to free market policies replacing economic planning and opposition parties being invited to join a unity party. Military setbacks for the Government from 1988 onwards led to the loss of most of Tigray province to the TPLF in 1989 and most of Eritrea to the EPLF. A State of Emergency was declared in Eritrea and Tigray in May 1988. Government forces made some gains in Tigray but major defeats in early 1989 forced the Government to virtually abandon the region. **[1][2]**

4.9 The TPLF, in control of Tigray in 1989, established a united front in September 1989, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF), with the Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement (EPDM). The EPRDF advanced south creating other organisations including the Oromo Peoples Democratic Organisation (OPDO) when the OLF refused to join. The TPLF remained the major element in the front but instead of simple self-determination became committed to the removal of Mengistu and the establishment of a democratic government for Ethiopia **[1][2]**

4.10 Mengistu was forced to make concessions as his Government's military position worsened, particularly after the loss of the vital Eritrean port of Massawa to the EPLF in February 1990, which cut supply lines to Addis Ababa. Socialism was effectively abandoned in March 1990 and the WPE was renamed the Ethiopian Democratic Unity Party (EDUP), with membership open to non-Marxists. Following the fall of communism in Eastern Europe Mengistu's Government lost access to cheap fuel and its arms supply. During a brief period Israel became an ally providing cluster bombs and military training and in 1991 took control of the airport to evacuate 14,000 Falasha Jews remaining in Ethiopia. **[1][2]**

4.11 In January 1991 the EPRDF announced a moderate political programme which made no reference to Marxism and was acceptable to the United States. As opposition forces closed in on Addis Ababa Mengistu's armies ended their resistance.**[1][2]** Mengistu fled Ethiopia on 21 May 1991, seeking asylum in Zimbabwe, where he remains to the present day, having been granted permanent residence in March 2001.**[4f]** Vice-President Lieutenant-General Tesfaye Gebre Kidan assumed control of the Government. **[1][2]**

THE TRANSITION, ERITREA AND FEDERALISM

4.12 Following Mengistu's departure, talks began in London under United States' auspices to ensure an orderly transfer of power. With the failure of these talks, EPRDF forces entered Addis Ababa on 28 May 1991 with the public support of the United States, encountering little resistance. An interim Government was established by the EPRDF and at the same time the EPLF set up a provisional administration in Eritrea, pending the holding of a referendum on Eritrean independence. Eritrea thereby effectively seceded from Ethiopia in 1991, independence being approved in a referendum by the Eritrean people in April 1993 and formally proclaimed, with recognition by Ethiopia, on 24 May 1993. Agreements between the two countries were reached on defence, security, trade, economic matters and the joint use of the Eritrean port of Assab, vital to Ethiopia's economy. Relations between Ethiopia and independent Eritrea remained generally cordial until a long-running border dispute led to the outbreak of hostilities in May 1998. **[1][2]**

4.13 The EPRDF convened a national conference in July 1991, attended by some 20 political and ethnically-based groups, to discuss Ethiopia's future political structure and set up the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE). A national charter prepared by the EPRDF was adopted with some amendments and provided for self-determination for Ethiopia's nationalities and guaranteed freedom of association and expression. The conference elected an 87-member Council of Representatives to govern the country for a transitional two year period, following which free elections would be held. The Council of Representatives elected the EPRDF's Chairman and TPLF leader, Meles Zenawi, as Chairman of the Council and thereby President of Ethiopia. Tamirat Layne, Vice-Chairman of the EPRDF and Chairman of the EPDM (which became the ANDM in January 1994), was elected Prime Minister. 32 political groups were subsequently represented on the Council of Representatives, with EPRDF-allied groups holding 32 of the 87 seats. The OLF had 12 of the 27 seats allocated for Oromos. Seven different groups were represented on the Council of Ministers, including the OLF which held four Ministerial positions. **[1][2]**

4.14 Despite the participation of various political and ethnic groups in the TGE, violent clashes continued in many parts of Ethiopia in 1991, prompted partly by the dominance of the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) and its allies in the new administration. Government forces clashed with the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Party (EPRP) in the Gojam and Gondar regions and in August and September 1991 EPRDF and OLF supporters clashed, although both parties were co-operating at government level at that time. Government troops, mainly Tigrayans, also encountered opposition from Afar, Issa and Gurgureh forces. **[1][2]**

THE ELECTIONS OF 1992 AND 1994

4.15 The regional elections in June 1992 were boycotted by the OLF and other groups who alleged EPRDF intimidation of opposition groups, although the OLF itself reportedly harassed civilians and election officials. International observers, including representatives of the European Union, the United States and the Organisation of African Unity, concluded that some of the claims of electoral malpractice made against the EPRDF were, at least in part, justified. The EPRDF and its allies won over 90% of

the votes cast. Shortly afterwards the OLF withdrew from the TGE and warned of the risk of a renewed civil war. On 10 July 1992 political groups, which were signatories to the July 1991 national charter, demanded that the regional election results be annulled. While in the same month the TGE set up a board to look into alleged electoral errors, regional councils were in place in all areas, except the Afar and Somali regions (where elections had been postponed), by late August 1992. Complaints of harassment by the EPRDF and its allied party the Oromo People's Democratic Organisation (OPDO) were also made by ethnic Somalis in respect of the regional elections held in the south-east in October 1992. **[1][2]**

4.16 The Ethiopian Human Rights Council reported in mid-1992 that it had documented over 2,000 cases of people being detained without charge and 13 extra-judicial killings, mainly political opponents of the EPRDF. **[2]**

4.17 OLF forces captured Asbe Teferi, 150 km from Addis Ababa, in late June 1992 but stronger Government forces were able to secure the capital. Talks in October 1992 between the Government and the OLF, organised by Eritrea's EPLF, proved unsuccessful and the OLF maintained its insistence on the annulment of the June 1992 election results. The EPRDF encouraged the OLF to rejoin the transitional government but hostilities continued between the Government and the OLF in various areas and by mid-December 1992 the Government held some 20,000 prisoners of war. **[2]**

4.18 In January 1993 Government security forces ruthlessly suppressed a student demonstration in Addis Ababa, in protest against UN involvement in Eritrean independence discussions. One student died and over 30 were injured. A Government commission of enquiry set up to investigate the matter, which reported in January 1994, blamed the demonstration's organisers for causing chaos and disorder. **[2]**

4.19 Differences within the EPRDF emerged in July 1993 when the party's Executive Committee denounced an undisclosed number of party members, apparently in response to criticism by middle-ranking TPLF members of the Government's ethnic regionalisation policy and the lack of economic reform. **[2]**

4.20 Elections were held in June 1994 to a new national assembly, the Constituent Assembly. The EPRDF won 484 of the assembly's 547 seats. The elections were boycotted by the OLF, the All-Amhara People's Organisation (AAPO) and the recently-formed Coalition of Alternative Forces for Peace and Democracy in Ethiopia (CAFPDE), who alleged that Meles' EPRDF-led Government had intimidated their supporters and refused to allow opposition parties to open offices, allegations denied by the Government. **[2]**

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1995 CPR & NATIONAL STATE ELECTIONS, DERGUE TRIALS

4.21 Elections of deputies to the Council of People's Representatives (CPR) and the national state assemblies were held simultaneously on 7 May 1995 but were boycotted by most opposition parties. The EPRDF and its allies won a landslide victory of 483 of the 537 confirmed seats on the CPR. In Tigray the TPLF won all the seats in the state

assembly and all the state's seats on the CPR. EPRDF-allied parties met with similar success in the Amhara and Oromo states. The EPRDF won all 92 local assembly seats in Addis Ababa. The Ethiopian National Democratic Movement (ENDM) was the largest opposition party that participated in the election but it failed to win any of the 80 seats it contested. Elections in the Afar and Somali regions, where opposition to the EPRDF was strong, were postponed to June 1995, when pro-EPRDF parties secured narrow victories.**[2]** International observers concluded that the elections were largely free and fair but were worried about the lack of participation by opposition parties in the political process. **[3a]**

4.22 Legislative power was transferred from the transitional Council of Representatives to the new Federal Parliamentary Assembly (FPA) on 21 August 1995. The TGE was wound up on 22 August 1995 when the new Constitution took effect **[2]** and the country was officially renamed the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE).**[9]** On the same day Dr Negasso Gidada, Minister of Information in the TGE and a member of the EPRDF-allied OPDO, was elected President of Ethiopia at a joint session of the FPA. On 23 August 1995 ex-President Meles Zenawi was elected Prime Minister by the CPR and on 24 August Meles appointed a 17-member Council of Ministers, which was approved by the FPA. **[2]**

4.23 In December 1994 the trial of 69 officials of the former Mengistu Government, including Mengistu who is living in exile in Zimbabwe, commenced in Addis Ababa. The Special Prosecutor's Office (SPO) was established in 1992 to create an historical record of human rights abuses during the Mengistu administration and to bring to justice those found to be criminally responsible. 23 of the defendants were being tried in absentia and five had died while awaiting trial. The defendants were charged with crimes against humanity and genocide between 1974 and 1991. **[1]** The trial of a total of 5,198 people charged with genocide and war crimes committed under the Mengistu administration began at the Federal High Court in Addis Ababa in 1997. **[3a]**

4.24 Prime Minister Meles' Government came under increased criticism in late 1995 and early 1996 over its treatment of political opponents, particularly those in the press, intellectuals and civil rights workers. The Secretary-General of the Ethiopian Teachers' Association (ETA), Dr Taye Woldesemayat, was arrested in mid-1996 on his return from a visit abroad along with several associates, accused of organising the Amhara-based Ethiopian National Patriotic Front (ENPF). The Government held this organisation responsible for terrorist acts, including the attempted assassination of an employee of the US Agency for International Development (USAID) in 1994 and a grenade attack on USAID's offices in Addis Ababa in 1995.**[1]** In July 1999 Dr Taye was sentenced to 15 years in prison but was released in My 2002 . **[1][2][7b]**

4.25 In 1996 Ethiopia made armed incursions into Somalia to attack bases of al-Ittihad al-Islamia (the Islamic Unity Party), a group seeking independence for the Somali-populated Ogaden district, which claimed responsibility for terrorist attacks on three hotels in Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa in early 1996 and the attempted assassination of the Chairman of the Ethiopian Somali Democratic League and Minister of Transport and Communications in the Federal Government. Further armed incursions into Somalia against al-Ittihad bases were made by Ethiopian forces in following years and in 1999 these operations intensified when Eritrea attempted to distract Ethiopia from the border

conflict by supplying Somali factions opposed to Ethiopia. **[1][2]**

4.26 The Government launched a drive against corruption in September 1995, which it claimed was endemic in Ethiopia. In October 1995 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defence Tamirat Layne was accused of `indiscipline' and removed from office. He was later implicated in corrupt activities. He was also dismissed as Secretary-General of the Amhara National Democratic Movement (ANDM) and was finally sentenced to 18 years imprisonment in February 2000. Tefera Walwa replaced him as Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defence. **[1][2]**

4.27 In response to an increase in armed attacks by the Afar Revolutionary Democratic Unity Front (ARDUF) the Government set up a 25,000 strong Afar military force, under the Afar People's Democratic Organisation (APDO), in late 1996. Government efforts in November 1996 to negotiate an end to ARDUF's military activities failed, although following a withdrawal of Government forces from sensitive areas in the Afar region and concessions on political prisoners in January 1997 discussions between the two sides resumed. **[2]**

BORDER CONFLICT WITH ERITREA 1998-2001

4.28 A simmering border dispute between Ethiopia and Eritrea, and a deterioration in relations since Eritrea adopted its own currency to replace the Ethiopian birr in 1997 which resulted in disruption of cross-border trade, led to an outbreak of hostilities on 6 May 1998. **[1][2]**

4.29 Both states accused the other of invading disputed border territory. The dispute was centred on an area of land in the Badme area, although Eritrean forces made incursions into other areas along the border. Ethiopia and Eritrea launched air raids against each other's territory on 5 June 1998. Eritrean aircraft bombed the northern Ethiopian town of Mekele, killing 44 people. Ethiopian aircraft attacked Asmara airport, killing and injuring several people. **[1][2]**

4.30 Large numbers of Ethiopians and Eritreans were expelled from each other's countries in the wake of the border dispute. Each side accused the other of illegal deportations, involving several thousand people, and mistreatment of those remaining. **[1][2]**

4.31 An Amnesty International report issued in January 1999 stated that 52,000 Eritreans had been expelled from Ethiopia since June 1998. Amnesty believed that Ethiopia was operating a systematic policy to arrest and expel anyone of full or part Eritrean descent. Amnesty reported that at least 22,000 Ethiopians had left Eritrea but found no evidence to support Ethiopian claims that 40,000 Ethiopians had been mistreated and forcibly expelled from Eritrea. The Ethiopian Government stopped deporting Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin after it signed a cessation of hostilities agreement with Eritrea in 2000. **[6c]**

4.32 On 27 June 2001, the Government repatriated 723 Eritreans without notifying the ICRC in advance according to established procedures. The ICRC monitored the deportation or repatriation of 2,892 Eritreans or Ethiopians of Eritrean origin during

the year. It is estimated that approximately 80,000 to 100,000 Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin remain in Ethiopia. **[6c]**

4.33 After a lull in fighting since June 1998, heavy fighting broke out along the disputed border on 6 February 1999, resulting in hundreds of casualties. Each side accused the other of breaking an aerial cease-fire, which had been in place since June 1998**.** There were numerous clashes between Ethiopian and Eritrean forces throughout late 1999 and early 2000. **[1]**

4.34 Ethiopia continued to insist on Eritrea's withdrawal from all Ethiopian territory, Eritrea repeatedly rejected this demand, inhibiting progress**.** In April 2000 delegations from Ethiopia and Eritrea agreed to attend OAU sponsored talks in Algiers, although the delegations would not agree to meet face to face, and the talks collapsed after 6 days. **[1]**

4.35 In mid May 2000 hostilities resumed with Ethiopia launching a major offensive. It was estimated that eight million Ethiopians were in need of emergency assistance. Fighting continued although both sides agreed to attend peace talks in Algiers under the auspices of the OAU**. [1]**

4.36 Peace talks commenced on 29 May 2000 although fighting continued until a revised agreement was eventually signed on 18 June 2000. The agreement allowed for a return to the pre-May 1998 border positions, a 25km security zone inside the Eritrean border and the deployment of a UN peace-keeping force. **[1][4d]**

4.37 In mid September 2000 the UN Security Council approved the deployment of a 4,200 strong peacekeeping force, United Nations Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea (UNMEE), on the Eritrean side of the border. UNMEE was given an initial mandate of 6 months and charged with monitoring and ensuring that Eritrea and Ethiopia comply with their agreement on the cessation of hostilities, including the redeployment of respective forces to agreed positions. **[1]**

4.38 On 12 December 2000 in Algiers Ethiopia and Eritrea signed a comprehensive peace agreement ending the border conflict. **[2]** The agreement provides for a permanent end to hostilities, the release and repatriation of POWs and civilian detainees, and an investigation into the origins of the conflict. It establishes two neutral commissions. One to delimit and demarcate the boundary and the second to resolve compensation claims. **[4c]** On 18 April 2001 the UN declared that a 25km buffer zone, separating the forces of the 2 countries, had been established. **[4g]**

NATIONAL ELECTIONS MAY 2000

4.39 National elections were held in May 2000 for the House of Peoples Representatives (HPR). **[3b]** Prior to the elections opposition parties claimed that candidates had been refused registration and endorsement, supporters had been harassed and intimidated, local administrators had been partial and state media had failed to provide agreed services. There were also reports of violence associated with polling and demonstrations prior to polling. **[4b][5b]**

4.40 At the end of 1999 the National Election Board (NEB) had begun investigating abuses related to candidate registration. Reports from throughout the country indicated NEB instructions on registration had been ignored and offices where registration should have taken place were closed hindering the registration of opposition candidates. Citizens who tried to register to vote were told by government personnel that they had to prove citizenship, under the law only citizens can vote and it was reported that Ethiopians of Eritrean origin were not allowed to register or vote. **[3b]**

4.41 There were reports that local authorities in Oromiya, Amhara, and Southern Regions would on occasion arrest and detain supporters of opposition parties prior to, and following the May elections. Most were released without being charged and although some were released on bail without charges being dropped, trials are not expected to be held. **[3b]**

4.42 According to observers from the Ethiopian Human Rights Council (EHRCO), local UN staff, diplomatic missions, political parties, and domestic NGO's, the elections were generally free and fair in most areas.**[8a]** Serious election irregularities were reported in the SNNPRS region, particularly Hadiya zone where there were incidents of election officials instructing voters who to vote for, candidates campaigning at polling stations and candidates being pressured into quitting. As a result of these allegations the NEB investigated and ordered new elections in 16 constituencies of SNNPRS.**[3b]** The new elections were held in June and were declared generally free and fair by international observers. **[1][3b]**

4.43 The elections were contested by 17 opposition parties and as expected the incumbent EPRDF won an overwhelming victory gaining 481 seats in the HPR, EPRDF affiliate candidates won a further 37 seats, opposition party candidates 16 and independent candidates 13. **[1][3b][18].**

4.44 The EPRDF domination was only challenged to any extent in the SNNPRS region where opposition candidates won a significant number of seats. A notable result was the Minister of Defence losing his seat to an AAPO candidate**. [1][3b][18].**

EVENTS OF 2001 AND 2002

4.45 Against the background of political dissent and stalemated war, university students in April 2001 protested against what they saw as the Government's interference with academic freedom. The students' main demands were permission to republish a banned student magazine, dismissal of two university administrators closely affiliated with the government, and removal of security troops stationed inside the university campus. While the government initially conceded the first two demands, it did not commit to a schedule for removing the security forces. When students continued to press their demands, the Minister of Education issued an ultimatum threatening students who did not return to classes with arrest. The security forces' efforts to enforce the ultimatum set off clashes on April 17 and 18 that quickly got out of hand as non-students joined in the protests, leading to rioting and looting. In suppressing the protest, the police used excessive force, including live ammunition, and conducted massive arrests. At the end of the two days, over forty

civilians, primarily students, had been killed and another four hundred injured. Other campuses also witnessed anti-government protests. **[8b]**

4.46 The Government immediately detained almost 2,000 students; although most were quickly released, several hundred were shipped to prisons two hundred kilometres or more from the capital. Aside from those arrested, over one hundred students fled to Kenya and another seventy or so to Djibouti. **[8b]**

4.47 At least 31 people were killed and 253 others injured in the upheaval that followed the clashes between the police and Addis Ababa University students. **[38b]** Eighty members of the Ethiopian Democratic Party (EDP) and more than 30 members of the All Amhara People's Organisation (AAPO) were believed to have been held incommunicado following the riots in the capital, on 17 and 18 April. **[14g]**. All but one are now free. Trials of those accused of incitement to riot started on 9 October 2001 and many still continue. **[14q]** In August 2001, the AAU Senate announced that it would readmit all expelled students who had abandoned classes in the wake of the April 20001 disturbances. **[21c]** Among those arrested were Mesfin Woldemariam, founder of the Ethiopian Human Rights Organisation and a professor at AAU. Professor Mesfin and his colleague Berhanu Nega are now out on bail. **[20a]**

4.48 In late May 2001 it was reported that some twenty heads of government institutions and businessmen had been arrested on suspicion of involvement in corruption. Those arrested included Siye Abraha leader of the TPLF dissident group involved in the split with the Prime Minister's ruling group. Others arrested included his three brothers and high-ranking officials of the Ethiopian Privatisation Agency. **[14h]** It has been reported however that most of the ousted members of the TPLF have been allowed to remain at liberty although they have not been permitted to return to Tigray, and at least one them has had articles attacking the party published in the independent press. **[34]** In July 2001 the Federal High Court ruled to block personal and business accounts of some of the government officials and private businessmen accused of corruption. **[14m]** On 30 August 2001 the Federal Supreme Court ordered that all businessmen and government officials who had been detained be moved to the central prison in Addis Ababa pending the establishment of formal charges within 15 days. **[14o]**

4.49 On 22 June 2001 Dr Negaso Gidada, President since 1995, walked out of a meeting of the ruling coalition EPRDF. He was then dismissed from the OPDO central committee, one of the constituent parties of the ruling coalition, following accusations that he was helping dissidents in the TPLF. **[14i]** He later announced that he would continue serving as head of state despite a campaign to discredit him. **[14j]** Another prominent member of the OPDO Almaz Meko speaker of the House of Federation, the upper chamber of parliament, announced in August 2001 that she was applying for asylum in the United States. She had stopped in the United States on transit on her way back to Ethiopia after attending a convention of women MP's in the Caribbean. She explained that she felt the Oromo people were not being democratically represented by the OPDO and as a result said she would join the OLF to continue her struggle for the cause of the Oromo. **[4l][38c]**

4.50 In September 2001 Dr Negaso announced he had withdrawn from the OPDO as of

31 August 2001. **[14j]** In October 2001 following the completion of his 6-year term as president Dr Negaso was succeeded by Lieutenant Girma Wolde Giorgis a 76-year-old independent member of parliament and businessman from the majority Oromo ethnic group. **[4m]**

4.51 As Ethiopia entered into 2002 the two most important subjects in Ethiopia were the border dispute and the Prime Minister's anti-corruption drive. This follows the amending of the Anti-Corruption law in June 2001. The amendment prohibits bail to anyone accused of corruption by the police. This amendment was immediately and retro-actively applied to former colleagues of the Prime Minister who had been purged from the EPRDF's constituent parties. **[14s]** The most prominent of these being former defence minister Siye who was arrested with seven others in mid-June of 2001, although several other high profile politicians were also arrested, including Abate Kisho, former President of the SNNPRS and Kuma Demeksa, former President of the Oromiya Regional State, as well as a number of influential business men. **[8b]**

4.52 Siye was bailed but arrested again outside the courthouse, then when time was running out for the trial he was charged with corruption and thus bail was denied. Human Rights Watch (HRW) says that Abate was arrested in July for allegedly steering contracts to a defendant in the Siye case. He claimed that the acts for which the police arrested him, pre-date the laws that he is alleged to have violated. He was kept for 4 months without charge. In late October Abate was charged with having used his office to make illegal purchases. **[8b]**

4.53 Prime Minister Meles Zenawi stated at the end of January 2002 that there would be no hiding place for "sleaze and dishonesty" as he continued his crackdown on corruption in the country. The Federal Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commission brought charges totalling of 1.2 billion birr (around $150 million US) against businessmen in 2001. **[14s]** HRW says that several of those arrested had no obvious political ties. **[8b]**

4.54 On 13 April 2002 the long awaited border decision was announced by the International Tribunal at the Hague. The determination gave something to both sides and was welcomed publicly by the two governments. Each government welcomed the ruling and declared victory. There were reports of celebration in both capitals. Eritrean President Isayas Afewerki said that he was "completely satisfied" with the ruling. For his part, Ethiopia's Prime Minister Meles Zenawi has said that "the ruling vindicates Ethiopia's land claims". Some confusion remains however over which side of the border lies Badme town, the flashpoint for the conflict. **[4n]** Internationally the outcome and reaction from the two governments has been lauded, a significant endorsement coming from the Arab League on 18 April 2002. The boundary was decided by a five-member panel of judges, treaty experts and international jurists. **[37b]**

4.55 The Ethiopian Federal High Court released human rights activist and former President of the Ethiopian Teachers Association Dr Taye Wolde-Semayat in May 2002. A court in Addis Ababa sentenced Dr Taye to 15 years imprisonment in 1999 for what the court said was involvement in a clandestine political party to topple the Government. Security forces arrested Dr Taye in 1996 at Bole International Airport, on his arrival from Europe with the President of the International Teachers Union. Many had campaigned for his freedom in the international community as well as within Ethiopia. **[7b]**

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5. STATE STRUCTURES

THE CONSTITUTION

5.1 The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia was adopted by the transitional Government on 8 December 1994. The following is a summary of the main provisions of the Constitution, which came into force on 22 August 1995. **[1]**

5.2 The Constitution establishes a federal and democratic state structure and all sovereign power resides in the nations, nationalities and peoples of Ethiopia. The Constitution is the supreme law of the land. Human rights and freedoms, emanating from the nature of mankind, are inviolable and inalienable. State and religion are separate and there shall be no state religion. The state shall not interfere in religious matter and vice-versa. All Ethiopian languages shall enjoy equal state recognition; Amharic shall be the working language of the Federal Government. **[1][9]**

5.3 Every Ethiopian national, without discrimination based on colour, race, nation, nationality, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, or other status, has the following rights: on the attainment of 18 years of age, to vote in accordance with the law; to be elected to any office at any level of government; to freely express oneself without interference; to hold opinions without interference to engage in economic activity and to pursue a livelihood anywhere within the national territory ; to choose his or her means of livelihood, occupation and profession; and to own private property. **[1]**

5.4 Every nation, nationality and people has the following rights: an unconditional right to self-determination, including the right to secession; the right to speak, to write and to develop its own language; the right to express, to develop and to promote its culture, and to preserve its history; the right to a full measure of self-government which includes the right to establish institutions of government in the territory that it inhabits. Women shall, in the enjoyment of rights and protections provided for by this Constitution, have equal right with men. **[1]**

5.5 The 1994 Constitution also requires the Government to establish a human rights commission and office of the ombudsman. **[9]** In July 2000 parliament completed legislative action to create both of these, and although progress has been slow, both are said to be on course to become operational in July 2002. **[3a][33b]**

CITIZENSHIP & NATIONALITY

5.6 According to Article 6 of the Constitution any person shall be an Ethiopian national where both or either parent is Ethiopian and foreign nationals may acquire Ethiopian nationality. It also affirms that the law shall determine particulars relating to nationality. **[9]**

POLITICAL SYSTEM

POLITICAL OVERVIEW

5.7 Ethiopia is a Federal Republic with 9 ethnically based states and 2 self-governing City administrations as its administrative divisions. In December 1994, Ethiopia ratified its Constitution, which was made effective from 22 August 1995. Nationally the Government is split into Executive and Legislative Branches. **[22]**

THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH

5.8 The Chief of State is President Girma Wolde Giorgis who replaced Negasso Gidada at the end of the latter's term of office in September 2001. The Head of the Government is Prime Minister Meles Zenawi. Negasso Gidada and Meles Zenawi both took these offices in August 1995. The President is elected by the House of the People's Representatives for a six-year term, the Prime Minister is designated by the party in power following the legislative elections. The Ethiopian Cabinet is known as the Council of Ministers as provided for by the 1994 Constitution; Ministers are selected by the Prime Minister and then have to be approved by the House of People's Representatives. **[22]**

5.9 Prime Minister Meles Zenawi, an ethnic Tigrayan, was born in 1951. He joined the fight against the Mengistu regime in the 1970's for the TPLF. Initially a Marxist-Leninist, by the 1990's he had publicly become a proponent of the free market and parliamentary democracy. Upon Mengistu's overthrow, he was chosen as transitional head of state and was one of the architects of the 1994 constitution, which provided for a federal republic with ethnically-based regions. In 1995 he became prime minister, with the post of titular head of state being taken up by Gidada Negaso, an ethnic Oromo. **[4a]**

THE LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

5.10 Ethiopia has a bicameral Parliament which consists of the House of Federation (Upper Chamber) which consists of 108 seats, and the House of People's Representatives (Lower Chamber) which consists of 548 seats. Members of the House of Federation are chosen by state assemblies to serve five-year terms. Members of the House of the People's Representatives are elected by popular vote from single-member districts to serve five-year terms. **[22]**

ETHIOPIAN POLITICS IN GENERAL

5.11 The Constitution provides for the right of peaceful assembly and free speech, although on occasions the Government has restricted these rights. **[9]** Organisers of large public meetings or demonstrations must obtain a permit in advance and on occasions the issue of permits has been delayed hindering the organisation of the events. In particular in January 1999 a rally of the Coalition of Ethiopian Opposition Political Parties in Addis Ababa was attended by less than 3,000 and organisers claimed this was as a result of the permit not being issued until the day before the event. The Ethiopian Human Rights Council (EHRCO) and some opposition groups reported problems renting halls from local government officials. **[3a]**

5.12 The Constitution provides for freedom of association and the right to engage in unrestricted peaceful political activity. **[9]** Political parties must register with the National Election Board (NEB). Parties that do not participate in two consecutive national elections are liable to be de-registered. Registered political parties must also receive permission from regional governments to open local offices and in 1999 the opposition AAPO complained that the Oromiya regional government refused its application to open branch offices in the region. There are currently 58 organised political parties, eight of which are national; the remainder operate only in limited areas. **[3b]**

ETHNICITY IN ETHIOPIAN POLITICS

5.13 The question of ethnic groups/nationalities has always been a problem for Ethiopian leaders as Ethiopia is deeply divided along ethnic lines **(also see Human Rights – Ethnic Groups, and Annex B – Main Political parties).** It is an issue that helped to being down the Dergue and remains an important issue in Ethiopian politics. This is not the most important aspect of Ethiopian politics but it is a significant one. The most significant factor being the dominance of the ruling EPRDF coalition. The three largest region-specific nationalities are the Oromo, the Amhara and the Tigray people. **[1]** There is a great dominance within the regions to the extent that non-ethnically based parties' struggle for representation. Of the 178 members elected to the House of People's Representatives from Oromia, 173 are from the Oromo People's Democratic Organisation (the OPDO). All but four of the 138 members elected from Amhara belong to the Amhara National Democratic Movement (ANDM). All 38 members elected from Tigray belong to the Tigrayan People's Liberation Front (TPLF). **[18]** Only the Ethiopian Democratic Party (EDP) has set itself up as a non-ethnically based party yet even the EDP relies on a mainly Amhara constituency. **[3a]**

5.14 A great many of these new political parties, mostly ethnically based, emerged in the early 1990s. By 1993 there were over 100 parties although in the May 1995 elections only 49 groups participated. As Tigrayans only make up around 7% of Ethiopia's politicians the Tigrayan-dominated EPRDF has set up surrogate parties with which it could form alliances. **[1]** All main parties, government or opposition have since the time of the Dergue tended to be ethnically based apart from the Ethiopian Democratic Party (EDP) formed in early 2000. **[3b]** In August 2002 the All-Amhara People's Organisation (AAPO) reflected the growing shift away from ethnic-based politics by changing its name to the All-Ethiopia Unity Organisation (AEUO). This is in order to make the organisation more global and encompassing. **[7d]**

THE ETHIOPIAN PEOPLES REVOLUTIONARY DEMOCRATIC FRONT

5.15 Politics in Ethiopia is dominated by the ruling coalition, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). This grouping was formed in 1989 by the Tigray Peoples' Liberation Front (TPLF) in union with the Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement (EPDM), the Oromo People's Democratic Organisation (OPDO) and the Southern Ethiopian People's Democratic Front (SEPDF). From its creation it has always been seen as a group that is dominated by the TPLF and critics claim a disproportionate Tigrayan dominance in government because of this. **[3b]**

5.16 In March 2001 a split was reported in the TPLF with senior members of the Central

Committee opposing the policies of the Prime Minister. Concerns were believed to have centred on progressive policies departing from the Marxist ideology, which brought the party to power in 1991 and criticism of the Prime Minister's handling of the conflict with Eritrea. As a result twelve members of the Central Committee known as the "Siye group" walked out of a meeting and were held for a time in the former emperor's palace in Addis Ababa. The group was named after Siye Abraha, the former defence minister removed from his position in 1995 by Prime Minister Meles. Further events believed to be linked to this split included the removal of the president of Tigray state from his post in April 2001, **[4e]** the resignation of a senior army general in May 2001 **[33a]** and the murder of the security chief Kinfe Gebre-Medhin in May 2001. Mr Kinfe was a close ally of the Prime Minister but the reasons for his murder remain unclear. **[4i]**

5.17 Ethiopia continued its transition from a unitary to a federal system of government. The May 2000 elections were the second to be held based on the concept of ethnic federalism. Highly centralised authority, poverty, civil conflict and unfamiliarity with democratic concepts combine to complicate the implementation of federalism**. [3b]**

THE OPPOSITION

5.18 EPRDF and affiliated parties also hold all regional parliaments by large majorities, although opposition parties hold approximately 30 percent in the Addis Ababa region council and 9.5 percent in the Southern Nations and Nationalities Peoples' Regional State (SNNPRS or Southern Region) council. In the 2000 national elections, 17 opposition political parties contested the election, including the AAPO, the SEPDC, and the Oromo National Congress. **[3a]**

5.19 For the 2000 General Elections, the Government established a donor supported fund for opposition party candidates, provided opposition candidates access to state-owned electronic media, and changed the law to permit civil servants to run for office without first resigning their positions. The Government was willing to engage opponents in open debate at candidate and party forums. Many of these debates were broadcast live on national radio and television and reported on in both government and private newspapers. Free radio broadcast time was set aside for the elections and 225 independent candidates and 33 political parties made use of it. **[3a]**

5.20 There have however been credible reports of violence against opposition members, although this mainly seems to be confined to the SNNPRS and Somali/Ogaden regions. According to figures from the SEPDC leadership in the Hadiya zone, by the end of 2001, security forces killed 11 SEPDC members because of their affiliation with the opposition. On Election Day in May 2000, an EPRDF member threw a grenade into the home of an opposition party election observer; three persons were killed, including the observer. In 2000 in the Somali region, nine persons, including five election observers, one opposition candidate, and three other passengers were killed when the cars in which they were riding were struck by either rockets or landmines. **[3a]**

5.21 Several SEPDC candidates for the national or municipal elections were detained, and two SEPDC members elected to the regional council in 2000 were

detained without having their parliamentary immunity formally removed. Another representative elected in 2000 whose parliamentary immunity was removed by the regional council in July remained in hiding in the country. **[3a]**

5.22 There were numerous credible reports that persons who supported or voted for the opposition during the 2000 elections were harassed. For example, there were credible reports that ruling party personnel withheld fertiliser and food aid in the SNNPRS region as retaliation for voters electing opposition candidates. According to the SEPDC, some SEPDC supporters were suspended or dismissed from their jobs in retaliation for voting for the opposition, and some teachers in the Southern Region who served as SEPDC election observers were not able to collect their salaries and were denied entry to summer update courses. Civil servants who were removed from their positions after supporting the opposition were not allowed to return to their positions by year's end. **[3a]**

5.23 In February, March, and December, local elections at the kebele and woreda levels were conducted in all regions and administrative zones except in the Afar, Benshangul-Gumuz, Gambella and Somali regions. In February after the EPDRF overwhelmingly won the woreda elections, opposition groups reported intimidation of candidates and voters by the ruling party cadres, including the killing of two supporters; opposition groups also accused the NEB of failing to address these problems during the period prior to the elections. Opposition parties subsequently announced their withdrawal from the February elections, which was followed by the withdrawal of opposition party members from seats in the Addis Ababa municipal council. Observers considered the elections to be free and fair. In August the NEB made a statement indicating that the Government was aware of election irregularities and that the harassment of persons in the SNNPRS had impeded the organisation of local elections. The NEB also called for the unconditional release of those detained for their affiliation with the SEPDC. **[3a]**

5.24 Military forces continued in 2001 and 2002 to conduct an increased number of low-level operations against the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), the Somalia-based Al'Ittihad Al' Islami terrorist organization, and elements of the Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF) both in the country and in southern Somalia and northern Kenya. **[3a]**

5.25 Authorities detained hundreds of persons without charge in 2001 for supposed involvement with the OLF and the ONLF. **[3a]** There have been instances of federal and regional authorities arresting and detaining members of armed opposition parties particularly the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF) and Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF), these detentions being for involvement in armed actions and the detainees were typically held for days or weeks before being released. **[8b]**

FORMER MEMBERS OF THE DERGUE/WORKERS PARTY OF ETHIOPIA

5.26 The Special Prosecutor's Office (SPO) was set up in 1992 to record the abuses committed during the Mengistu Government and bring to justice those criminally responsible for human rights violations. The SPO had the authority to arrest and interrogate anyone suspected of involvement in the Red Terror Campaign under Mengistu. Trials began before the Federal High Court in 1994 and are still continuing.

Defendants have spent seven to eight years in detention awaiting trial while the SPO carried out its lengthy investigations, which began in December 1994. Charges have been brought against 5,198 people, 2,246 are held in detention while the remaining 2,952 are charged in absentia, including former dictator colonel Mengistu Haile Mariam. The defendants are variously accused of genocide, war crimes and aggravated homicide. The process is subject to frequent and lengthy adjournments, although cases were dealt with more quickly during 2000 most were still in progress by the end of the year. During 2000 five death sentences, one life imprisonment and at least 27 sentences of up to 15 years imprisonment were handed down. No SPO defendants have been released on bail; but by the end of 2000 at least 50 had been released for lack of evidence. **[3b]** In July 2000 the special prosecutor Girma Wakjira was jailed for contempt of court after accusing one of the judges of having participated in the abuses under Mengistu. He was released after two weeks. The judge was replaced and transferred to a different court. **[20b]** The special prosecutor announced in May 2001 that the courts had passed verdicts on 1,181 of the 6,180 genocide cases since the trials started in 1994. He announced that eleven of those found guilty of genocide had been sentenced to death and a further seven to life imprisonment. It is estimated that it will take a further three years to complete the trials. **[3b][8b]**

5.27 Most of those accused of Dergue activities were arrested in 1991 and it is believed that after a decade around 2,200 defendants have yet to be brought to trial. In October 2001 the Amhara State court acquitted another 23 alleged Dergue, with two men being sentenced to sixteen years imprisonment. The trial continue of Mamo Wolde former Olympic marathon champion, charged with genocide for the state-sponsored killing of 14 teenagers under the Mengistu regime. The trial also continues of former University of Addis Ababa president Dr Alemayehu Teferra. **[3b][8b]**

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THE JUDICIARY

OVERVIEW

5.28 The Constitution provides for an independent judiciary, **[9]** but the judiciary remains weak and overburdened. The federal and regional courts have shown signs of judicial independence although in practice severe shortages of adequately trained personnel in many areas as well as serious financial constraints have combined to deny many citizens the full protections provided by the Constitution. **[3a]** For example in July 2001 residents of Oromiya Regional State complained of delays in the justice process alleging that some suspects had been in detention without charge for periods of up to six years. The head of the Ministry of Justice in Oromiya admitted there were 600 suspects in jail who had not been charged and the assistant Chief Prosecutor for the area said that of the 1,200 suspects awaiting trial or being tried most had been in detention since 1999. He blamed lack of manpower and delays in the judicial system for the delays in these cases. **[14k]**

5.29 In 1992 the Special Prosecutors Office (SPO) was set up to create a historical record of the abuses committed in the Red Terror Campaign during the Mengistu Government and to bring to justice those criminally responsible for human rights

violations. **[3b]**

5.30 In keeping with the Constitution the Government continues to decentralise and restructure the judiciary along federal lines, establishing courts at district, zonal and regional levels. The Federal High Court and Federal Supreme Court hear and adjudicate original and appeal cases involving federal law, trans-regional issues and national security. **[9]** The regional judiciary is increasingly independent with district, zonal, and high and supreme courts mirroring the structure of the federal judiciary. In March 2000 the federal High Court created two new three-judge benches at the High Court level to handle criminal cases**. [3b]**

5.31 The Constitution provides legal standing to some pre-existing and customary courts and gives federal and regional legislatures the authority to recognise other courts. **[9]** By law both parties to a dispute must agree before a customary or religious court may hear a case. Shari'a (Islamic) courts may hear religious and family cases involving Muslims. Although not sanctioned by law some traditional courts still function, and these courts resolve disputes for the majority of citizens who live in rural areas and have little access to formal judicial systems. **[3a]**

5.32 Regional offices of the federal Ministry of Justice monitor local judicial developments but the federal judicial presence in the regions is limited. All judges are guided by the Federal procedural and substantive codes, pending the passage by national state legislatures of laws particular to their regions. **[3b]**

5.33 The Government is aware of the severe lack of experienced staff in the judicial system and continues to identify and train lower court judges. Senior government officials charged with judicial oversight estimate that the creation of a truly independent and skilled judiciary would take decades. The government welcomed foreign financial and technical assistance to accelerate this process. **[3b]**

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RECENT EXPERIENCE

5.34 The Constitution affords accused persons the right to a public trial by an ordinary court of law within a reasonable time of charges being made. Accused persons have the right to be represented by legal counsel of their choice. **[9]** In practice lengthy pre-trial detention is common, closed proceedings occurred between 1998 and 2001. On occasions detainees were allowed little or no contact with their legal counsel. The Law does not provide for the defence to have access to the prosecution's evidence before a trial, and some trials have historically lasted for years. **[3b]** Human Rights Watch (HRW) report that some times prisoners have been released after months of captivity without ever being charged or facing a trial. **[8b]**

5.35 The Government had been implementing a major overhaul of the military justice system, which relied upon foreign assistance to train officers in topics including judicial and non-judicial punishment, human rights and the conduct of soldiers during military operations. The outbreak of hostilities with Eritrea lead to the suspension of most foreign assistance, delaying this process. **[3b]**

LEGAL RIGHTS AND DETENTION

OVERVIEW

5.36 The Constitution and the Criminal and Civil Codes prohibit arbitrary arrest and detention. **[9]** However, these rights are not always respected in practice by the Government. The Criminal Procedure code requires that any person detained must be charged and informed of the charges within 48 hours and, in most cases, be offered release on bail. Persons charged with serious offences may be detained for 15 days while police investigate the case and for further periods of 15 days while investigations continue. Bail is not available to those charged with murder or treason. People are, however, often detained without a warrant, particularly in outlying regions, often not charged within the required 48 hours, and, if bailed, never recalled to appear before a court. **[3a]**

5.37 At the end of 2000 7,500 people allegedly associated with armed opposition groups remained in detention without charge or trial, mostly suspected OLF supporters or guerrilla fighters, the majority of such detentions being attributable to the shortage and limited training of judges, prosecutors and lawyers. Judicial search warrants are required to search houses but in practice are seldom obtained outside Addis Ababa. **[3a]**

5.38 The 1994 Constitution proscribes slavery, which had been formally abolished in 1942, and involuntary servitude. **[9]** There are no reports of slavery in Ethiopia, although child prostitution involving the sale or abduction of young girls remains a problem and there were continued reports that young girls were sold or forced into prostitution by family members. The Criminal Code prohibits forced labour but courts as a punishment for over-15s can order its use. **[3a]**

RECENT EXPERIENCE

5.39 There have been several reports in the past few years of police brutality, beatings, political intimidation and unlawful killings. These include the beating of a group of mothers who were attempting to visit their children detained at Sendafa, a police college being used as a temporary detention centre in 2001. There were also reports of subsequent police visits resulting in violence. In addition there were problems at University demonstrations including the demonstrations at Addis Ababa University (see Education), and according to the Chairman of the Southern Ethiopian People's Democratic Coalition (SEPDC), government forces killed at least eleven supporters of the SEPDC in the period leading up to the December elections although this is largely unconfirmed. **[3a]**

5.40 The International Committee of the Red Cross however announced in February 2002 that it has now completed courses for the Ethiopian police on human rights and good policing. The ICRC say that these courses tackled such key concepts as legal and ethical premises of law enforcement, maintenance of public order, basic law enforcement powers (arrest, detention, use of force and firearms), command and

management and special attention due to vulnerable groups such as women and juveniles. These courses have so far benefited 860 police commissioners, and zonal and woreda commanders, 1,790 new police recruits, 150 police cadets, 350 special forces cadets and 350 prison administration trainees. **[21d]**

INTERNAL SECURITY

5.41 The security forces consist of the military and the police, both of which are responsible for internal security. The police in previous years were subordinate to the Ministry of Justice and reported to the Security, Immigration, and Refugees Affairs Authority (SIRAA); however, after the October reorganisation of the federal Government, the Federal Police Commission and the Federal Prisons Administration became subordinate to the new Ministry of Federal Affairs. The military consists of both air and ground forces and reports to the Ministry of National Defence. **[3b]**

5.42 Following the end of fighting between Ethiopian and Eritrean armed forces in 2000, some Ethiopian troops were demobilised, and others were re-deployed from the border area in Tigray to other regions throughout the country, which increased the internal military presence in some parts of the Somali, Oromiya, and the Southern Regions. Military forces continued to conduct an increased number of low-level operations against the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), the Somalia-based Al'Ittihad Al' Islami terrorist Organisation, and elements of the Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF) both in the country, in southern Somalia and in northern Kenya. **[3b]**

PRISONS AND PRISON CONDITIONS

OVERVIEW

5.43 Prison conditions in Ethiopia are poor and overcrowding remains a problem. Several prisoners and detainees reportedly died during 1999 from illness and disease, including the acting Secretary-General of the ETA, Shimelis Zewidie, who died in June 1999 from tuberculosis. **[3a]** Although the Constitution prohibits the use of torture and mistreatment of prisoners **[9]** there are many credible reports of detainees being beaten sometimes by security officials. Following the outbreak of hostilities with Eritrea in May 1998 the Government started to detain and deport civilians of Eritrean origin. **[3a]**

5.44 The Government permits some independent monitoring of prison conditions and police stations by the ICRC and diplomatic missions. The ICRC, in general, had access in 1999 and 2000 to federal and regional prisons and detention centres and police stations throughout Ethiopia. However, after an ICRC visit in July 1999 the Government refused to allow ICRC access to a Central Investigation Division detention facility in Addis Ababa, but in May 2000 the ICRC was allowed access to this facility. ICRC was also unable to gain access in 1999 to police stations in Addis Ababa holding ethnic Eritrean detainees, but in June 2000 ICRC was permitted access to all police stations in Addis Ababa. ICRC had access in 2000 to some but not all military detention facilities. In 2000 the Government allowed ICRC access to detention facilities holding Eritrean POW's, and in addition ICRC regularly visited civilian Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin detained on national security grounds. **[3a]**

5.45 Prison food is inadequate and many prisoners have food delivered to them by their families or use their own funds to buy food. Prisoners are usually permitted daily access to a prison yard. Female prisoners are housed separately from males and rape does not appear to be a problem. Visitors are allowed. Prison letters are supposed to be written only in Amharic although this restriction is not strictly enforced. **[3a]**

5.46 In June 1999 some 1,200 civilians of Eritrean origin and 172 Eritrean prisoners of war were moved from the Bilate detention camp south of Addis Ababa to the Dedesa camp in the western Oromo state. This newer new camp is in an area less prone to malaria. In July 1999 some 350 Eritrean POWs were moved to Dedesa from Tigray state. The ICRC and foreign diplomatic observers were allowed regular access to detainees. Following the signing of the peace treaty in December 2000 359 severely wounded or ill POW's were repatriated to Eritrea. **[3a]**

RECENT EXPERIENCE

5.47 In recent years foreign diplomats have been permitted to visit prominent detainees held by the SPO for alleged war crimes committed under the Dergue. These detainees have included Olympic marathon winner Mamo Wolde and former President of Addis Ababa University Dr Alemayehu Tefera. **[3a]**

THE MILITARY

MILITARY SERVICE

5.48 There is no longer a compulsory military service; the country has maintained an all-volunteer military since the Transitional Government abolished conscription in 1991. **[19]** The rapid expansion in numbers in the military, from 60,000 in 1998 to over 250,000 in 2000, assisted the goal of bringing more ethnic groups into the military. Most reports indicate that it is now an ethnically diverse organisation with very little friction in the lower ranks between the ethnic groups. In the higher ranks officers are much less ethnically diverse. Promotions in late 2000 were proportionately higher among Tigrayans although there were promotions amongst a range of ethnic groups. In 2000 Oromos were promoted in higher numbers than in previous years. Since the start of the border war with Eritrea the military justice system has been adversely effected due to the withdrawal of foreign assistance in training at a time when the rapid expansion of the military greatly increased the need for trained military lawyers and judges. **[3b]** At the end of the border war with Eritrea, Ethiopia demobilised some 130,000 soldiers. **[1][2]**

CHILD SOLDIERS

5.49 During 1999 military officers admitted that some children under the age of 18 were enlisted and in 2001 the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers claimed that there is evidence of child soldiers being used, both by the military and armed opposition groups. **[32]** Scarce birth certificates, poor educational facilities, patriotism and pervasive poverty together enticed underage applicants to attempt to circumvent restrictions on underage applicants. Young boys found to be under 18 are prohibited

from military service. Children from rural areas often do not have birth certificates and unit commanders who suspect but cannot prove recruits are under 18 can transfer them from frontline combat to rear-area command. **[3a]**

5.50 In March 2002 a United Nations special representative for Children and Armed Conflict stated that during his visit to Eritrea and Ethiopia, he saw no systematic use of child soldiers and also found no evidence of child abuse in refugee camps. This absence was particularly impressive, "since no other conflict zone he has visited recently had been free of the problem. He attributed this to local authorities and communities organising and monitoring life in the camps. **[14t]**

MEDICAL SERVICES

GENERAL SITUATION

5.51 Problems with HIV/AIDS, meningitis, tuberculosis and diabetes are widespread in Ethiopia and TB is now one of the leading causes of death in the country. **[25]** All appropriate drugs for the treatment of Tuberculosis are available throughout the country. No treatment for Hepatitis B is available. Treatment for diabetes is now available in Addis Ababa. **[17][29]**

5.52 Medical training in Ethiopia is offered at three major centres. The country's oldest medical school is located in Addis Ababa, and the other two main centres are the Gondar Medical School and the Jimma Institute for Health Sciences. Currently it is estimated that there are 1,483 physicians and 4,114 nurses in the entire country. That breaks down to around one physician for every 40,000 persons, and one nurse for every 14,000. There are approximately 87 hospitals with 11,685 beds, 257 health centres and 196 private clinics in Ethiopia. **[27]**

5.53 A statistical survey produced in 1997 by the World Health Organisation (WHO) on the level of medical services ranked Ethiopia 182 out of a total of 191 countries. **[16a]** A report issued in June 2000 by the WHO on life expectancy placed Ethiopia in the bottom 10 out of 191 for life expectancy with a figure of 33.5 years, attributing this to the level of HIV/AIDS in the country. **[16b]** This is a reduction from the UN estimate in 1990-95, which was 47.5 years. The WHO figure for the HIV/AIDS in the adult population at the end of 1999 was over 10%. **[16c]**

5.54 Treatment for the mentally sick is limited. There is only one hospital for the mentally sick the Amanuel Mental hospital. This institution has 356 beds, all of which are constantly occupied, and there are ten trained psychiatrists in the country. The Ministry of Health, with assistance from the WHO, has trained 176 psychiatric nurses who work in 226 regional centres throughout the country**. [4k]**

5.55 In April 2001 the Ministry of Health announced that 86% of leprosy sufferers were now successfully completing courses of medical treatment this represented a recent rise in the numbers completing proper treatment. Improvements followed a leprosy awareness campaign, which resulted in nearly two and a half thousand lepers registering in a period of six months**. [14d]**

HIV/AIDS

5.56 The first case of HIV/AIDS in Ethiopia was only reported in 1986. The Joint United Nations AIDS Program (UNAIDS) reports that Ethiopia is now one of the hardest-hit sub-Saharan African countries, with one in 13 adults infected with HIV. In urban areas more than one in six adults (18 percent of the population) are infected. In 2001 it was estimated that more than 2.6 million Ethiopians were living with HIV. One million with AIDS. The Ministry of Health predicts that the number of people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) will increase to 3.2 million by 2006, and to 4.7 million by 2014. Furthermore it is estimated that 350,000 died from HIV/AIDS in 1998 and 740,000 in 2000. This figure is expected to rise to a figure of six million by 2014 if not checked. **[35]**

5.57 The Ethiopian Government has in many ways been very responsive to the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Ethiopia, forming the National Task Force on the Prevention and Control of HIV/AIDS in 1985, one year before the first AIDS case was diagnosed. In 1998 the Government adopted a National Policy on HIV/AIDS and is currently working on a National Strategic Plan. Government bodies encourage NGO help and are attempting to secure more treatment drugs into the country. **[35]**

5.58 In May 2001 it was confirmed that no anti-retroviral drugs for the treatment of HIV/AIDS are available anywhere in the country although there are some limited supplies of drugs available to treat a few of the opportunistic infections associated with HIV/AIDS. **[20c]** In August 2001 the state's HIV/AIDS Secretariat said they were hoping to make cheap anti-retroviral drugs available within three months; problems have occurred relating to it but this remains a continuing goal of the Government. **[29]**

5.59 In April 2002, President Girma Wolde Giorgis said that efforts were being exerted to supply Anti-Retroviral (ARV) drugs at affordable prices to people living with HIV/Aids in Ethiopia. He added that supplying the drugs at low prices to the people living with HIV/AIDS in the country was imperative. **[21f].** Four pharmaceutical companies have been issued with licences to import anti-retroviral drugs (ARV's) although as yet these drugs are not available to the public. **[21e].**

THE DISABLED

5.60 It is estimated that there are approximately six million persons with disabilities in Ethiopia. There has been a recent increase in this number following the conflict with Eritrea which resulted in many combatants being disabled as well as the effects of the extensive land-mining of the border and other areas. Although the Ethiopian Constitution stipulates that the state shall provide rehabilitation and assistance to persons with physical and mental disabilities, the government has provided few resources for this and much of the care for the disabled is undertaken by the approximately 70 NGO's in the area. **[3b]**

5.61 Despite the rhetoric of the Constitution, by the end of 2001 the Government had yet to enforce equal rights laws for those with disabilities and had failed to mandate access to buildings or government services for persons with disabilities. There is no real evidence of central discrimination although people with disabilities complain of

job discrimination. **[3b]**

5.62 Wheelchairs and prosthetic limbs are uncommon in Ethiopia although some are provided by the many NGO's that deal with disability in the area. Many schemes have been set up by the NGO's in Ethiopia to help with the standard of living of the disabled. The Amhara Development Association operates a project to provide vocational training to disabled war veterans in Bahir Dar (near Lake Tana). The Tigray Development Association operates a centre in Mekele that provides prostheses and seed money for business development, training and counselling for those with disabilities. Also the international NGO Landmine Survivors provides a number of services to victims of landmine explosions including counselling and referrals to rehabilitation services. **[3b]** An ICRC project called Patient Support Services (PSS) also was a major contributor to the war-disabled of Ethiopia. With an investment of $530,000 they have managed to provide not only prosthetic limbs but also help in transport and associated needs. In 12 months PSS have helped more than 2,000 war-disabled. **[13b]**

EDUCATION

5.63 Education in Ethiopia is available free of charge, and after a rapid growth in the number of schools, it became compulsory between the ages of 7 and 13 years. Since 1976 most primary and secondary schools have been controlled by local peasant associations urban dweller's associations. Primary education begins at seven years of age and lasts for eight years. Secondary education, beginning at 15 years of age lasts for a further four years, comprising two cycles of two years, the second of which provides temporary education for entry to a tertiary level. In 2000 total enrolment at primary schools was equivalent to 51.0% of children of the appropriate age-group (60.9% of boys; 40.7% of girls); enrolment at secondary schools was equivalent to 10.3% (12.0% of boys; 8.5% of girls) of children in the relevant age-group. The 1999/2000 budget allocate an estimated 11.3% (2,304 million birr) of total expenditure to education. A major literacy campaign was launched in 1979. **[1]**

5.64 By 1990, more than 23 million people had been enrolled in tuition programmes, and the rate of adult literacy had reportedly been reduced to 23% (compared with 96% in 1970). The campaign subsequently lost momentum, however and in 1995, according to UNESCO estimates, the rate of adult literacy had risen to 66.8% (males 60.1%; females 73.5%). There are 21 institutions of higher education in Ethiopia, with a total of 67,682 enrolled students in 1999/2000. There is a considerable shortage of qualified teachers, which is particularly acute in secondary schools, which rely heavily on expatriate staff. **[1]**

5.65 By law, primary education is compulsory, free, and universal; however, despite efforts by the Government to increase the number of schools, there are not enough schools to accommodate the country's youth. The Government uses a three-shift system in all primary and secondary schools to maximize the utilization of classrooms and to provide an opportunity for working children to attend school. Nationwide the total enrolment of children who are of school age is 57.4 percent. Only 67.3 percent of male primary age children and 47 percent of female primary

age children attend school, and many do so in shifts. Unlike in previous years, girls attended school in lower numbers than boys, except in Addis Ababa, where the ratio was equal between female and male attendance. Government reports show that approximately 30 percent of the children who attend school leave the system before they reach grade two of primary school, and the total drop out rate was 17.8 percent. Approximately 38 percent of children reach grade five. The overall literacy rate was approximately 20 to 30 percent, and only 17 percent of women were literate compared with 26 percent of men; however, it was difficult to estimate literacy rates accurately due to a lack of government statistics. Only 14.8 percent of boys and 10.9 percent of girls attend secondary school. During the year, a new education policy was implemented that compressed 12 years into 10 years of general education for students who were not planning to attend college; however, those students who plan to attend a university continued to complete 12 years of general education. During the year, students in grades 11 and 12 continued to take the school-leaving certificate exam (ESLCE). Students in grade 10 also were required to take the ESLCE exam during the year. Of the 94,508 students in grade 12 who took the exam, 37,375 students passed; of the 106,334 students in grade 10 who took the exam, 58,507 passed. There is space in institutions of higher education for only a small percentage of these graduates. **[3a]**

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6. HUMAN RIGHTS

6a.HUMAN RIGHTS : ISSUES

INTRODUCTION

6.1 The 1994 Constitution gives prominence to, and guarantees respect for, human rights. **[9]** In practice the Government's human rights record is reported as being poor. During recent years security forces have reportedly at times beat and mistreated detainees and committed extra-judicial killings. Arbitrary arrest and detention and prolonged pre-trial detention are ongoing problems. The Federal Government has difficulty in protecting constitutional rights at a local level. Local administrative, police and judicial systems remain weak in many areas**. [3a]**

6.2 The Constitution provides for freedom of the press and the independence of the judiciary. **[9]** In practice the Government restricts the rights of the press, continuing to detain and imprison members of the press. **[14r][3b]**

6.3 Federal and regional authorities arrest and detain without charge or trial members of armed opposition groups in particular the ONF and ONLF, most detainees are accused of participating in armed actions on support of the ONF and ONLF. Typically those arrested are held without charge and released within a few days. At the end of 2000 7,500 people allegedly associated with armed opposition groups remained in detention**.** During the border war the Government detained and deported some Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin without due process. **[3a]**

6.4 In addition to alleged abuses of human rights committed by the Ethiopian Government, various opposition groups, notably the OLF and ONLF, have also been responsible for human rights violations, committed during terrorist operations. **[3a]**

FREEDOM OF SPEECH AND THE MEDIA

OVERVIEW OF THE ETHIOPIAN MEDIA

6.5 The Constitution and the 1992 Press Law provides for freedom of speech and of the press. **[9]** However the Government uses legal and other means to limit these rights in practice. The Press Law contains provisions concerning publishing false information, inciting ethnic hatred and libel. These provisions are reportedly used to prosecute and detain journalists and editors. As a result some journalists practice self-censorship. Difficulties have remained in accessing government information and high licence fees for the private press. Despite the constant threat of legal action the private press remains active and often publishes articles extremely critical of the Government. Many private papers continued in 2000 to publish inaccurate information, unsubstantiated stories, and harsh anti-government articles without any official sanction. **[3a]** The Government has not banned any newspaper or publication. During the student riots in April 2001 some 60 newspaper vendors were reported to have been arrested, effectively interrupting the circulation of most private newspapers. The majority was released within two days after signing statements prohibiting them from working for an indefinite period. **[24]**

6.6 Foreign journalists are able to operate freely and often write articles critical of the Government and, with their local affiliates, have greater access to Government officials than local journalists. Some foreign journalists were allowed restricted access to the war front and about 10 Ethiopian affiliates of foreign news agencies were allowed to go to the war front in June and July 2000. Local journalists representing privately owned newspapers were not given access to the war front. **[3b]**

NEWSPAPERS & JOURNALS

6.7 Journalism in Ethiopia is regulated by Press Proclamation No.34/1992, under which journalists can be jailed on vague charges such as criminal defamation, incitement to violence, or spreading false information. Many journalists face multiple charges and are forced to remain in jail pending trial, or while serving multiple sentences. Massive fines sometimes accompany prison sentences, and non-payment of fines is punishable with more jail time and additional fines. **[23b].** Three Ethiopian journalists are currently in prison. **[4p]**

6.8 There are approximately 30 independent political Amharic language weekly newspapers and six independent English language papers. There are five EPRDF coalition party newspapers publishing in Amharic, Tigrigna and Oromiffa. In September 2000 the first independent daily in Amharic began publishing. Most private and state newspapers are printed at one of the state-owned printing presses. In July 2000 the only 2 presses capable of printing tabloids raised printing costs due to increases in pulp and paper in the world market. **[24]** There was an unsuccessful protest as a result and some papers stopped printing for a few days in September 2000**. [3b]**

6.9 Ethiopian press groups and the United-States-based Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) have expressed alarm at a proposed new media law aimed at those that disseminate false information and incite people to political violence. The Information Minister Simon Bereket is quoted as saying that the journalists who publish "false" information would be punished – possibly with criminal sentences and "de-licensing". **[4p]**

TELEVISION & RADIO

6.10 Radio is the most influential medium in reaching people living in rural areas. The Press Law allows for private radio stations but the only 2 non-governmental radio stations, Radio Fana, which is controlled by the ruling EPRDF, and the Mekele Voice of Tigray have close ties to the Government. The Government operates the only television station and news is controlled tightly. **[3b]**

6.11 There are no restrictions on access to international news broadcasts and private satellite receiving dishes; fax machines and modems are permitted. Internet access is provided through the government telecommunications company and is somewhat limited due to lack of capacity in phone lines although this is being improved. Private Internet service providers are required to obtain licences and none had done so by the end of 2000**. [3b]**

RECENT EXPERIENCE

6.12 In July 1999 the Government issued a broadcast proclamation announcing the creation of a new broadcasting authority to review applications for private radio and television licences. **[3a]** Little was heard from this agency until March 2002 when it announced that it would start to issue licences for local radio and television broadcasters in the next two months. At least ten companies are gearing up to start FM broadcasting around Addis Ababa, one notable company being the Addis Broadcasting Company (ABC), led by the prominent economist and human rights activist, Dr Berhanu Nega. **[37a]**

6.13 The 1999 proclamation banned political and religious organisations and foreigners from owning stations, **[3a][23a]** although this may well be relaxed now with the BBC possibly interested in starting broadcasting. **[37a]** The official media are legally autonomous and responsible for part of their revenue production although they still receive Government subsidies. **[23a]** Only four countries in Africa namely Angola, Ethiopia, Eritrea and Zimbabwe, have yet to deregulate their media. **[37a]**

FREEDOM OF RELIGION

OVERVIEW

6.14 The Constitution provides for freedom of religion, including the right of conversion. **[9]** The Government generally respects the Constitutional right to freedom of religion although local authorities have on occasions infringed this right. All religious groups must be registered with the Government, although two religions that have reportedly refused to comply with these regulations have suffered no problems. Religious groups

with the exception of Jehovah's Witnesses are given free land but are not accorded duty-free status. The imposition of taxes has increased the cost of imported bibles, which has lead to complaints and an interfaith campaign for duty-free status. **[3c]**

6.15 In the past there have been complaints that the police failed to protect Penetecostalists and evangelicals during instances of inter religious conflict however there have been no such complaints in recent years. The Government retains an impartial role of arbiter in any religious disputes. **[3c][3a]**

6.16 The Constitution provides for the separation of church and state and as a result religious instruction is not permitted in schools. **[9]** Private religious school institutions that cannot teach religion as a course of study, and instead teach morals courses, have been criticised for religious influence by the Government Education Bureau in Addis Ababa. **[3c]**

6.17 The majority population is fairly evenly divided between the two main religions with over 40% belonging to the Ethiopian Orthodox Church (Tewahido) and about 45% being Muslims. There are also significant numbers of Evangelical Protestants, and Roman Catholics. It is estimated that 5% to 15% of the population follow animist rights or beliefs. **[3c]**

6.18 The Government requires that religious groups be registered. Religious institutions, like non-governmental organisations (NGO's), are registered with the Ministry of Justice, and must renew their registration every year. Unlike NGO's, religious groups are not subject to a rigorous registration process. Under current law, a religious organisation that undertakes development activities must register its development wing separately as an NGO. **[3c]**

6.19 The Government officially recognises both Christian and Muslim holidays, and has mandated a 2-hour lunch break on Fridays to allow Muslims to go to a mosque to pray. The Government has also agreed to a request from Muslim students at Addis Ababa Commercial College to delay the start of afternoon classes until 1:30 p.m. to permit them to perform afternoon prayers at a nearby mosque. In most sections of the country Orthodox Christians and Muslims participate in each other's religious observances, and there is tolerance for intermarriage and conversion in certain areas, most notably in Welo, as well as in urban areas throughout the country. In the capital, Addis Ababa, persons of different faiths often live side-by-side. Most urban areas reflect a mixture of all religious denominations. Longstanding evangelical Protestant denominations, particularly the Mekane Yesus Church and Kale Hiwot Churches, provide social services such as health care and education to non-members as well as to members. **[3c]**

6.20 The Government has interpreted the constitutional provision for separation of religion and state to mean that religious instruction is not permitted in schools, whether they are public or private schools. Catholic, Orthodox, evangelical, and Muslim-owned and operated schools are not permitted to teach religion as a course of study. Most private schools teach morals courses as part of school curricula, and the Government Education Bureau in Addis Ababa has complained that such courses are not free of religious influence. Churches are permitted to have Sunday schools, the Koran is taught at mosques, and public schools permit the formation of

clubs, including those of a religious nature. **[3c]**

6.21 In 2001, Muslim leaders continued to complain that public school authorities sometimes interfered with their free practice of Islam. Protestant groups occasionally complained that local officials discriminate against them when seeking land for churches and cemeteries. While the relationship among religions in society is generally amicable, there continued to be pockets of inter-religious tension and criticism between followers of evangelical and Pentecostal churches, on the one hand, and Ethiopian Orthodox Christians, on the other. During 2001 a violent conflict broke out between Christians and Muslims. There are no reports of religious prisoners or detainees **[3c]**

6.22 On January 19, 2001, in Harar, a riot broke out between Muslims and Christians after several members of a Christian procession entered a mosque and disrupted Muslim services. Both groups accused each other of destroying religious property. After the local police were no longer able to control the rioting, the army was called in to restore order and reportedly shot and killed five persons; it is not known whether the rioters fired weapons in return. In January and February 2001, the EOC and the Supreme Islamic Council worked together and with local, regional, and national level government representatives in Harar to restore relations between the two faiths. No action was taken against any of the army officers who were involved in the incident. **[3c]**

ETHIOPIAN ORTHODOX CHURCH

6.23 Between 40 and 50 percent of the population adhere to the Ethiopian Orthodox Church (EOC), the single largest religious group. The EOC claims 50 percent of the country's total population, or more than 31 million adherents, and 110,450 churches. The EOC is predominant in the northern regions of Tigray and Amhara. **[3c]**

PROTESTANTS

6.24 Evangelical and Pentecostal Protestantism are the fastest growing faiths and now constitute more than 10 percent of the population. According to the Evangelical Church Fellowship, there are 7.4 million Protestants, although this figure may be a high estimate. Established Protestant churches such as Mekane Yesus and Kale Hiwot are strongest in the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People's Region (SNNPR), western and central Oromia, and in urban areas around the country. **[3c]**

ISLAM

6.25 Approximately 40 percent of the population is Muslim, although many Muslims claim that the actual percentage is higher. Islam is most prevalent in the Somali and Afar regions, as well as in parts of Oromia. **[3c]**

6.26 Muslim leaders complain that public school authorities sometimes interfere with their free practice of Islam. Certain public school teachers in the SNNPR, Addis Ababa, and in the Amhara region objected to Muslim schoolgirls covering their heads with scarves while at school. In September 1999, Muslim girls who had boycotted

classes in Woldea in the Amhara region over the issue of wearing headscarves to class, returned to classes with their scarves. Muslim leaders stated that in some schools, Muslim girls go without head coverings in order to avoid similar problems. **[3c]**

JEHOVAH'S WITNESSES

6.27 There are more than 6,000 members of Jehovah's Witnesses in the country. In February 1998, despite generally good relations with the Government, Jehovah's Witnesses reported that regional officials in highly Orthodox Christian Tigray national state had disrupted religious services and arrested and briefly detained 50 of their members. In March 1999 Jehovah's Witnesses received a letter of apology from a court in Tigray on account of these actions. Following the outbreak of hostilities with Eritrea in 1998 the Government decided that Jehovah's Witnesses of Eritrean origin, who might face persecution in Eritrea on account of their religious beliefs, would **not** be subject to deportation to Eritrea **(See Eritreans in Ethiopia)**. **[1][3c]**

ETHIOPIAN JEWS/FALASHA

6.28 A phased emigration of about 27,000 Ethiopian Jews (Falasha or Beta Israel) took place during 1984-1991 and in 1999 a further 4,000 were assisted to emigrate to Israel. In Addis Ababa and western Gondar in the Amhara region there remain very small concentrations of Ethiopian Jews (Falashas) and those who claim that their ancestors were forced to convert from Judaism to Ethiopian Orthodoxy (Feles Mora). Approximately 3,000 Feles Mora migrated voluntarily from the western Amhara region to Addis Ababa in 1991 at the time of "Operation Solomon," when a large number of Falashas were airlifted to Israel. The Feles Mora also seek to immigrate to Israel. The number of Feles Mora in the country at the end of 2001 was approximately 23,000. Israeli officials evaluate the Feles Mora immigration claims on a case-by-case basis and estimate that by the end of 2000 approximately 100 individuals were immigrating to Israel under Israel's law of return each week. Approximately 2,000 claims are processed annually by the Israeli Embassy in Addis Ababa. All of the eligible Falashas in the country had immigrated to Israel by December 1999 **(see ETHNIC MINORITIES). [3c]**

FREEDOM OF ASSEMBLY AND ASSOCIATION

6.29 The Government has at times restricted freedom of assembly despite this being guaranteed in the 1994 Constitution. Security forces have on many occasions used excessive force to disperse demonstrations. The Government limited freedom of association, and while the non-governmental organisation (NGO) registration process continued to improve, the Government suspended temporarily the registration of a prominent NGO in 2001. In July 2001 the Speaker of the House of the Peoples' Representatives selected a nominating committee to elect members to the Human Rights Commission (HRC) and the Office of the Ombudsman; however, neither entity was operational at the end of 2001. **[3a]**

POLITICAL ACTIVISTS

6.30 The right of Ethiopian citizens to elect their government was exercised for the first time in 1995. **[1]** Although observers have reported that opposition participation in elections was possible, most opposition groups have at times chosen to boycott the polls, claiming that the Government impeded their ability to compete freely. The 1995 and 2000 elections were however judged to be generally free and fair by observers including the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), Western donor states and domestic NGOs. **[3a]**

6.31 Political participation is however closed to organisations that have not renounced violence and which do not recognise the elected government as a legitimate authority. Such organisations include the OLF, MEDHIN, Coalition of Ethiopian Democratic Forces (COEDF), the EPRP and several Somali-based groups, including some elements of the Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF). Radical Amhara groups, the OLF and al-Ittihad were responsible for a series of grenade attacks, bombings, shootings and ambushes that have resulted in a number of deaths and injuries since 1996. **[3b]**

6.32 In July 2002 the European Union (EU) demanded a public inquiry into disturbances in Southern Ethiopia earlier in the year, which left an estimated 128 dead. These people had died during an outbreak of violence in the Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State (SNNPRS) in March. This occurred during a dispute over the political rights of the minority Sheko and Majenger ethnic groups in the town of Tepi, capital of the Yeki district. Tepi is about 700 km south-west of Addis Ababa. EU sources say that the head of the local police spoke of 128 fatalities. The opposition claim that between 500 and 1,000 died. **[4o]**

6.33 Between 400 and 1,000 people were arrested after the violence. Most have since been released but 269 people were still detention at the time of the EU delegation's visit. **[4o]**

6.34 Regional police commissioner Yasin Muhammed said that the Sheko-Majenger People's Democratic Unity Organisation (SMPDUO) had incited armed people from its own zone to take control of Tepi by force, according to the Walta Information Agency. **[4o]**

6.35 The EU's call comes after Ethiopian Prime Minister Meles Zenawi discussed the killings with EU head Romano Prodi. They also discussed the May shootings in Awasa in which 17 people were killed in clashes between demonstrators and police. The EU has also called for an inquiry into that incident. **[14w]**

6.36 Some 7,000 protestors gathered on 24 May before marching towards Awasa to demonstrate against a change in the town's status. Awasa is the regional capitalof the Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State (SNNPRS), one of the country's nine federal regions. The town, at present, also acts as the zonal capital for the Sidama. But fears have circulated among the rural community that the zonal capital would be moved to Aleta Wondo – some 80 km away. **[14v]**

6.37 Federal government sources argue that the peasants clearly had been

manipulated and told that Awasa was going to be sold. They say that the change in status will not affect the Sidamas and that they will not lose any lands. **[14v]**

6.38 The Ethiopian Human Rights Council claims that it was a peaceful march. The demonstrators asked permission before the march, but the day before there was an announcement on television and radio that the people could not march. It was said that certain political groups were involved and therefore the march was to be declared illegal. **[14v]**

EMPLOYMENT RIGHTS

OVERVIEW

6.39 The 1994 Constitution and the 1993 Labour Law give the majority of employees the right to form and join trades unions and bargain collectively, **[9]** although only about 300,000 workers are unionised. **[3a]** Only a small percentage of Ethiopia's population is engaged in formal salaried employment and most of those are in urban areas. Eighty-five percent of the population is engaged in subsistence farming in rural areas. **[1][2]** Employees of the security and civil services and those in 'essential services', such as transport workers and bank staff, are not permitted to strike. The 1993 Labour Law forbids trades unions from acting in an overtly political manner. Unions are free to affiliate with and participate in international labour organisations. Ethiopia has not however ratified ILO Convention 180 on the Freedom of Association as it only recognises government approved unions. **[3a]**

6.40 The Confederation of Ethiopian Trade Unions (CETU) was formed in 1993. Individual unions are not required to belong to CETU. Nine federations, organised on the basis of industrial and service sectors rather than by region, comprise CETU. The Government de-certified CETU in December 1994 because of internal management disputes but officially re-established and re-certified it in April 1997. The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) however have refused to recognise CETU until the outstanding case of former Ethiopian Teacher’s Association President Dr Taye was resolved (he was finally released in May 2002). **[3a]**

RECENT EXPERIENCE

6.41 There were several labour disputes reported during 2000 and 2001; through the intervention of the CETU, most were resolved in the favour of the workers. In April and July, employees at two private companies were dismissed from their jobs; among those fired were union leaders who had been lobbying for improved salaries and benefits. After the CETU intervened and negotiated on behalf of the employees with their employers, most were able to return to work, and in both cases, they returned with additional benefits. **[3a]**

PEOPLE TRAFFICKING

6.42 The law and the Constitution prohibit trafficking in persons; however, Ethiopia is a country of origin for trafficked women, and there are reports of internal trafficking.

Unlike in previous years, there were no reports that rural families sold their daughters to hotel and bar owners on the main truck routes; however, the practice is still believed to exist. Although illegal, the abduction of women and girls as a form of marriage still is practiced widely in Oromiya regions and the SNNPRS. **[3a]**

6.43 The Government no longer acts as an employment agency for workers going abroad. Private entities now arrange for overseas work and, as a result, the number of women being sent to Middle Eastern countries, particularly Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, and the United Arab Emirates, as domestic or industrial workers increased significantly. There reportedly is a network of persons based in the tourism and import-export sectors who are involved heavily in soliciting potential clients, recruiting young girls, arranging travel, and fabricating counterfeit work permits, travel documents, and birth certificates. There continued to be credible reports in 2001 that some domestic workers abroad were subjected to abusive conditions, including sexual exploitation. In addition the employers of the domestics sometimes seize passports, fail to pay salaries, and overwork the domestics, and some domestics were forced to work for their employers' relatives without additional pay. Domestics have been forced to pay a monetary penalty for leaving their employment early. There are reports of confinement and obstruction of contacting family. Reports of abuse decreased after the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs began reviewing the contracts of prospective domestic workers and denying exit visas if the contracts did not appear satisfactory. **[3a]**

6.44 Training programs have been implemented for police officers on the criminal aspects of trafficking. These institutions have limited resources and jurisdiction to protect or intervene in cases of prosecution of offending employers. Various laws prohibit trafficking and provide for fines and prison sentences of up to 20 years; however, there have been no reported prosecutions or investigations, due in part to limited resources. **[3a]**

6.45 In 1999 the Government formed a committee to study trafficking in persons and develop anti-trafficking programs. The federal police's Women's Affairs Bureau, in collaboration with the media, created a public awareness program on the dangers of migrating to Middle Eastern countries. In 2000 the Ministry of Foreign Affairs opened a consulate in Beirut to assist women who were trafficked to Lebanon. **[3a]**

FREEDOM OF MOVEMENT

6.46 The Constitution provides for freedom of travel and residence, both internally and abroad, and allows emigration and repatriation. **[9]** Exit visas are required but these are issued routinely, except to people with outstanding court cases or unpaid debts. While there are, in theory, no restrictions on where a person may live or work, the Government has restricted the rights of Eritreans and people of Eritrean origin to free travel and movement since the outbreak of hostilities with Eritrea in May 1998. **[3a]**

6.47 The law includes provisions for the granting of refuge and asylum in accordance with the provisions of the UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol. The Government generally treats asylum seekers and refugees fairly and co-operates with the UNHCR in assisting them. Ethiopia has approximately

300,000 refugees mostly from Sudan and Somalia, Government co-operation with the UNHCR continues to provide first asylum to refugees from these countries. The majority are housed in border camps. During 2000 with UNHCR co-operation 4,800 Kenyan refugees and 44,000 Somalis were returned to their countries. **[3b]**

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6b. HUMAN RIGHTS: SPECIFIC GROUPS

ETHNIC GROUPS

6.48 Ethiopia has over 80 ethnic groups, or `nationalities'. Historically the Amharas and Tigrayans from the northern highlands have played major roles in the country's life. **[1][2]** Some ethnic groups, including the Oromos, the largest single ethnic group, claim to have been subjugated during the nineteenth century by the dominant Amharas and Tigrayans. The present Government's policy of regionalisation attempts to address ethnic concerns. The new federal structure, with regional states based largely on major ethnic boundaries, has granted local populations much greater control over their own affairs, and due to this ethnicity and politics are almost synonymous with each other. **[3a]** The Constitution provides for equal recognition for all Ethiopian languages although Amharic is the working language of the Federal Government. **[9]**

6.49 Ethnic clashes during 2000 resulted in a number of deaths and injuries. In July 2000 clashes were reported between the Oromo Borena community and ethnic-Somali Garre pastoralists resulting in approximately 40 deaths and the theft of a large amount of livestock. In October 2000 clashes over water and grazing rights are believed to have resulted in a further 150 deaths. Between 1998 and 2002 there have been continuing reports of conflicts between the Nuer and the Anuak in Gambella national state in western Ethiopia, these reflect a long-standing history of tension between these two tribal groups. **[3b]**

LANGUAGES IN ETHIOPIA

6.50 Amharic, the national language, is spoken by about a third of the population, or approximately 20 million people. Tigrinya (4 million speakers) is spoken in the northern province of Tigre, Gurage (one million) southwest of Addis Ababa, and Harai (50,000) in the city of Harar. All of these languages are of the Semitic family and are descended from Geez, the classical literary language of Ethiopia. **[10]**

6.51 The other main languages are of the Cushitic family. The most important is Oromo (Galla) (20 million speakers), spoken in the west, south, and east of Addis Ababa. Sidamo (5 million) is spoken in the southwest, and Somali (3 million) in the southeast. English is widely spoken in official circles in Ethiopia, while Arabic and Italian are understood in a number of places (particularly in the trading community). **[10]**

OROMOS

6.52 The Oromo People account for 40% of the population, which makes them the

majority group in Ethiopia. **[22]** They are predominant in southern, south-eastern and south-western Ethiopia but also live in the highland areas. They are diverse in terms of their culture, social organisation and religion, although most retain some features of their unique and complex generation-grading system, 'gada'. In some areas they are too assimilated with the Amhara to be easily organised into a disciplined national opposition movement. **[11]**

6.53 Historically the Oromo have never formed a single state but were organised in small societies of clans and villages. There are four main groups: western Oromo, mainly in 'Wollegha', many of whom have been Christianised by missionary churches; northern Oromo, of Mecha-Tulam, modern Shoa and the area to the south, who are more integrated into Amhara culture than other Oromo groups, are mostly Christians of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church and speak Amharic; southern Oromo, who often have semi-nomadic lifestyles and are not incorporated into any larger regional or religious unit. And Borana, believed by some to be the seminal branch of the Oromo because of their rigid observance of the 'gada' social system, and who live in an arid area of Ethiopia along the border with Kenya. Eastern Oromo of Haraghe include the Muslim population of Harar and Dire Dawa, among others. This group has strong links to the Arab world and its local leaders have a strong Muslim orientation. The term Oromia, signifying an independent Oromo state, is important to the Oromo and the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), allowing them to consolidate their various regional and related groups into one Oromo nation. **[11]**

6.54 Oromos are represented politically by the Oromo People's Democratic Organisation (OPDO), which is affiliated to the ruling EPRDF coalition. This party is opposed to the OLF. **[1][2][3a]** An OPDO member Dr Negasso Gidada was President of the Federal Republic from 1995. In October 2001 it was reported that he had been expelled from the OPDO central committee although he continued as President of the country until October 2001, **[14c][14i][14j][14p][38c]** when he was replaced by Lieutenant Girma Wolde Giorgis an ethnic Oromo.**[4m]** The OPDO won 178 seats in the House of Peoples Representatives in the May 2000 elections. **[18]**

AMHARAS

6.55 A people numbering 12 million people (1984) living in the central Ethiopian highlands of Gondar, Gjjam, western Wollo, and northern Shoa, and also found in other areas, both rural and urban, of Ethiopia. **[12]**

6.56 The Amhara are mainly Ethiopian Orthodox Christians, but there is also a Muslim Amharic-speaking population, the Jabarti. The Amhara are mainly highland agriculturalists who produce grains and use the plough. Although farming can be considered their traditional occupation, their dominant political position has always been linked to military and administrative exploits and careers. Considered the core population of Ethiopia, the Amharic people's culture has largely determined the image of the 'Ethiopians'. The formation of the Amhara was closely connected to the development and expansion of the Ethiopian Empire from the second half of the thirteenth century and the spread of vernacular Amharic as the royal language (together with the written Ge'ez of the church). The use of Amharic paralleled the military and political expansion of the imperial state. Since 1955 Amharic has had the status of an official language. The spread of modern education, including the literacy campaigns

under the Mengistu regime, have contributed to the more recent processes of Amharisation, although a new strategy for mother-tongue teaching in primary schools are now underway. **[12]**

6.57 The social and political institutions of the Amhara had a crucial influence on the development of institutions, which linked the south of Ethiopia with the political centre of Addis Ababa. The tribal and clan structures and the way in which leadership was temporarily elected among some southern peoples, were alien to the Amhara. They installed dominant landholders and established the hereditary office of the local chief to represent the administration among his kin and people. Concerning the definitions of rights to land, the legal system of the Amhara became a strong incentive for the spread of the Amharic language. **[12]**

6.58 The Amhara and Tigray people account for 32% of the population between them, **[22]** but have traditionally been the most influential and powerful of Ethiopia's people. Amharas are mainly represented in the Government by the Amhara National Democratic Movement (ANDM), **[1][2]** which won 134 seats in the May 2000 elections and is affiliated to the ruling EPRDF. **[18]** The ANDM was originally the Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement created by the TPLF in 1989 to fight outside Tigray. The other Amhara group of note is the All-Amhara People's Organisation (AAPO). The AAPO was founded in 1992 and is a legally registered party. Its members often complain that the Government restricts the party's ability to campaign for popular support. The party claims to oppose the Government through peaceful means only. The AAPO, which advocates Ethiopian unity, was opposed to Eritrea's independence and aims to defend and promote the interests of the Amhara people. **[1][2]**

SIDAMA/SIDAMO

6.59 There are eight distinct groups of Sidama people living in parts of Shoa and Sidamo-Borana provinces. They speak Cushitic and have an 'ensete' (false banana) planting culture. Before Oromo migration, Sidama inhabited almost the whole of southern Ethiopia. Oromos used the term, 'sidama' meaning foreigner, and one of the eight groups still retains that name. An interchange of Sidama and Oromo institutions took place during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Consequently some are animist, others Christian or Muslim. By 1891 the Sidama people had been incorporated into the Ethiopian Empire. **[11]**

SOMALIS

6.60 The Somali people account for around 6% **[22]** of the population and populate the Ogaden region in the east of the country. They are among the poorest in the region.**[1][2]** Amnesty International noted many reports of alleged human rights abuses over a number of years in the Somali region by the security forces and armed ethnic groups. **[6a]** The Ogaden National Liberation Front is the largest of the Somali based armed opposition groups. Al-Ittahad al-Islam (Islamic Union Party) is a Somali based armed Islamic group, whose stated aim is to create a fundamentalist Islamic State in the region. This group claimed responsibility for bomb explosions at hotels in 1996 and for the attempted assassination of the Minister of Transport and Communications. **[1][2]**

BERTA ('SHANKELLA', BENI, SHANGUL)

6.61 The Berta regard themselves as descended from a single family whom they trace back to 1720. Islam was established among them by 1855. They were conquered 1897-8 by imperial forces while their leader, Shaikh Khojali, preserved their autonomy by regular tribute of alluvial gold. They and other Nilotic peoples have been labelled pejoratively as 'Shankella', although this was officially discharged by Haile Selassie. Many Berta were brought to the capital as slaves. Slave trading was a business which the Shaikh Khojali family conducted with Sudan-based traders as well as Ethiopians. Berta were much desired as slaves by raiders on both sides of the border. **[11]**

AFAR

6.62 The Afar make up only around 4% of the total Ethiopian population,**[22]** but are in fact a people split between Ethiopia, Eritrea and Djibouti.**[1]** At the time of the inception of the state of Eritrea, the Afar Liberation Front (ALF) leader, Ali Mirah Anfere, declared that the ALF's goal would be to establish an independent Islamic State for the Afars. Its boundaries were to be decided by Afar ethnic habitation, including the Awash River Basin and neighbouring territories in the southern part of Eritrea. Mengistu's creation of an autonomous province of Assab did nothing to settle the Afar issue, since the most fertile land in the Awash Valley remained in Amhara control. **[11]**

GURAGE

6.63 The Gurage people make up around 2% of the Ethiopian population. **[22]** There are 14 to 16 groups in the Gurage cluster. The western group formed a political federation in the mid-nineteenth century consisting of seven clans inhabiting an area around Lake Zway in Shoa. They are 'ensete' (false banana) cultivators like their neighbours in Sidamo. Some claim descent from a Tigrayan noble who came to conquer them in the fourteenth century. Eastern Gurage (Soddo) trace their origins to the Harar area from which they fled during the sixteenth century invasion of Ahmad ibn Ibrahim. An attempt at unifying the western Gurage under one leader was allegedly made by a Christian commander who came to relieve them of Oromo raids. Emperor Menelik II incorporated both eastern and western Gurage into the empire by 1889. Gurage men weave and market cloth. Certain sub-castes tan hides or smelt iron. Pottery is a woman's craft. The Soddo Gurage reportedly follow the custom of circumcising both boys and girls in infancy, while the western group are said to circumcise both boys and girls (clitoridectomy) at the age of eight and ten respectively. Christian, Muslim and traditional Gurage belief in the god Waq, co-exist to varying degrees depending on the area. In the country and in cities Gurage are adept at forming self-help societies and are active traders. **[11]**

ANUAK

6.64 Associated with Sudanese penetration of a vaguely defined 'Ethiopia', these people date from the first millennium BCE with a culture preoccupied with cattle raiding and millet growing. The Anuak are hunters, agriculturalists and fishers living in the fertile Gambela forest region of south-western Ethiopia. At the end of 1979, their land was seized by the Government and there were attempts to draft them into the army and into forced labour on collective farms. Many Anuak fled to the bush in an attempt to reach Sudan and were shot or imprisoned. Their numbers have halved

from a generation ago and they have been displaced from their traditional lands as northerners resettled in the area. **[11]**

ADARE/GEFU (HARAR)

6.65 The Oromo and Amhara residents of greater Harar call the inner-city residents Adare. There are about 30,000 in the old city, with a distinct language and culture. The Adare are distinguished for being the only people in Ethiopia to have developed a tradition centring on a large urban centre. In their own language the term for Adare is Gefu, literally, person of the city. Adare is also the language spoken in Harar and is written in Arabic characters. Harar is the premier Muslim city of Ethiopia, and is the fourth most holy Muslim worldwide. An overlapping social network is divided into kinship networks, groups and neighbours. The latter concerns itself with the expenses of weddings and funerals in a co-operative way. A school was established in 1972 to counter the central government effort to spread the Amharic language and restrict Islamic religious instruction. In 1975 the Dergue regime imposed a 'kebelle' system of local government, as the neighbourhood groups refused to be politicised. **[11]**

FALASHA/BETA ISRAEL

6.66 Also known as the Ethiopian Jews, and the derogatory name Falasha (meaning stranger or exile in Ge'ez), at their peak in the seventeenth century there were over 1 million Beta Israel in Ethiopia. Before mass migration to Israel in the 1980's they numbered approximately 30,000 and lived in Gondar province and the Simien Mountains in northern Ethiopia. **[11]**

6.67 The Beta Israel believe themselves to be Jewish, living a traditional form of life evolving from at least the fourteenth century, although some suggest that their origins are more ancient. Their ancestors were deprived of the right to hold land as a result of the north-west expansion of the core Abyssinian state. Beta Israel consider contact with Christians to be ritually impure, and this reinforced the self-identity of Beta Israel and allowed them to continue their religious and social life in the face of pressure to convert, while being excluded from positions of authority within the state. Their basic tenets are those of Judaism. **[11]**

6.68 Most Ethiopian Jews lived in small rural communities in Gondar and Tigre provinces, where they suffered from prejudice at the hands of neighbouring peoples. The Ethiopian Orthodox Church opposed the development of Jewish schools. After World War Two, they continued to face discrimination and suffer evictions, extortionate taxes and rents, and attacks on cemeteries. After the revolution of 1974, the Beta Israel were made a target of the counter-revolutionary Ethiopian Democratic Union, composed of the old nobility and landowners in Gondar. During 1977-79 they were forced to flee remote villages and move to areas of greater concentration. They were also attacked by the Ethiopian Peoples Revolutionary Party (EPRP) for alleged Zionist tendencies. Substantial numbers of Jews were among the thousands tortured, imprisoned, and massacred in the 1978 'Red Terror' campaigns waged by the Dergue. In March 1984, at the height of the famine in northern Ethiopia, thousands of Beta Israel began to move to Sudan by foot. Several thousands lost their lives in transit, children were orphaned and separated from their parents, and

disease and malnutrition were rife in the refugee camps. At the end of 1984 Operation Moses brought many more to Israel, and others left in 1991 in Operation Solomon. **[11]**

ERITREANS IN ETHIOPIA

(also see Eritrean Assessment)

6.69 During the border war the Government detained and deported Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin without due process. There were no preliminary hearings to determine the merits of deportation, no right to counsel was provided to detainees and they had limited opportunity to register protests. Although these detentions and deportations were prompted by security considerations they raised concerns about arbitrary arrest and detention, forced exile, the forcible separation of families and nationality issues, in addition those who were detained or expelled suffered hardships and financial losses. Heads of household were taken without warning, detained and often deported within 48 hours. Remaining family members were subjected to arbitrary deadlines to sell property and sometimes taxed on estimates of annual income and unpaid balances on government loans. Deportation orders originated from the Security Immigration and Refugees Affairs Authority (SIRAA) in Addis Ababa. **[3a]** Since the commencement of the border war as many as 75,000 Ethiopians of Eritrean origin have left Ethiopia for Eritrea, the majority were deported although a number left voluntarily. **[28]**

6.70 In August 1999 all Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin who had voted in the 1993 referendum on Eritrean independence were required to register with SIRAA and complete residence application forms. After registration they received identity cards and residence permits valid for 6 months. These residence permits did not give access to hospitals or other government services. A further renewal of residence permits took place in August and September 2001 when it was reported that Eritreans are required to renew their residence permits annually in common with all expatriates living in the country. **[3b]** In August 2001 the Immigration and Nationality Affairs headquarters announced that Eritrean citizens living in Ethiopia were now renewing their residence permits. They stated that Eritreans were required to renew their residence permits annually, as every expatriate living in the country does. **[21b]**

6.71 It was reported that the Government stopped deporting Eritreans and Ethiopians of Eritrean origin after signing the cessation of hostilities agreement in June 2000. The ICRC assisted in voluntary repatriation to Eritrea and in July 2001 reported that it had assisted in the voluntary repatriation of 911 Eritrean nationals from Ethiopia to Eritrea during the preceding year. **[3a]** However in June 2001 the ICRC refused to assist in the repatriation of a group of over seven hundred concerned that they had not expressed their consent. **[14l]** The Eritrean Ministry of Foreign Affairs also complained about this group claiming that the group consisted mainly of women, children and the elderly who had been detained for days prior to their deportation. **[39]** At the end of 2001 approximately 200 civilian residents of Eritrean origin (plus 1,800 Eritrean POW's) remained detained in internment camps at Dedesa. **[3a]**

6.72 In a report dated 5 September 2001 the United Nations Secretary-General

expressed concerns about the treatment of Eritreans in Ethiopia in particular it was noted that those interviewed had reported long-term detention without due process, often in poor conditions. There were also allegations of ill treatment, discrimination in access to social services and harassment by civilians and officials. The Secretary-General called on Ethiopia and Eritrea to reconsider their positions with regard to the treatment of each other's nationals. He further urged them to comply strictly with international human rights and humanitarian law standards and their commitments under the peace agreement. **[40]**

6.73 In June 2001, Ethiopia forcibly expelled 772 people it identified as Eritreans from its territory without prior notification to the International Committee of the Red Cross as anticipated under article 2 of the truce agreement. In August, it announced suspension of prisoner-of-war exchanges with Eritrea until it received information about a missing fighter pilot. Exchanges resumed in October when Eritrea released twenty-four Ethiopians "for health reasons" and Ethiopia reciprocated with the release of twenty-three Eritrean POWs, also "for health reasons." With the October releases, 653 Ethiopian and 879 Eritrean POWs had been repatriated but about 350 Ethiopians and 1750 Eritreans still remained in POW detention camps as of early November 2001. Voluntary civilian repatriation between the two countries progressed more smoothly. During the war, about 345,000 civilians fled the fighting. Most escaped to internal exile but others were trapped behind enemy lines as the war front shifted. In November, the International Committee of the Red Cross reported it had repatriated almost 55,000 Ethiopian civilians from Eritrea since 1998. In July, it had reported the repatriation of 1,000 Eritrean civilians from Ethiopia. **[8b]**

REPATRIATED ETHIOPIAN REFUGEES

6.74 During the reign of the military dictator Mengistu Haile Mariam between 1974 and 1991, hundreds of thousands of Ethiopians are believed to have left the country. Since he was deposed in 1991 many have returned. It is estimated that in the last decade around 800,000 Ethiopian refugees have been voluntarily repatriated from Djibouti, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and other countries. This has lead to a strain on the already stretched resources available in Ethiopia and NGO’s have largely been the main source of help for these people. **[28]** Standard procedure for returns involves the co-operation of the ICRC who escort the returnees to an agreed border point and provide any food or medical assistance needed. **[13c]**

6.75 This return largely followed a statement in September 1999 from the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). He declared that a “fundamental and durable change” had taken place in Ethiopia with the end of the Mengistu regime and that most Ethiopian refugees who fled their country prior to 1991 no longer had a “valid fear of persecution”. This then took effect in March 2000. **[28]**

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WOMEN

6.76 The 1994 Constitution provides for the equality of women,**[9]** however this provision is not always applied in practice. The provisions of the Constitution are often in conflict with the 1960 Civil Code and the 1957 Penal Code, which are still in force

although under review by the Ministry of Justice. The 1960 Civil Code is based on a monarchical constitution that treated women as if they were children or disabled. Culturally based abuses including wife beating and marital rape are pervasive social problems. Although women have recourse to the police and the courts, societal pressures and limited court facilities reduce the availability of these remedies, particularly in rural areas. Discrimination is most acute in rural areas where 85% of the population live. In urban areas it is reported that women have fewer employment opportunities than men. **[3a]**

6.77 The traditional practice of abduction as a form of marriage is illegal under the penal code but is still believed to be practised widely in many rural areas particularly the Oromiya region and SNNPRS. **[3a]** Women are often abused physically during abduction and forced sexual relationships accompany many marriages by abduction. **[14b]** On 29 July 2000 the Government adopted a new family law which took effect from 4 July 2000. Amongst other provisions this raised the legal marriage age for girls to 18. Family arbitration councils which in the past had the power to dissolve marriages can now only engage in arbitration and reconciliation counselling, only the courts have the power to grant divorces. Domestic violence is not considered a serious justification under the law for divorce. **[3a]**

6.78 In 1997 the Government adopted a plan of action aimed at enhancing the status of women. In 1999 and 2000 since the adoption of this program few improvements were noted. According to a study produced by the National Committee on Traditional Practices in Ethiopia (NCTPE) in 1998 certain harmful practices such as early marriage and marriage by abduction appeared to be declining. **[3b]**

6.79 The majority of girls undergo some form of female genital mutilation (FGM) which is widely condemned by international experts. The law does not prohibit FGM although the Government discourages it officially, supporting the NCPTE and educational programmes in schools. The NCTPE survey in 1998 indicated that in excess of 72% of the female population had undergone FGM, which was a reduction from the estimated figure of 90% in 1990. **[3b]**

6.80 Social practices obstruct investigations into rape and the prosecution of rapists. Many women are not aware of their legal rights under the law. It is estimated that there are more than 1,000 rapes a year in Addis Ababa however there were only 168 rape convictions nation-wide in the year ending September 2000. **[3a]**In August 2001 a demonstration was held in Addis Ababa during which protestors called upon the Government to withdraw bail rights from those charged with committing rape, it was estimated that some 3,000 people attended. In September 2001 it was reported that over 500 charges were filed against rape cases in Addis Ababa in the preceding 12 months. **[14n]** The Ethiopian Women's Democratic Organisation estimated an average of about 84 rape cases per day in Addis Ababa which are never reported or brought to court due to social and cultural problems. **[38a]** The Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association one of whose missions was to help women victims of violence was suspended in 2001 by the Ministry of Justice for operating outside its mandate. **[21a]** The banning order on the EWLA and Ethiopian Human Rights Council was quickly rescinded by the new Justice minister following a government reshuffle however. **[34]**

6.81 The status of women and their level of political participation is now greater than it has ever been although they are still only represented in small numbers in government and as senior figures in political organisations. In 2000 one of the 15-member Council of Ministers was a woman; two other women held ministerial rank and a number of others senior positions. Following the May 2000 elections there were 42 women among the 545 members of the lower House of People's Representatives and 10 among the 113 members of the upper House of Federation, including the speaker and four members of the Council of Ministers. In 1999 six of the 23 judges in the Federal High Court were women. In 2000 there were three women on the Supreme Court. **[3a]**

CHILDREN

6.82 The Government has encouraged efforts by domestic and international NGOs that focus on children's social, health and legal issues, as an example local officials provided free transport and facilities for NGO activities. During 2000 proclamations were passed that established the Human Rights Commission (HRC) this provides for a commissioner and ombudsman to be specifically responsible for the rights of women and children. **[3b]**

6.83 Under the Labour Law the minimum age for paid employment is 14 years. Special provisions cover children aged between 14 and 18 years, including the prohibition of night work and hazardous work, and govern the number of hours children may work. The Government has made some efforts to enforce these regulations however social welfare activists, civic organisers, government officials and entrepreneurs agree that child labour is pervasive throughout the country. The Government maintains there is no child labour problem and that most economically active children are engaged in family-based, non-exploitative child work which is part of the socialisation process. Forced or compulsory labour by children is illegal but there are reports that it occurs. Child labourers are often abused; a survey published in 1999 indicated a figure of 70% of abuse among child urban labourers. **[3b]**

6.84 Child prostitution continues to be a problem and is believed to be increasing. There are no laws making prostitution or child prostitution criminal offences. There were reports in 1999 and 2000 that girls as young as 11 are recruited to work as prostitutes and kept ignorant of the risks of HIV/AIDS. In addition rural families sold teenage girls to hotel and bar owners on main truck routes although reports of this practice are difficult to confirm. Young girls are prized, as clients believe they are disease free. **[3b]**

6.85 Despite a new family law setting the age of consent for marriage for males and females as 18, early childhood marriage particularly in rural areas is common. In the Afar region in the East the traditional practice of marrying young girls to older men continues but is coming under greater scrutiny and criticism. **[3b]**

6.86 In Addis Ababa's police stations, there are 10 Child Protection Units, which are staffed by members of an NGO and protect the rights of children by assisting them when they become involved in crime. Some police officers have completed training on procedures for handling cases of child abuse and juvenile delinquency. Nevertheless there is a clear need for reform of the juvenile justice system. Three

federal judges sit on one bench to hear all cases of juvenile offences. There is a large backlog of juvenile cases and accused children often remain in detention with adults until their cases are heard. There is only 1 juvenile remand home with a capacity of 150 for children under age 15, and the juveniles who cannot be accommodated at the juvenile remand home are incarcerated with adults. **[3a]**

CHILDCARE PROVISIONS

6.87 There are approximately 200,000 street children in urban areas, of which 150,000 reside in Addis Ababa; however, the figures are difficult to estimate, and observers believe the problem is growing. These children beg, sometimes as part of a gang, or work in the informal sector. Government and privately run orphanages are unable to handle the number of street children, and older children often abuse younger children. Due to severe resource constraints, abandoned infants often are overlooked or neglected at hospitals and orphanages. There are a few credible reports that children are maimed or blinded by their "handlers" in order to raise their earnings from begging. Following the April 2001 riots, there were reports that authorities rounded up street children; some children reportedly were as young as 7 years of age. **[3a]**

6.88 Street children often fall into two categories – children of the street and children on the street. The former spend their entire lives on the streets, while the latter work on the street and sleep at home. Some 15,000 children in Addis Ababa are believed to be children “of” the street, working 12 to 14 hours a day before going home. Around 25 percent are girls. **[14u]**

6.89 In July 2002 it was reported that hundreds of street children and homeless people were forced from Addis Ababa and dumped in the Gorfu forest, some 55km from the capital. Some of the children were reportedly only 11-years-old. The round-up took place during the World Cup. These children and homeless people were rounded up from the centre of the city where a huge television screen had been erected so that people could watch the football matches. **[14x].** It is feared that some of those taken may now have been devoured by hyenas. **[7c].**

HOMOSEXUALS

6.90 Ethiopian law prohibits homosexual acts for both men and women. Penalties range from 10 days imprisonment to 10 years where the offence involves violence, intimidation, coercion, transmission of disease, committing homosexual acts with a person under 15 or where shame or despair drives the victim to committing suicide. **[15]**

NGO’S IN ETHIOPIA

6.91 Domestic human rights organisations operating within Ethiopia include the Ethiopian Human Rights Council (EHRCO), Human Rights League (HRL), the Peace and Development Committee, the Ethiopian Women's Lawyers Association, the Inter-Africa Group, the National Committee on Traditional Practices, the Society for the Advancement of Human Rights Education, Enway, the Centre for Local Capacity

Building and Studies, African Initiatives for a Democratic World Order and Hundee. These and numerous other groups are primarily engaged in civic and human rights education, legal assistance, and trial monitoring. The EHRCO, a self-proclaimed human rights monitoring group, received legal status as an NGO in 1999 after a seven year campaign for recognition. **[3a]** In May 2001 the offices of EHRCO were closed down for ten days by armed police following the arrest of its former Secretary General. **[6b]**

6.92 Prominent Oromo civic leaders founded the Human Rights League (HRL) in 1997. In April 1998, on the grounds that some board members wished to use the organisation as a front for the OLF, the authorities closed the offices of HRL and confiscated the contents of the office. The HRL had been operating without a Government licence for three years despite having fulfilled all requirements for licensing. Government investigations into the HRL's alleged links to the OLF continued throughout 1999 and 2000. **[3b]**

6.93 The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has been operating in Ethiopia since 1997 and has a head office in Addis Ababa and 4 sub-offices elsewhere in the country. The Government allows the ICRC to visit detention centres and prisons throughout Ethiopia. In 1999 there were some problems visiting those detained by the police in Addis Ababa, however in 2000 visits resumed. The ICRC has not been permitted access to some military detention centres where OLF fighters are detained. During the border war involvement of the ICRC in the repatriation of POW's and civilian detainees varied. However in December 2000 following the signing of the peace agreement Ethiopia and Eritrea agreed that all POW repatriations would take place under the auspices of the ICRC. **[3a]** Other international human rights organisations have visited the country in the past three years**. [13a]**

6.94 The Government continues to encourage international human rights organisations and foreign diplomats to observe the war crimes trials of officials of the Mengistu Government that commenced in 1994. **[3a]**

Ethiopia October 2002

ANNEX A

CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS

1930s Emperor Haile Selassie wrests power from old aristocracy and establishes modern autocracy.

1935 Italy invades Ethiopia.

1941 Allied forces end Italian occupation.

1952 Former Italian colony of Eritrea, which had become a UN mandated territory after World War II, federated with Ethiopia.

1962 Eritrea formally annexed by Ethiopia.

1970s Increased Eritrean resistance to Ethiopian control by ELF and EPLF.

September 1974 Calls for democratisation, army mutinies, Eritrean resistance, economic problems and famine culminate in overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie in a military coup. Haile Selassie dies in military custody in 8/1975. The Dergue takes control of Ethiopia and establishes Provisional Military Government (PMG) under Lt-Gen Aman Andom.

November 1974 Gen Aman assassinated. 57 former civil and military officials, including two former Prime Ministers executed without trial. Brig-Gen Teferi Benti, Chairman of the Dergue, becomes Head of State. Major (later Lt-Col) Mengistu Haile Mariam one of two Vice-Chairman of the Dergue.

December 1974 Dergue declares Ethiopia a socialist state. PMG replaced by Provisional Military Administrative Council (PMAC).

1975 Col Mengistu emerges as most influential member of the Dergue. PMAC embarks upon 'Ethiopia Tikdem' (Ethiopia First) reforms - nationalisation of land, financial institutions and large firms, literacy drive and establishment of peasant co-operatives. Power struggles within Dergue, continuing into 1976, between supporters of MEISON and EPRP. Joint ELF/EPLF attack almost captures Eritrean capital Asmara. Severe retaliation taken against Eritrea. Tigrean support for Eritrea grows. TPLF formed.

February 1977 Col Mengistu assumes control as Head of State and Chairman of PMAC. Gen Teferi Benti and five other Dergue members executed. "Red Terror" campaign launched against Mengistu's political and armed opponents, particularly the EPRP. Tens of thousands killed or tortured.

Mid-1977 "Red Terror" campaign turns on MEISON. EPRP and MEISON neutralised by end of 1978. Ethiopia under Mengistu moves increasingly closer to Soviet Union.

1977-78 TPLF grows stronger with EPLF support, defeating EPRP opponents in Tigre.

June 1977 Somalia invades Ethiopia's Ogaden region.

February 1978 Ethiopia counter-attacks with large-scale Soviet and Cuban support; Somalia withdraws in 3/1978.

June 1978 Large Ethiopian offensive launched in Eritrea; most towns recaptured and EPLF retreats to Nakfa.

1979 Mengistu sets up Committee for Organising the Party of the Working People of Ethiopia (COPWE); all other political groups abolished.

1981 Civil war in Eritrea between ELF and EPLF.

1982 EPLF, with TPLF allies from Tigre, force ELF into exile in Sudan.

1984 Workers' Party of Ethiopia (WPE) established along Soviet lines with Mengistu as Secretary-General.

1985-6 Military successes against TPLF.

June 1986 Draft Constitution for eventual return to civilian government published.

February 1987 New Constitution endorsed by referendum.

June 1987 Elections held for new National Shengo (Assembly). First meeting of Shengo abolishes PMAC and renames country the People's Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (PDRE) under leadership of WPE; Mengistu elected President of PDRE.

1988 Serious military setbacks for Government in Eritrea and Tigre.

1989 Government abandons most of Tigre province to TPLF.

September 1989 TPLF establishes EPRDF as united front with Amhara-based EPDM. Unsuccessful peace negotiations between Government and EPLF.

1989-90 Unpopular `villigisation' programme leads to fall in agricultural production, exacerbating drought.

November 1989 EPRDF forces close in on Addis Ababa.

February 1990 EPLF captures Masawa. Peace talks between Government and EPLF broken off.

March 1990 Peace talks between Government and TPLF collapse. Socialism effectively abandoned by Mengistu Government; WPE becomes the EDUP and open to non-Marxists. Moves towards market economy begin, but economy close to collapse.

January 1991 EPRDF announces moderate, non-Marxist programme, which wins United States support.

April 1991 Further gains by EPRDF forces near Addis Ababa. EPLF close in on Assab.

21 May 1991 Mengistu flees Ethiopia and goes into exile in Zimbabwe; Vice-President Lt-Gen Tesfaye Gebre Kidan assumes control of Government.

28 May 1991 EPRDF forces enter Addis Ababa, with public support of United States; EPRDF establishes interim Government. At the same time EPLF establishes provisional administration in Eritrea, effectively seceding from Ethiopia.

July 1991 National conference attended by 20 political and ethnically-based groups establishes Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE); TPLF leader and EPRDF Chairman Meles Zenawi becomes President, with Tamirat Layne Prime Minister. 32 political groups represented on Council of Representatives, including the OLF, which also holds four Ministerial positions on Council of Ministers.

August 1991 EPRDF and OLF supporters clash, although OLF remains in TGE.

November 1991 14 new autonomous administrative regions established, broadly reflecting ethnic boundaries.

1991-2 Relations between EPRDF and OLF deteriorate; clashes between rival EPRDF and OLF supporters in Oromo region. US and EPLF broker cease-fire between EPRDF and OLF supporters in 4/1992.

June 1992 OLF and other groups boycott regional elections. EPRDF and allies win over 90% of votes cast. OLF withdraws from TGE and goes into armed opposition. OLF forces capture Asbe Teferi but Government forces retake the town.

October 1992 Talks between TGE and OLF unsuccessful; hostilities continue.

December 1992 By mid-12/1992 Government holding 20,000 prisoners of war in conflict with OLF.

January 1993 Security forces suppress student demonstration in Addis Ababa; one student killed. Government Commission of enquiry, reporting in 1/1994, blames organisers for the disturbances.

April 1993 Referendum in Eritrea approves independence from Ethiopia.

24 May 1993 Eritrea achieves formal independence, with recognition from Ethiopia.

July 1993 Differences emerge within elements of EPRDF over regionalisation and economic reform.

June 1994 EPRDF wins large majority of seats in elections to new Constituent Assembly. Polls boycotted by OLF, AAPO and CAFPDE.

October 1994 Constituent Assembly inaugurated.

December 1994 Constituent Assembly approves new Constitution, establishing federal system of government with nine ethnically-based national states and the federal capital territory. Constituent Assembly replaced by bicameral Federal Parliamentary Assembly (FPA), made up of the Council of People's Representatives (CPR) and the Council of the Federation.

December 1994 Trial of Dergue officials begins, including Mengistu. Trials held by SPO, created in 1992 to investigate and try cases of human rights abuses committed under the Mengistu administration.

May 1995 Elections to the CPR and national state assemblies, boycotted by most opposition parties, produce landslide win for EPRDF and allies. Largest participating opposition party, the ENDM, fails to win a single seat. Elections deemed to be largely free and fair by international observers.

June 1995 Pro-EPRDF parties secure narrow victory in Afar and Somali national state elections.

July 1995 Ethiopian forces make raids into Somalia to attack bases of al-Ittihad al-Islamia terrorists; further raids made 1996-1999.

21 August 1995 Legislative power transferred to new FPA.

22 August 1995 TGE wound-up as new Constitution becomes effective. Country renamed the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE). Dr Negasso Gidada, an ethnic Oromo, elected first President of FDRE by FPA.

23 August 1995 Meles Zenawi, President under TGE, elected first Prime Minister of FDRE by CPR.

September 1995 Government launches drive against corruption.

October 1995 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defence Tamirat Layne removed from office on suspicion of corruption.

September 1997 SPO trial of 5,198 accused of genocide and other war crimes committed under Mengistu administration commences at Federal High Court in Addis Ababa.

6 May 1998 Border dispute between Ethiopia and Eritrea leads to armed clashes along the border, centred on the Badme area.

5 June 1998 Eritrea aircraft bomb Mekele in northern Ethiopia, killing 44. Ethiopia launches air attacks on Asmara airport in Eritrea.

15 June 1998 Ethiopia and Eritrea accept a US-brokered agreement to halt air-strikes against each other.

December 1998 AAPO Chairman Professor Asrat Woldeyes released from prison and leaves Ethiopia for USA for medical treatment.

February 1999 Resumption of heavy fighting in border dispute with Eritrea; Ethiopian aircraft and helicopters used in violation of moratorium on air strikes agreed in June 1998.

April 2000 Ethiopia and Eritrea agree to attend peace talks in Algiers.

May 2000 Ethiopia launches all-out offensive against Eritrea to recapture land occupied by Eritrea since 5/1998; Ethiopia recaptures all occupied land by end May 2000.

May 2000 Ruling EPRDF coalition wins national elections but loses ground to opposition parties and independents in some regional elections.

18 July 2000 Ethiopia and Eritrea sign cease-fire agreement; Eritrea agrees to UN border monitoring force within its territory.

October 2000 Ethiopia and Eritrea agree to further talks in Algiers aimed at resolving border dispute and making June 2000 cease-fire permanent.

November 2000 Haile Selassie buried in Addis Ababa's Trinity Cathedral.

12 December 2000 Ethiopia and Eritrea sign peace agreement ending border war, which establishes commissions to mark the border exchange prisoners, return displaced people and hear compensation claims.

24 February 2001 Ethiopia announces it has completed its troop withdrawal from Eritrea in accordance with a United Nations-sponsored agreement to end the border war.

March 2001 Meles Zenawi says he has thwarted an attempt to cause political upheaval by a dissident group in the dominant Tigre People's Liberation Front.

April 2001 Thousands of demonstrators clash with police in Addis Ababa in protest against police brutality and in support of calls for political and academic freedom.

12 May 2001 Intelligence and security chief Kinfe Gebre-Medhin - a key ally of Prime Minister Meles Zenawi - assassinated as he entered an armed forces officers' club in Addis Ababa.

21 May 2001 Ethiopia and Eritrea agree on a UN-proposed mediator to try to

demarcate the disputed border.

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ANNEX B

GENERAL ELECTION RESULTS, MAY/AUGUST 2000

PARTY	Abr	SEATS
OROMO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**OPDO**	**178**
AMHARA NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT	**ANDM**	**134**
TIGRAY PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT	**TPLF**	**38**
WALAYTA, GAMO, GOGA, DAWRO, AND KONTA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**WGGPDO**	**30**
ETHIOPIAN PEOPLE'S REVOLUTIONARY DEMOCRATIC FRONT	**EPRDF**	**19**
SOMALI PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC PARTY	**SPDF**	**19**
SIDAMA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**SPDO**	**18**
GURAGE NATIONALITIES DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT	**GNDM**	**15**
KAFA SHAKA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**KSPDO**	**10**
AFAR NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY	**ANDP**	**8**
GEDEYO PEOPLE'S REVOLUTIONARY DEMOCRATIC FRONT	**GPRDF**	**7**
SOUTH OMO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT	**SOPDM**	**7**
BENISHANGUL GUMUZ PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC UNITY FRONT	**BGPDUF**	**6**
KEMBATA, ALABAA AND TEMBARO	**KAT**	**6**
BENCH MADJI PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**BMPDO**	**5**
HADIJA NATION DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**HNDO**	**5**
GAMBELLA PEOPLE'S DEMOCARTIC FRONT	**GPDF**	**3**
SOUTH ETHIOPIA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC FRONT	**SEPDF**	**3**
COUNCIL OF ALTERNATIVE FORCES FOR PEACE AND DEMOCRACY IN ETHIOPIA	**CAFPDE**	**2**
DERASHE PEOPLE'S DEMOCARTIC ORGANISATION	**DPDO**	**2**
ETHIOPIAN DEMOCRATIC PARTY	**EDP**	**2**
HADIJA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**HPDO**	**2**
SOUTH ETHIOPAN PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC UNION	**SEPDU**	**2**
ALL-AMHARA PEOPLE'S ORGANISATION	**AAPO**	**1**
ARGOBA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT	**APDM**	**1**
BURGI PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC UNION	**BPDU**	**1**
GAMBELLA PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC CONGRESS	**GPDC**	**1**
KONSO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**KPDO**	**1**
KORE NATIONALITY DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**KNDO**	**1**
OROMO LIBERATION UNITY FRONT	**OLUF**	**1**

OROMO NATIONAL CONGRESS	**ONC**	**1**
OYDA NATIONALITY DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**ONDO**	**1**
SIDAMA HADICHO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC ORGANISATION	**SHPDO**	**1**
SILTE PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC UNITY PARTY	**SPDUP**	**1**
YEM PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC UNITY PARTY	**YPDUP**	**1**
INDEPENDANTS		
TOTAL	**--**	**546**

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ANNEX C

MAIN POLITICAL ORGANISATIONS

Abugda Ethiopian Democratic Congress - ethnic-based organisation seeking self-determination

All-Ethiopian Unity Organisation (AEUO) – New name for the All-Amhara People's Organisation (AAPO). See AAPO.

Afar People's Democratic Organisation (APDO) - formerly the Afar Liberation Front, supports the EPRDF. Runs Afar military force set up in 1996 to combat attacks by ARDUF. Leader Ali Mirah

Afar Revolutionary Democratic Unity Front (ARDUF) - armed opposition group seeking self-determination for the Afar people, in on-going negotiations with Federal Government

Al-Ittihad al-Islamia (Islamic Union Party) - Somalia-based armed opposition group seeking self-determination for the Somali-populated Ogaden district

All-Amhara People's Organisation (AAPO) - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination for the Amhara people. Former Chairman Professor Asrat Woldeyes, imprisoned 1994 to December 1998, died in USA May 1999. In August 2002 the AAPO changed its name to the All-Ethiopian Unity Organisation (AEUO).

All-Ethiopia Socialist Movement (MEISON) - see **COEDF**

Amhara National Democratic Movement (ANDM) - formed as the EPDM by the TPLF to campaign in Amhara-populated areas, re-named the ANDM in January 1994. Formed the EPRDF with the TPLF in September 1989. Secretary-General Deputy Prime Minister Tefera Walwa

Burji People's Democratic Organisation - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Coalition of Alternative Forces for Peace and Democracy in Ethiopia (CAFPDE) - formed 1993, broadly-based coalition of groups opposed to the EPRDF. Granted official registration July 1996. EPRDF pressure and influence over the media, as well as CAFPDE's own divisions, have limited the group's impact. Chairman Dr Beyene Petros (also Chairman of SEPDU)

Coalition of Ethiopian Democratic Forces (COEDF) - formed 1991 in USA by the EPRP with a faction of the EDU and MEISON, opposed to the EPRDF. Chairman Mersha Yoseph

Committee for Organising the Party of the Working People of Ethiopia (COPWE) - set up by Mengistu in 1979, precursor of the WPE

Daworo People's Democratic Movement - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Democratic Unity Party – Party opposed to EPRDF. Chairman Ahmad Abd al-Karim

Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF) - fought in alliance with TPLF/EPRDF against Mengistu Government, formed provisional administration of Eritrea May 1991 and Government of independent Eritrea May 1993

Ethiopian Democratic Action Group - Chairman Ephrem Zemikael

Ethiopian Democratic Organisation - see **ENDP**

Ethiopian Democratic Organisation Coalition - see **ENDP**

Ethiopian Democratic Party (EDP) - formed in early 2000 Secretary General Lidetu Ayalew legally registered party took part in May 2000 elections.

Ethiopian Democratic Union (EDU) - see **COEDF**

Ethiopian Democratic Unity Party (EDUP) - replaced the WPE in March 1990 and abandoned the WPE's reliance on Marxist-Leninist doctrine, the sole legal party until May 1991. Secretary-General Lt-Gen Tesfaye Gebre Kidan

Ethiopian Medhin Democratic Party (MEDHIN) - group that does not recognise EPRDF-led Government as a legitimate authority and therefore cannot participate in the normal political process. Leader Colonel Goshu Wolde

Ethiopian National Democratic Movement (ENDM) - largest opposition group to participate in the May 1995 Council of People's Representatives (CPR) & National State elections, failing to win a single seat.

Ethiopian National Democratic Organisation (ENDO) – One of many opposition groups opposed to EPRDF.

Ethiopian National Democratic Party (ENDP) - formed 1994 by the merger of five pro-Government organisations with members in the Council of Representatives: the Ethiopian Democratic Organisation, the Ethiopian Democratic Organisation Coalition, the Gurage People's Democratic Front, the Kembata People's Congress and the Wolaita People's Democratic Front. Chairman Fekadu Gedamu

Ethiopian National Patriotic Front (ENPF) - Amhara-based opposition group accused by the Government of involvement in terrorist acts.

Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement (EPDM) - see **ANDM**

Ethiopian People's Democratic Unity Organisation - opposed to EPRDF. Leader Tadese Tilahun

Eritrean People's Liberation Front-Democratic Party – New party set up on the internet in January 2002. Party is run and funded from abroad.

Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) - formed September 1989 by the TPLF as an alliance of anti-Mengistu/WPE groups. Ousted Mengistu Government May 1991 in alliance with EPLF. Dominant party in the TGE from July 1991 onwards. Present governing party of the FDRE. Leader Prime Minister Meles Zenawi. The EPRDF comprises the TPLF, the ANDM and the OPDO

Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Party (EPRP) - see **COEDF**

Ethiopian Somali Democratic League (ESDL) - formed 1994 by the merger of 11 Ethiopian Somali organisations. Merged with other Somali groups June 1998 to form the Somali Democratic Party (SDP) - see **SDP**

Gedeo People's Democratic Organisation - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination. Leader Alesa Mengesha

Gurage People's Democratic Front - see **ENDP**

Hadia People's Democratic Organisation - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Harer National League - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Islamic Front for the Liberation of Oromia - see **UOLF**

Islamic Unity Party - see **al-Ittihad al-Islamia**

Jarso Democratic Movement - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Kaffa People's Democratic Union - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Kefa People's Democratic Movement - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Kembata People's Congress - see **ENDP**

MEDHIN - see Ethiopian Medhin Democratic Party

MEISON - see All-Ethiopia Socialist Movement

Moa Ambessa Party - opposed to EPRDF, monarchist party

National Democratic Union - opposed to EPRDF

Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF) - Somali organisation, elements of which are in armed opposition to the Government and, from July 1996, in alliance with the OLF; other elements merged with the ESDL to form the SDP

Oromo Abo Liberation Front (OALF) - Oromo organisation operating in coalition with OPDO and UOLF. Chairman Mohammed Sirage

Oromo Liberation Front (OLF) - became active in the 1980s, participated in the TGE until June 1992, since when it has been in armed opposition to the TGE and the EPRDF-led Government of the FDRE. In alliance with armed wing of the ONLF from July 1996. They advocate self-determination for the Oromo People and the use of Oromo language and culture. Secretary-General Gelassa Dilbo, Vice Secretary-General Lencho Letta

Oromo National Congress (ONC) – (see section on Ethnic Groups)

Oromo People's Democratic Organisation (OPDO) - formed 1990 by the TPLF to campaign in Oromo areas, opposed to the OLF. Part of the EPRDF alliance. Operates in coalition with OALF and UOLF. Deputy Secretary-General Kuma Demeksa. The OPDO's Dr Negasso Gidada has been President of the FDRE since 8/1995

Oromo People's Liberation Front - see **UOLF**

Sidama Liberation Movement - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

Somali Abo Liberation Front (SALF) - operates in the Bale district of the Somali National State, received military assistance from Somalia in the mid-1980s. Secretary-General Masurad Shu'abi Ibrahim

Somali Democratic Party (SDP) - formed June 1998 by merger of the ESDL and elements of the ONLF. Leader Dr Abd-al Majid Husayn, Federal Transport and Communications Minister

Southern Ethiopian People's Democratic Union (SEPDU) - alliance formed 1992 by 10 ethnically-based political groups in southern Ethiopia, represented in the Council of Representatives, although 5 of the 10 groups were expelled from the Council in April 1993. Chairman Dr Beyene Petros (also Chairman of CAFPDE)

Tigray People's Liberation Front (TPLF) - formed 1975 to fight for independence of Tigray province. Dominant group within the EPRDF, formed in 1989. Leader Prime Minister Meles Zenawi

United Oromo Liberation Front (UOLF) - formed 1995 by merger of Oromo People's Liberation Front and Islamic Front for the Liberation of Oromia. Operates in coalition with OALF and OPDO. Chairman Ahmad Muhammad Saro

Western Somali Liberation Front (WSLF) - invaded Ogaden district with Somalian Government backing in 1977, defeated in 1978. Maintains guerrilla force in Ogaden. Secretary-General Issa Shaykh Abdi Nasir Adan

Wolaita People's Democratic Front - see **ENDP**

Workers' Party of Ethiopia (WPE) - formed 1984 by Mengistu, renamed the EDUP in March 1990, the sole legal party until May 1991

Yem Nationality Movement - ethnic-based group seeking self-determination

[1][2][7a][7d][26][31]

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ANNEX D

PROMINENT PEOPLE PAST & PRESENT*

Dr **Abd-al** Majid Husayn - Chairman of the SDP and Federal Transport and Communications Minister 1998

Ali Mirah - Leader of the APDO

Lt-Gen **Aman** Andom (General **Aman**) - Head of State and Chairman of the Dergue September 1974, assassinated November 1974

Professor **Asrat** Woldeyes, Chairman of the AAPO, held in prison from 1994 to December 1998 when he left Ethiopia for the USA for medical treatment, died in USA May 1999, buried in Addis Ababa June 1999

Lt-Col **Atnafu** Abate - Vice-Chairman of the Dergue, along with Col Mengistu, 1974

Dr **Beyene** Petros - Chairman of CAFPDE and the SEPDU. Member of the Ethiopian parliament.

Fekadu Gedamu - Chairman of the ENDP

Gelassa Dilbo - Secretary-General of the OLF

Girma Wolde Giorgis – Current Ethiopian President; Born 1917 in Addis Ababa; ethnic Oromo.

Lencho Letta - Vice Secretary-General of the OLF

Meles Zenawi - TPLF leader and Chairman of the EPRDF, President of Ethiopia July 1991-August 1995, Prime Minister of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia August 1995 to the present

Emperor **Menelik** - Modernising and unifying ruler in late nineteenth century, died 1911. Founded Addis Ababa in the late 1880s, defeated the Italians in 1896

Lt-Col **Mengistu** Haile Mariam (Col **Mengistu**) - Doctrinaire Marxist who assumed power February 1977, Secretary-General of the WPE from 1984, President of the People's Democratic Republic of Ethiopia from 1987 until he fled in May 1991; lives in exile in Zimbabwe

Mersha Yoseph - Chairman of COEDF

Ambassador **Muhammad** Dirir - Secretary of the SDP 1998

Muhammad Ma'lim Ali - Vice-Chairman of the Somali Democratic Party (SDP) and President of the Somali National State 1998

Dr **Negasso** Gidada - President of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia from 1995 until May 2000, ethnic Oromo, member of the EPRDF-allied OPDO

Emperor **Haile Selassie** - Regent 1916, King 1928, Emperor from 1930 until deposed in 1974, died in military custody 1975

Tamirat Layne - Vice-Chairman of the EPRDF, Chairman of the ANDM, Prime Minister of Ethiopia July 1991, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defence of the Federal Republic of Ethiopia August to October 1995. Removed from office October 1995; tried on corruption charges found guilty in February 2000 and sentenced to 18 years imprisonment.

Dr **Taye** Woldesemayat - Secretary-General of the Ethiopian Teachers' Association, arrested August 1996 and held in detention until his release in May 2002, charged with involvement in terrorist acts allegedly committed by the ENPF.

Tefera Walwa - Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defence of the FDRE since October 1995, Secretary-General of the EPRDF-allied ANDM

Brig-Gen **Teferi** Benti - Replaced General Aman as Chairman of the Dergue and Head of State November 1974, executed by Mengistu February 1977

Lt-Gen **Tesfaye** Gebre Kidan - Vice-President under Mengistu who briefly assumed control of the PDRE after Mengistu fled Ethiopia in May 1991; Secretary-General of the EDUP

[1][2][26]

*** = It is more usual for people in Ethiopia and Eritrea to be addressed by the first name. This is reflected in this list and at times in the text of this assessment.**

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