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NATIONAL HUMAN SETTLEMENT SITUATION ASSESSMENT AND PLAN OF ACTION

(Report Prepared for Human settlement conference Habitat II)

February 1996
Addis Ababa

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ABBREVIATIONS

A.A	Addis Ababa
ADLI	Agriculture Development Led Industrialization
CSA	Central Statistics Authority
EELPA	Ethiopia Electric Light and Power Authority
MEDC	Ministry of Economic and Development Co-operation
MWUD	Ministry of Works and Urban Development
NAP	Not Applicable
NAV	Not Available
NUPI	National Urban Planning Institute
UDSS	Urban Development Support Service
WSSA	Water and Sewerage Service Authority

I. INTRODUCTION

Ethiopia has a total area of about 1.1 million square kilometers and has a total projected population of 56.7 million from which the urban population living in 302 towns in 1995 was estimated to be 8.9 million or 15.3% out of the total population.

Out of the total population living in the urban areas, Addis Ababa, the capital city, alone accounted for over one-fourth of the entire urban population; thus indicating a lop-sided urban development pattern.

In the previous regimes, urban development and housing were mainly determined by landlordism, and in the Derge regime due to a centrally planned economic and political system the shelter problem of the urban poor was never given due consideration. The artificial shortage of urban land resulting from the concentration of the land in the hands of the few, the waste of scarce resources on the construction of government-owned houses resulted in unmanageable urban development and a serious shortage of housing construction and irrational use of land condemned the majority of the urban population to live in a highly congested and unhealthy environment.

The current political framework that gives much emphasis for the principle of decentralization of power and responsibility is conducive for urban development management. This will reduce hierarchies and create the conditions for the real participation of urban people in managing urban affairs.

However, due to the ever-increasing price of building materials the high interest rates and the low income of the urban population, housing construction has not progressed as needed, and the vast majority of the urban population continues to live in sub-standard housing conditions.

This report is prepared with the basic objective of highlighting some of the conceptual issues involved in human settlement planning development and management at national, regional and local levels. Since the 1976 Vancouver conference on human settlement many countries of the world, especially in the developing world have realized the need to plan the distribution of their population more rationally and to provide basic needs such as shelter infrastructure and services for their populations with some successes and failures. At this time, Ethiopia has witnessed structural transformation in the management of its political, social, economic and environmental development.

This report is divided into five major parts. Following the introduction, in part II the historical, political and economic factors for the growth of urban center in the country is discussed. Part III has provided a report on the country housing and urban socio-economic conditions, based on a sample survey taken in September 1995 in 12 intermediate towns which are in hierarchy 2nd to 25th of the total urban centers.

In Part IV major elements of Ethiopia's human settlements programs and the major problem of human settlement planning development and management have been discussed synoptically.

In Part V, the National Plan of Action which shows future prospects, based on the general commitments of government policies has been presented. In this part, the major issues of human settlement, planning development and management in Ethiopia with particular reference to policy issues, shelter, land, infrastructure and services, public participation, institution and major issues is explained. Finally, basic urban and housing indicators based on the standard format from Habitat or the United Nation center for human settlements is attached.

2. Urbanization in Ethiopia

2.1 History of Urbanization

It is hardly possible to see the present urbanization character in Ethiopia isolated from its historical background. Urbanization in Ethiopia dates back to the fourth century state of Axum. During this period there were important towns serving as centers of commerce, administration and culture. In the mid 11th century the Zagwe Dynasty abandoned Axum and built its capital to the south at Lalibela. Four centuries later still another type of urban civilization flourished in Gondar.

Trade accounted for the growth of a number of towns. The concentration of the seat of governments in the north had given northern Ethiopia the opportunity for an early experience in urbanization. However, there were also exceptionally historic towns whose growth were significant in the south and east such as Harar and Jimma.

Urbanization in the periods before the 19th century was very limited, largely as a result of the lack of peace as well as by the low level of trade and the frequent transfer of the military headquarters by the kings and feudal nobilities. The 19th century, the Menelik's period witnessed the establishment of a number of new settlements, by far the most important being Addis Ababa.

The development of roads and communication lines and services was some sign of a change in a few urban areas. The Addis - Djibouti Railway line, which reached Addis Ababa in 1917, was the most important. Along this railway line emerged several towns. The development of transportation and communication systems, the construction industry and factories created a work force living in urban centers. This created a new economic group which lived by catering for the needs of the wage earners.

Large scale urbanization is said to have started during the Italian occupation. There was an exodus of people to urban centers due to the war which loosened the rural social structure. After 1941 modernization of administration and tax reform as well as economic development accelerated the rate of urbanization.

In general, there is an inter-regional disparity in the level of urbanization. The central region is the most urbanized, followed by the north. Contrary to this the south, western and eastern regions are the least urbanized. The total urbanization of Ethiopia is ranked as one of the least urbanized countries in Africa, since its urbanization trend is a half lower than the average urbanization in Africa, which is 30%

2.2 Population Dynamism

The population of Ethiopia was 24,068,000 in 1970 when about 10% resided in urban centers. For the years 1965-1970 the annual population growth rate was 2.5% only, while the urban population growth rate was 6.6%.

According to the C.S.A. report 1984, the total population increased to 42,019,418, where the rural and urban population constituted 88.7% and 11.3% respectively. Moreover, the present urbanization level is estimated to be only 14.7%, which is far below the average urbanization level for other African countries.

In urban Ethiopia females outnumber males. The early 1970 census disclosed females to be 11% more than males. The 1992 C.S.A. report also confirmed the sex ratio to be 92.8%. This is due to the higher proportion of female migrants fleeing from the hard rural life, looking forward to a better employment opportunity.

The rate of urban population growth showed a continuous decline, being more than 6% 1965-1970, and 4% for the years 1970-1984. The early escalation was due to the high rural-urban migration following industrialization especially in Addis Ababa. The level of servicing and infrastructure development was not maintained. The industrialization rate also stagnated or declined both in structure and size resulting in a low level of urbanization.

Table - 1

Urbanization in Ethiopia (1940 - 1993)

Year	Rate of Urbanization
1940	3.0
1967	8.5
1970	9.7
1984	11.4
1993	(Projected) 14.6
2000	17.6
2020	29.1

The rate of urbanization was 3.0% in 1940. It grew to 11.4% in 1984. It is projected that, by the year 2000, 17.6% of the total population will live in urban areas and this is expected to increase to 29.1% by the year 2020 (Table - 1)

2.3 The Urban System

Ethiopia has a total land area of 1.0 million square kilometers and a population of 51.6 millions (1992); hence there is a national average population density of about 51.6 persons per square kilometer. However a close look at land use population distribution and settlement patterns reveals that the concentration of population varies throughout the country.

Historically, urbanization dates back to the periods of Axum (before the 4th century), Lalibela (11th century) and the Gondar Dynasties, (16th century). However, many scholars argue that the present form of urbanization started in the 19th century during the reign of Menelik II. The relative improvement in the transportation and communication systems encouraged people to settle in new areas. Later, for consolidating their military and political power, the Italians constructed significant all-weather roads. They also established new towns and broadened the economic base of the existing towns without questioning the economic viability of the towns for their regions or without due regard for building up a functional national urban system.

The degree of urbanization at the national level being very low, there is uneven urbanization both in size and in number between regions. Therefore, only a few urban centers account for the large proportion of the total urban population. The urban system of Ethiopia can be characterized by the absence of a well-structured urban hierarchy, predominated by the only primate city, Addis Ababa, with a limited number of intermediate urban centers and numerous small towns.

The existing weak linkage between urban centers led to more or less isolated urban settlement with no definite socio-economic importance in their local, regional or national context. Due to their limited manufacturing activities most of these centers stand as facilitators of the one way resource flow, from their rural hinterland. In general poor infrastructural development coupled with low level economic growth have contributed to the low level of urban rural integration.

In Ethiopia, the accepted population threshold to qualify a settlement as urban is 2000. According to this criteria there are 302 spatially dispersed urban settlements with an estimated total population of 8.3 million or 15.3% of the total population.

The Ministry of Works and Urban Development categorised these urban centres into five groups, where the 23.9% are in level one (2000-4999). Level two constituted 58.9% of the urban centres. Urban centres with a population more than 20,000 (level 3-5) constitute 17.2%, in which 62.7% of the total urban population reside. Addis Ababa, the only primate city, constitutes 28.6% of the total population, picturing the disproportionate development trend in the urban system.

Table - 2

Distribution of Towns and Their Population According to Level of Urbanisation. (Estimates for 1992)

Level of Urbanisation	Population Class	No. of Towns	%	Population	Average Size Population
1	2,000-4,999	72	23.9	269,847	3.7
2	5,000-19,999	178	58.9	2,478,156	33.6
3	20,000-59,999	39	12.9	1,200,340	16.3
4	60,000-249,999	12	4.0	1,314,538	17.8
5	250,000+	1	0.3	2,111,500	28.6
		302	100	7,374,381	100

Source : CSA, 1990

This hierarchy of urban structure indicates the typical primacy of Addis Ababa over all others, where the next largest town Direedawa has only about 7% the population of Addis Ababa.

The low level of urbanisation, combined with the very few medium sized towns, has led to a great migration of the rural population towards Addis Ababa. (see table - 3)

Table - 3

Distribution of In, Out, Net and Gross Movement
of Life Time Migrants of Addis Ababa, 1984

Total Population	In Migration	Out Migration	Net Migration	Index of Net Migration	Gross Movement
1	2	3	4=2-3	5=4/1	6=2+3
1,422,439	643,366	72,196	571,170	40.2	715,562

Source : C.S.A. 1984 population and housing census

This high rate of migration has caused stress on the very low level of services available. This calls upon the development of medium size towns to curb migration and reduce the disparity in the development of urban centres in the country.

Due to their historic development, urban centres are situated either at places assumed to be strategic for military garrisons or in the later developments along highways or railway lines. Moreover, the growth of these centres was not planned. Of the total 302 urban centres, 60.3% have master plans and detailed plans and about 14 towns have revised plans. The remaining towns have either temporary plans or no plans at all.

Nowadays the low level of proper planning and economic capability have put urban centres under a serious threat of environmental degradation. The lack of access roads, a proper drainage and sewerage system, and the low level of social facilities and amenities, are major problems. The lack of proper solid waste disposal system has led road sides and ditches to be dumping spaces for litter. Other than the low level of economic prosperity, the nature of urban growth hinders the proper zoning of functions and servicing.

3. The Urban and Shelter Situation

3.1 Urban Situation

3.1.1 Socio-Economic Condition

Employment Situation and Poverty

Urban centres in Ethiopia are characterised by a variety of socio-economic problems, mainly poverty, the higher rate of dependency, unemployment, and illiteracy. According to a recent report by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs for the years 1990-1994, registered job seekers were 242,798, while the total number placed in the different sectors of the economy were 12661 or 5.21%.

Table - 4

Registered Job Seekers and Job Placements 1990-1994

No.	Years	Total no. of Registered Job Seekers	Total no. of Job Placements Effectuated	Percentage of Job Placement
1	1990/91	44,313	5,665	12.75
2	1991/92	70,862	3,515	4.96
3	1992/93	62,941	1874	2.98
4	1993/94	64,682	1667	2.48
	Total	242,798	12,661	5.21

Source : Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs

Note: Placements indicated are only those which were effected through the employment exchange offices. The actual magnitude can be higher, as the employing organisations by virtue of the new labour law can recruit and place job seekers on their own.

The share of urban employment makes less than 10% of the total force in the country since about 90% are engaged in agriculture. A recent sample survey for twelve towns in the country showed household heads who are government employees make 24.3%, while self-employed and daily labourers constitute 39.3%. The remaining 36.4% collect their living from other sources such as pensions or assistance from relatives. Considering the monthly earnings of these households, 54.5% have an income below Birr 300 (about 50 U.S. dollars) or about 94% are earning below Birr 1000 (about 160 U.S. dollars).

Since a large proportion of urban dwellers remain at a near subsistence income level, little real progress is seen in the socio-economic development of urban centres. Strengthening the economic base and employment structure requires upgrading the commercial and market function of these urban centres as well as encouraging the informal sector and small-scale entrepreneurs.

3.1.2. Infrastructure and Environmental Management

3.1.2.1 Infrastructure

A. Water

It is one of the basic necessities of human beings to protect themselves from sanitation hazards. As socio-economic activities develop the standard of living of the population will also improve and thus the demand for water increases. Therefore, the degree of urbanization and the demand of water have a positive relationship.

According to WSSA, which is a government institution responsible to administer and deliver pure water for the population in Ethiopia, the average minimal daily per capita requirement of water for the rural areas is about 20 liters while in urban areas it varies between 50-100 liters accordingly to the degree of urbanization, climate, standard of living of the population, cultural conditions and the availability of water.

The report from the Water and Sewerage Service Authority (WSSA) in 1993 displayed that about 212 urban areas were served by pure water from ground water sources. In these urban centers about 76% of the population had access to safe water. However, this percentage did not mean that the demand and the supply was at an equilibrium. The supply by far lagged behind the need. This was due to the saturation of the water supply before the phasing out of a designed period as a result of the unexpected population growth, without providing new additional sources of safe water. The institute faced the problem of lack of finance, skilled manpower equipment and spare parts to investigate additional sources of water to satisfy the need of the rapid population growth. The existing water supply was not fully functional as a consequence of shortcoming of maintenance capacity.

A survey result in 1995 of 12 urban areas indicate that out of the total households (198,982) 34.1% have private pipe water, 46.1% communal tap water and 15.2% consume unsafe water from wells, streams, lakes and dams while 4.6% consume from other sources. Households which obtain water from other sources consume irregularly safe and unprotected water interchangeably. (Annex - 1)

The survey also envisaged that of all the households 72.3% have access to potable water located within 200 meters' distance. However, the above percentage displayed merely the existence of a distribution of safe water within 200 meters' distance but the conformity of supply and demand are not balanced as mentioned in the above. (Annex - 2)

Table - 5 shows that the daily production of the nine urban centers is 19,059.6 m³ pure water. The per capita production is on an average 18.48 liters on the contrary the total daily consumption is 16,432.7 m³ and the average per capita consumption is 16.19 liters. Daily average minima requirement of these urban areas is estimated to be 93 liters. The daily average production is only about 1/5 of the daily minimum requirement and the actual consumption is about 17.4% of the requirement. This situation implies an acute shortage of potable water.

Table - 5

Average Daily Production, Consumption and Requirement of Water in Major Urban Areas (liter)

Urban centre	Population	Production		Consumption		Average Minimum Daily Requirement
		amount	percapita	amount	percapita	
*Awassa	57263	2,166,667	37.84	2,133,333	37.25	70
Bahirdar	115641	1,666,667	14.41	1,500,000	12.97	100
Dessie	1122886	2,300,400	18.72	1,995,340	15.91	100
*Diredawa	180718	4,566,667	25.27	4,550,000	25.18	100
Gondar	135205	1,464,764	10.83	1,138,359	8.42	100
*Harar	115581	2,866,667	24.80	2,833,333	24.51	100
*Jimma	114702	1,000,000	8.72	533,333	4.65	100
Mekelle	166052	2,307,803	13.90	1,213,032	7.31	100
Nekempt	60673	720,000	11.87	576,000	9.49	70
Total	1,068,721	19,059,635	18.48	16,432,730	16.19	93

Source: 1995 survey and 1993 WSSA

* 1993 production and consumption

These urban areas have a better development and the supply is also in a good condition than other urban areas. By virtue of this fact the magnitude of the shortage of safe water is relatively more serious in smaller urban areas.

The above table verifies that the production and actual consumption has a significant variation. There is about 13.8% of wastage from the production as a result of long period service after the phasing out of design period of the water supply plant with limited maintenance and over capacity working.

The price of water the government institution distributes to individual customers is a m³ of water at a price of 0.08 - 0.40 US dollars in all seasons. But some of the individual customers sell a cubic meter of water for \$4.37 to those who have no access to private or communal connections at times of acute shortage. According to the WSSA the production of a m³ water is about 0.12-0.16 US dollars on the average. The cost of production is higher than the price. This may be one of the main reasons why there is no sustainable development of water supplies in the urban areas and hence aggravates the shortage of supply.

In general, all urban centres have no access to pure water. Though about 212 urban areas are served by potable water, the distribution covers only 76% of the population. The supply of water on the average is under 1/5 of the daily minimum requirement. The institution which is responsible to deliver and administer pure water faced financial, skilled manpower, equipment and rapid population growth drawbacks for the coverage of all areas.

B. Roads

It is one of the core physical infrastructures for the socio-economic development of any society. In Ethiopia most of the urban areas established and expanded parallel to the major road which passes through the centre and connects the urban areas to other regions. Few short distance roads vertically connected to the main one may also exist.

The establishment and expansion of the urban areas parallel to main roads may be one of the drawbacks in the management, supply and distribution of urban infrastructures and facilities. Moreover it is a constraint for the achievement of efficient urban land use and an effective inter-urban transport system.

Most of the urban areas established in unplanned situations have no master plan. As a consequence of this, the existing road conditions are not good and hinder further development. Most of the roads in the old urban settlements were not constructed according to the future development needs of the areas. The problem of access roads is mostly severe in central, congested and unplanned areas than in the new planned settlements.

The preparation of a master plan began in 1960's for a handful of urban areas, especially in Addis Ababa. The exposure in most urban areas is therefore a new phenomenon. The applicability is transmitted from better urban areas to smaller towns. Even those urban centres which have master plans with appropriate road designs have been left only on paper as a result of various shortcomings.

The limited urban road networks lack related facilities like footpaths, drainage, traffic lights and control, parking and terminals. Because of this, most drivers use footpaths for the parking of heavy trucks and the pedestrians are forced to share the roadways with them. This will be a cause of accidents. In addition to this due to a shortage of drainage it is common to see an over-flow of flood water on roads in the rainy season, which causes the disruption of traffic and damages the road.

Table -6 shows that the type and length of roads in some urban areas. There was a total of 746,770 metre length roads; of these 68.8% of the road is gravel. Asphalt and dusty roads account for 13.7% and 17.5% respectively. The proportion of asphalt roads is minimal compared to other types of roads, indicating the low level of modern road networks.

Table - 6

**Major Urban Centres Type and Length of Road in
Metre and Total Built-Up area 1993**

Urban Centre	Type and Length of Road				Area of Urban Centre M2
	Gravel	Dusty	Asphalt	Total	
Arbaminch	7,000	40,000	-	47,000	17,600,000
Awassa	153,800	42,590	9,000	205,390	32,000,000
Bahirdar	10,000	25,000	12,000	47,000	75,200,000
Diredawa	74,600	-	24,590	99,190	28,200,000
Gondar	3,600	5,800	21,500	30,900	48,000,000
Jimma	8340	16,720	22,230	47,290	63,000,000
Nazareth	257,000	-	13,000	270,000	32,600,000
Total	514,340	130,110	102,320	746,770	296,600,000
%	68.8	17.5	13.7	100	-

Source: Ministry of Works and Urban Development

On the other hand the average width of these roads was expected to be 6 metres, while the proportion of road areas to the total builtup area of these towns was 1.51%. This proportion is very low compared to the globally accepted and modern urban centres share of roads' width which is 20-25 per cent.

Regarding the present investment on road and related facilities in 1995, the result of 8 urban administrations indicated that the proportion of road investment out of the total revenue was 15 per cent. This means that the amount of investment for roads in these towns was 18% of their annual revenue collection. Similarly, the proportion of investment for roads to the recurrent expenditure was about 4 percent. The share of road investment to capital expenditure was more than 1/2, which was 52%. On the other hand, the average annual per capita expenditure on roads in these towns was about \$0.33. (Annex - 3)

To sum up, there is one major road which dissects most urban areas into two and a few internal roads connecting the major one, is a common feature in most cases. The problem of inadequate road networks is more serious in old settlement, overcrowded, central and unplanned areas than the periphery and planned new settlement areas. The constraint will be magnified at the time of fire accidents, floods, and in the disposal of waste. The existing road networks lack footpaths, a drainage system, traffic lights and control, parking and terminals. The limitation of internal roads within the urban areas prohibits easy movement of vehicles and geared the development and expansion of urban areas parallel to the major road only. This in turn creates a problem in the distribution and management of socio-economic activities as well as in the utilisation of urban land properly.

The planned roads sometimes will be closed or narrowed in some urban areas for the illegal appropriation of land, and the unawareness of the community due to the poor control mechanism of municipalities. Moreover the lack of proper maintenance also contributes to the damaging of many roads within a short times. Some land is converted into playgrounds and the disposal location for solid waste. In general, the maintenance and construction of new roads is out of the control of the financial, manpower and equipment capacity of urban administrations.

C. Energy

According to the urban development, housing and construction capacity strategy paper, the source of energy in the country is grouped into two i.e., cultural and modern. The cultural source of energy includes wood, charcoal and others, and the modern source of energy mainly uses electricity and petroleum. About 94% of the energy consumption is from cultural sources. Therefore the proportion of the modern source of energy is insignificant. Most of the energy generated is consumed domestically.

The paper also stated that in 1988 about 195 (84.1) urban centres had access to modern sources of energy. In the same way in 1992 the Ethiopian Electric Light and Power Authority (EELPA) had 428, 842 customers (beneficiaries). Of these customers more than three-quarters (85.4%) were householders. The rest, 12.8 and 1.6 per cent consumption, was for commerce and industry respectively. The low level by the proportion of consumption by commerce and industry could be a reflection of the under-development of the sectors; and thus the urban development is at an initial stage.

The supply of power is an essential pre-condition for industrial development, which in turn facilitate the expansion of economic activities in general and urban development ultimately.

The 1995 survey of 12 towns indicate that of the total housing unit about 142,750 (91.9%) have access to electricity with private or communal connections to the system. Similarly, 9.5% of the housing unit uses electricity for cooking purposes and about 3.5% use electricity for other purposes.

On the other hand, nearly 17.2% of the housing unit get lighting from gas sources and 38.7% and 3.3% of the housing use gas for cooking and other purposes respectively. About 0.4% of the housing stocks source of energy for lighting is from fuel wood. Parallel to this 84.8% of the housing source of energy is generated from fuel wood for cooking and 2647 dwellings need fuel wood for other purposes. For the preparation of food nearly 60.5% of the residents use charcoal and less than 1% use charcoal for other purposes.

Finally, the majority of the urban areas have no access to electricity, which could be discouraging for the expansion of small-scale industries, and urban development. Even though major urban areas have access to electricity, all their residents do not benefit. Therefore it requires extensive efforts to satisfy the needs of a high proportion of the urban population.

D. Education

In 1995, there were 90 elementary and 48 secondary and post-secondary educational institutions in 9 urban areas. On these educational facilities a total of 196,139 students attended school. Out of these enrolled students about 38.5% were in the secondary and post-secondary levels.

In the elementary level about 120,695 students registered. Of these students 50.2% were male and the rest 49.8% female. Similarly, in secondary and post-secondary schools there were 75,444 enrolled students. The proportion of female students was 49.3 per cent. (Annex - 4)

In these urban areas the expected age group population that might be enrolled in the educational services was 250,201 in the elementary and 219,171 in the secondary. From the expected age group total population the share of elementary and secondary educational facilities for female's was 46.8% and 50.7% respectively.

Based on the above assumption of the expected total population that should have had to elementary education only 48.2% benefited from the opportunity. Regarding the secondary and post-secondary education 34.4 per cent of the population had the chance to go to school. The share of female enrolled students out of the total expected female population for elementary education was 51.3 per cent, while for males 45.6 per cent. On the other hand, the proportion of females enrolled in secondary schools was 35.5% of the total female population.

The share for males was 35.4%. Therefore, female students' enrolment proportion from the total expected female population was better than the males i.e, the proportion of female students within the total school aged female population was slightly better than the males.

Concerning the distance of educational facilities from the housing unit for 12 intermediate urban areas, 59.6% of the dwellings had kindergartens within a km. distance, 14.7% of the housing from 1-3 kms. distance and 2.9% beyond 3 kms. For the rest 22.8% of the housing there are no records. Simultaneously, 69.3% of the housing unit were less than 1 km. from an elementary school. Nearly 16.8% of the housing stock had access to a primary school within a distance of 1-3 km. and 2% of the housing distance to this was more than 3 kms. 11.9% of the stock gave no figures at all.

The housing unit distance from junior and secondary schools within a km. was 53.4% and 36.9% respectively. In addition to this, 16% and 28.8% of the home to the services was 1-3 kms. correspondingly. Beyond 3 kms. 4.4% and 14.2% of the houses had accessibility to junior and secondary educational facilities. The distance of college and higher institutions for 31.8% of the home was less than 3 kms. Finally more than 1/2 of the housing units had access to kindergarten, elementary, junior and secondary educational facilities within a distance of 3 kms.

Generally there is a shortage of educational facilities in all urban areas. This might be one of the reasons why out of the total school aged group population only than 50% are enrolled in the educational services. The available educational facilities are rendering service to the population beyond their capacity. It is a common feature to observe more than 75 students in one classroom in most urban areas, which hinders the quality of education and for others to attend school.

E. Health Facilities

The report of The Ministry of Health in 1993 indicates that the national health service coverage was 38%. Similarly, the coverage for women and child immunization was 13% and 28% respectively. In the same year there were 73 hospitals with an accommodation of 9596 beds, 157 health centers and 2087 health stations. Regarding technical staff, there were 2058 medical doctors and 4972 nurses serving in these health institutions.

The survey result of ten main urban areas, on the other hand, shows that out of the total national hospitals 15.1% are located in these areas (Dire-dawa, Jimma, Harar, Arbaminch, Dessie, Nekemte, Gondar, Bahirdar, Mekelle and Adigrat). Addis Ababa only accounted for 19.2% of these facilities. The survey also showed that 26% and 33.9% of the hospital beds are concentrated in these urban areas and Addis Ababa respectively. The proportion of health center is 7% and clinics 1.3% for the ten intermediate urban areas, while for Addis Ababa health center constituted 9.6 and clinics 6.9%. Moreover, 6.1% of the medical doctors and 5.8% of the nurses are found in these urban areas, while the proportions are 49.6% and 33.1% for Addis Abeba.

Even though most of the health institutions are located in a few urban areas, their services are not limited to the urban population only. According to WHO standard a health center can serve 100,000 people and a clinic 10,000. One medical doctor is assumed to be sufficient for 10,000 people and a nurse for 5,000. But in some areas; example Dessie, Gondar and Bahirdar a health center gives service to more than 365,000 people and a clinic about 33,000. In the same way one doctor is expected to render service to more than 66,000 and a nurse to 29,000.

A survey conducted in 1995 in twelve urban areas states that from the total housing units 54.2% has access to a clinic within the radius of less than a km. The availability of health centers in this radius is 34.4%. From the housing units 27.6% of them can also get hospital services within this location. Similarly, 54.4% of the residential housing unit distance from a pharmacy is within a radius of one km. Moreover 19.7%, 36.1%, 35.1% and 19.7% of the housing stocks have access to clinics, health centers, hospitals and pharmacies respectively within a distance of 1-3 kms. Of the total housing units on the average 19.8% do not state the distance from the housing unit to the health facilities.

3.1.2.2 Environmental Management

A. Sewerage services

The sewerage service is the most important part in dealing with sanitation and environmental pollution. The main purpose of sewerage treatment is to control and prevent extreta-borne diseases and to maintain the ecological balance of water courses.

The sewerage service is a serious problem in all Ethiopian urban areas. There are no facilities at all except in Addis Ababa (i.e. less than 1%). The expensive of the sewerage facility may be one of the core reasons for other urban areas not to start the service. The problem of sewerage service in Addis Ababa is more acute than in other urban areas as most of the industries, commercial establishments, hospitals, schools, hotels and international organization are concentrated there.

A master plan for the development of waste water facilities for the city of Addis Ababa mentioned that in 1992 Addis Ababa had only a small sewerage system serving part of the city centre and some planned housing areas. The current capacity was sufficient for 50,000 people and can be extended to 100,000 people. In another report the beneficiaries reached 200,000 citizens mainly in the south-western area where there are many modern stone built blocks of houses serving as commercial, public buildings, apartments and foreign embassies.

The south-western area of the city which is partially connected to a modern treatment sewage plant did not suffer much by the absence of a sewerage service as compared to the central, most congested and old settlement unplanned areas.

It is a common feature to observe behind modern buildings, sewage being discharged into a stream or into an over-flowing septic tank. Moreover, waste from industrial, domestic and private sources are directed to streams and flow through the highly-urbanized, over-crowded and industrialized part of Addis Ababa. Those who have no access to modern sewerage treatment, especially industrial establishments, public and apartment buildings, hotels and hospitals, discharge their waste into streams.

A survey of 12 major urban areas in 1995 shows that of the total residential housing stock 75.4 per cent dispose waste water by a free flow method. Similarly 15.2% of the housing unit dispose waste through septic tank and 7.7 per cent utilize drains for the disposal. The rest 1.7% use other methods. (Annex - 5)

B. Solid Waste

Regarding solid waste disposal, only a few urban areas (Dire-dawa, Nazareth, Bahirdar, Dessie, Gonder, Mekelle, Harar and Jimma) have trucks to dispose dry waste. These major areas have one or two disposal trucks. Mostly the trucks will not operate due to lack of proper maintenance and over-capacity. The available trucks also did not cover all the households because of high generation of solid waste which is beyond the reach of the trucks.

Due to the absence or the low level of municipalities solid waste disposal systems and the absence of garbage collection containers (canes) it is common to observe in all urban areas the dumping of domestic waste near residential housing units, market areas, on access roads, ditches and open spaces. Thus, it is one of the main reason for the pollution of the environment and a cause for the spread of epidemic diseases.

A study of 12 towns in 1995 shows that of the total households about 8.7% dispose solid waste by garbage cans, cars or carts, 37.1% of the households burned their solid waste at home. On the contrary, 36.8% and 17.4% of the households dispose the dry waste by dumping in open areas and other methods. These figures, therefore, reveal that more than 50% of the households dispose their dry waste not in a proper way, which affects the environment and sanitation of the population. (See Annex - 6)

The assessment of these 12 urban centers also indicate that the daily average solid waste produced is about 32,799 kg. Since only 45.8% of this household waste is collected and disposed properly, the remaining 17,777 kg. produced daily is dumped anywhere in their vicinity. At the time of the assessment it was found that on the average the municipalities only have a capacity to collect and dispose 1/4 of the solid waste.

On the other hand, according to the Addis Ababa city council waste collection section in 1989 about 254,272 kgs. solid waste was produced daily. Of this solid waste residential and commercial accounted for 83% and 7% respectively. Factories constituted 5%, hotels 3% and hospitals 2%. The type of waste was 37.9% combustible (organic), 54.4% ash and soil and 7.7% non-combustible (Metal). The most important item in the waste, grass accounted for 77% and the rest 23% was paper, textile, plastic, glass, and metal.

The solid waste collection section had 45 solid waste disposal trucks and 200 garbage collection containers. But the section had the capacity to dispose only 1/2 of the daily production of waste. The rest 50% was dumped in open areas and ditches.

Generally, most of the urban centers have no garbage collection trucks. As a result solid waste disposal is very limited which affects the environment and promotes the breeding of disease vectors or the spread of epidemic diseases. A significant amount of the solid waste is dumped in open spaces. Even major urban areas which have the trucks can not dispose properly 1/4 of the daily produced solid waste.

C. Toilet Facilities

The census result of 1984 revealed that 5.6% and 18.6% of the housing units of all urban areas had private flush toilets and dry pit latrines respectively inside the house or compound. Moreover, 0.7% and 24% of them had access to shared flush toilets and dry pit latrines in ascending order. On the contrary, 49.5% of the housing stock had no latrine at all, and 1.4% of the houses did not give any information.

Excluding Addis Ababa private flush toilets and pit latrines constituted 3.4% and 20% and the shared facility were 0.6% and 16.7% accordingly. Housing units without toilet facility was 57.9% . The proportion of housing unit without the services increased and the share of flush toilets decreased when Addis Ababa was excluded from the total urban areas.

The assessment result of the 12 major urban areas indicates that on an average 50.3% of the households have access to private latrines and 24% use communal underground toilet facilities. The rest 25.7% of the households have open-ground or trench disposal methods. (Annex - 7)

From the total residential housing units 42.2 % have private flush toilets and dry pit latrines and 27.6% defecate in communal or shared toilets, while the rest 29.3% have no the services at all. These major urban areas have relatively a better opportunity for toilets. The absence of appropriate toilets is more serious in smaller urban centers. In major urban areas, especially in central and over-crowded unplanned areas, it is a common feature to observe latrines serving many people without any care about cleanliness and disposal. A shortage of vacuum sucker trucks and the absence of internal roads for emptying latrines played a considerable role in the demolishing of many latrines in a short time. This increased unsanitary conditions.

Because of the lack of sufficient public and private sanitary facilities and sometimes because cultural barriers there is extensive promiscuous defecation along the banks of streams, in cemeteries and open spaces. In the absence of open areas and cemeteries most of the people defecate in a bucket and dump this in drains and streams, which affects the drainage system and sanitation situation.

D. Bathing

Bathing is most important for personal hygiene. According to the 1984 census less than 8% of the total housing of urban areas had this facility, privately or shared. In ten major urban areas (Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, Harar, Nazareth, Dessie, Gonder, Bahirdar, Mekele, Jimma and Awassa) 11% of the householders had access to bathing facilities which was relatively higher than the national urban share. But when we exclude the share of Addis Ababa, the proportion was equivalent to the national.

On the other hand, in 1995, a survey of 12 urban areas states that 9.9% of the housing units have bathing facilities, which is 8.1% private and 1.8% communal. About 84.1% of the housing units have no bathing facilities while 6% of the housing units do not state how people wash. Those people who have no bathing facilities may use traditional methods.

In general, the low level of household income, the lack of space or over-crowding of housing unit to have the service, the low level of awareness of the community to have bathing facilities, and the limited number of housing units that have pure water contributes a lot to the lack of washing facilities.

3.1.3 Local Governments in Ethiopia

3.1.3.1 Institutional set up

Local governments in the cities of many developing countries play an important role in the provision of services, showing a significant effect on their cities development. Therefore towns and Addis Ababa deserve more attention than usual. Combined with the poorly-developed capital markets and higher level restrictions and control over local governments, urban centers have been the least important sources of local government revenues.

Urban administration in Ethiopia has a very short history. It is 54 years ago that the Haile Selassie regime proclaimed (Proc. No. 75/1942) the need for urban administration. This was more emphasized and characterized by Proc. No. 74/1945. However these rights of municipal administration were eroded by higher government bodies and administrators at different levels.

The late Military Government tried to revise the rights and duties of municipalities, giving more emphasis to the importance of urban dwellers' associations, (Proc. No. 104/1976 and Proc. No. 206/81) as a basic development unit for the council's activities. Since the concern was not development activities, these councils were filled by members who were ready to promote the political motives of the government. Moreover, this was reinforced by a more centralized policy by establishing central planning offices at central and regional levels with the right to control development activities.

Today we have the grounds for decentralizing development activities more than ever. There is no central state control over Federal State or regional endeavors. The role of central government is reflected in the activities of local governments with a relevant technical assistance.

3.1.3.2 Local Government Finance

Revenue Structure

Strengthening local government finance can improve the efficiency of the public sector and reduce the need for grants or assistance from the central government. A step in analyzing the financing pattern of local governments is to distinguish between local and external sources.

The share of locally raised revenues of towns in Ethiopia had ranged almost 100%. This can indicate the broader collecting and expenditure responsibility that has fallen on local governments.

There are four major categories of revenue to consider

- a) taxes
- b) user charges
- c) other locally raised revenues
- d) transfer or grants

Taxes collected from property, live animals and urban land constitutes the highest proportion of local government revenue (C.S.A 1992). This proportion is 48.8%. A recent survey of 12 municipal centres also revealed that this proportion to grow to 61.7%.

Public utilities need to be self-financing. A way to accomplish this is by means of collecting user-charges. This may be either consumption or benefit related. This accounts for 21.0% of the total revenue (C.S.A, 1992). The 1995 study stressed that this proportion to be only 20.0%, Since the major facilities such as water and electricity are under governmental authority the proportion is below a quarter of the total municipal revenues.

Other own sources due to the low urbanisation and revenue trend of the selected towns is seen to be low, which is 16.3%. Interest received, sales of capital items and rent are included in this category.

Borrowing or grants constitute a minor proportion of the total government revenue (less than one per cent). This can indicate the very low development in financial policies of central or regional governments and the limited understanding or confidence of local governments to borrow and finance at least to cover a portion of their capital project costs. (Annex - 8)

Table - 7

Municipal average source of income
(1992-1995, percentage)

No.	Revenue Source	Percentage
1	Tax	61.7
2	User Charges	20.0
3	Other Own Source	16.3
4	Transfer from Higher Level	0.1
5	Borrowing	-
6	Other Incomes	1.9
	Total	100

The growth of local government revenues in urban centres of Ethiopia is hampered by

- The low economic base which can be stated conceptually as a proportion between per capita municipal income and population.(2.7 dollars)
- The tariff or statutory tax base which is very old and has never been updated since it was established.
- The low skill in evaluating and setting taxes.
- The collection efficiency which is far below the potential sources.

Expenditure Structure

There is a need to improve the system of utilising the limited amount of resources available. This can be done mainly by enhancing local governments' capability for a sound project appraisal and financial management. It is a general truth that the lower the amount of resources at disposal the lower the expenditure will be. One indicator for this can be the per-capita capital expenditure, which is expenditure per person living under the municipal jurisdiction. This figure is found to be 2.5 dollars for the towns considered (see annex - 9). Municipal expenditures can be seen in three major categories. These are salary and allowances, operating expenses and capital expenditure. The following summary of expenditure trends can give a clue about the nature of expenditure in managing urban centres.

Table - 8

Percentage Municipal Expenditures at Different Duration

No.	Type of Expenditure	1966-1967	1988-1990	1993-1995 (towns)
1	Salary and Allowances	32	28	24.8
2	Office Operating Cost	27	39	41.8
3	Capital Expenditure	41	33	33.4
	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

*Source: C.S.A. 1970, 1990, Survey, MoWUD Household Sample Survey 1995.
MWUD, Household Sample Survey 1995.*

Increase in recurrent expenses and a decrease in capital expenditure can indicate the low amount of resources utilised in servicing urban centres. Moreover, excessive operating expenses may have resulted due to the poor management system, in addition to the low amount of resources available.

3.1.3.3. Municipal Management and Man Power

Efficiency in urban management not only depends on the system but also in its constituents i.e., man power as well as equipment or machines. A survey made for nine towns in 1995 indicated the low quality of manpower and management efficiency in municipalities.

The total number of employees in municipal administration was 0.11% of the residents. About 60% of these were earning below 300 Birr or about 50 U.S dollars per month. Out of these employees qualified professionals make less than 1%, more or less, 80% have less or at a secondary level education. (See Annex 11 & 12)

From this we can conclude that the effectiveness of local administration is hampered not only by lack of finance but also lack of skill and know how. There is a need for technical assistance and training of manpower for a better urban management.

3.1.3.4 Equipment and Facilities

To deal with urban development problems or to take the initiative in promoting development the need for proper equipment and facilities is crucial. Urban centres in Ethiopia are known by the very low amount and efficiency in these materials. It is not only the problem of acquiring that worries but also the capacity of municipal administrations to maintain and utilize what is at their disposal.

Considering major equipment and machinery for ten local governments, it is found that about 46% were not functional at the time of the survey, 1995. Though this may not be a good measure considering the machinery and services listed (See Annex - 13) average availability is checked to be 46% with the lowest 23% and the highest 58%. This can indicate the very low capacity that municipalities have compared to the total work they are expected to perform.

3.2 THE SHELTER SITUATION

3.2.1 Housing Provision

3.2.1.1 Housing and the National Economy

Housing has never been given considerable currency in the Ethiopian socio-economic development endeavor. In the last two decades not more than 2.4 percent of the country's GDP was allocated to national housing development and the sector's share has never surpassed 22.0 per cent of the national gross fixed capital formation.

Urban housing investment in the country has been fixed under 0.6 per cent of the GDP and still retains only about 25 per cent of the national housing investment. Conversely, this implies the possible low contribution of the housing sector, particularly the urban national economy. For instance, housing as a whole contributed 4.2 per cent to GDP in 1968, whereas it declined to about 2.5 per cent in 1988. Furthermore, it was observed that the annual rate of GDP growth tripled the rate at which the share of housing grew during this period.

Recent studies revealed that investment in total housing had a very poor positive relation (a correlation coefficient of 0.27) with GDP, while urban housing investment has been observed to have negatively (-0.17) correlated with GDP. According to the Construction and Business Bank (former Housing and Saving Bank) outstanding mortgage credit in 1995 was 36.5 million USD, and the ratio of total mortgage loans to all outstanding credit was 4.6%.

Although the construction industry shared around 50 per cent of the gross national investment, the place of urban housing in construction investment and gross fixed capital formation remained unfavorable over the two decades. The proportion which urban housing retained in the latter dramatically declined from 8 per cent in the earlier decade to about 4 per cent during the last decade. Likewise, the sectors' share in GDP also declined in the same manner from 0.8 per cent to 0.4 per cent. The decline might be due to the relative diversion of investable resources to other sectors such as productive industry, agriculture and military activities during the Dergue era. The fact that investment in housing hardly brings immediate economic return for the government could have a certain impact on the level of housing investment. Other factors as the absolute absence of private investment initiatives in the housing sector and the long range low level of domestic savings have limiting consequences on the meagre proportion of investment direct to the urban housing sector in the country. Obviously, this could result in the quantitative and qualitative deterioration of urban housing units in Ethiopia.

3.2.1.2 Existing Housing Characteristics

Urban Settlement

In Ethiopia housing in urban areas manifests itself qualitatively and quantitatively. The situation is even more serious in small towns due to disorder in their physical development. Deterioration in housing is due to the rapid population growth which resulted in over-crowding and lack of the necessary amenities, adversely resulting in an unhealthy environment.

According to a sample survey of households conducted by The Ministry of Works and Urban Development (MWUD) in 12 intermediate towns in 1995 the type of wall building materials shows a high proportion of chika or mud houses, which are attached. More than 95% of these units are covered with corrugated iron roofing. Houses with private toilets are 42.2 per cent, while those using shared toilets make 27.6 per cent. The remainder about 30 per cent have no proper toilet facilities. One important amenity to consider is the kitchen, where those with private and shared kitchens constitute 57.3 and 18.0 per cent respectively, while residents with no such facility are 23.8 per cent.

About 34.6 per cent of the housing stock in these urban centers are seen to be constructed from a conventional permanent structure. Houses with a legal permit are found to be only 65%.

There are factors that can show the inadequacy of residential units from the result of a sample survey, 1995. The average number of persons per room is found to be 2.9 and the average number of rooms per housing unit is 2.91. Considering the household size, the average is seen to be 6.58, while the average number of persons per housing unit is checked to be high, i.e., 8.4. With this large number of household size and the small number of housing units the number of households in each housing unit was found to be more than one family, so this ratio is found to be 1.28. (See Annex - 14)

Rural Settlements

To explain briefly the situation of the rural population of the country: most of the rural population live in scattered hamlets with practically no access to safe drinking water, modern health services, education and markets. According to The Ministry of Water Resources' estimate only 18.84% (1995) of the rural population get clean drinking water.

The majority of the rural population live in an unplanned or unstructured settlement pattern where it is difficult to improve the living conditions of the peasantry. According to reports from the housing and population census in 1984, out of the total 6.4 million housing units, 52% of the household members spend the night in the same room with domestic animals. The situation not only depicts overcrowding but also poor sanitary conditions of the housing unit. About 95.0% of the total rural houses have one or two rooms, of which about 78.0% have only one room. In 84.2 per cent of houses the family members spend the night in rooms used as a kitchen.

Table - 9

Functional Characteristics of Rural Housing 1984

	Functional Type	Number	%
1	Room mainly used as a kitchen	381,623	5.9
2	Room where family members spend the night used as a kitchen	5,387,834	84.2
3	Room where livestock spend the night used as a kitchen	95,913	1.5
4	None	483,604	7.6
5	Not stated	52,281	8.8
	Total	6,401,255	100

Source : CSA 1984

3.2.2 Housing Needs and Affordability

3.2.2.1 Accumulated and Future Needs and Housing Production

The main problems restricting improved shelter in the country are imported methods of construction and building materials, design standards, the housing costs which are beyond the reach of the low income group and the low level of income of the majority of the society. The majority of the population are unable to afford the cheapest standard of housing currently available in the country.

The poor people who can not afford a standard house will continue to expand the uncontrolled squatter settlements and slums. From the sample survey conducted in 12 towns of the country in September 1995, about 35% of the housing units are occupied by dwellers without title or permission. Because of the limited capacity of the majority of the society to afford housing construction the average housing production in these towns was 2 houses for every 1000 people. This estimate did not include sub-standard housing, which had been erected in squatter settlements.

From the result of the same survey of the total housing stock 27.6% are deteriorated housing unit (housing to be replaced because of obsolescence and sub-standard houses).

Regarding the housing supply of the country, the annual housing needs estimated in 1995, show about 187,000 housing units. However, the actual supply does not exceed about 18,100 per annum. Hence, the total deficit approximately is about 168,900 per annum, which implies a serious housing shortage in all urban areas. The deficit has been constantly widening due to the growing need, mainly as a consequence of population growth, lack of housing maintenance and the low level of housing construction.

Table - 10

Total Housing Need Estimated in (1996-2000)

No.	Urban Center	To Replace Obsolete Dwellings	Due to Over Crowding	Due to Population Increase	Total Houses Required
1	Addis Ababa	78727	102,799	79769	261295
2	Other urban centers	203,589	265,839	206,283	675,711
	Total	282316	368638	286052	937006

Source: Estimate based on the result from household survey by MWUD, September 1995

3.2.2.2. Affordability

The housing policy must be based upon what the national economy and what those to be housed can afford. The income of the target group is the starting point for a housing policy. Design standards, building codes and planning regulations must all be tailored to these basic facts. Deviation from the basic tent of affordability and cost recovery mean large public subsidies and in many instances exclusion of the poor from housing. Affordability and cost recovery are fundamental issues in the implementation of a housing policy. The following are among many reasons why people cannot afford to buy houses.

A. Household Income

It is clear that there is no dramatic or ready-made solution to financing low-income housing programs. For various reasons all the usual sources of funds, banks such as housing and savings banks (now the Business and Construction Bank) the Commercial Bank and Insurance Companies are either incapable, restricted in application or applied to more remunerative investments than financing the low-income housing programs. There remain possibilities such as government funds, foreign loans and grants and domestic savings or household incomes which can be channeled to low income housing in combination to solve the shortage of housing and related infrastructure.

The pursuit of a strategy for housing the poorer section of the population, especially for those who are survivors of violence or who have been abandoned, widows these or who are female headed households, will require a change in direction from subsidizing the middle and upper income group to subsidizing the needy, because they are completely unable to afford even for "core-houses" which is a minimum standard to live in.

In our recent survey of 12 towns, there were 37.8% of female headed households and the employment status of these female-headed households indicates that they are very low income earners. According to this survey, the employment status of household heads shows that from the total male-headed households 35.7 per cent are government employees 26.8 per cent traders, 12.9 per cent daily laborers and 24.6% are pensioners, disabled people and others. Although the employment situation is very serious for both sexes, the status of female-household heads requires the promotion of appropriate steps to stimulate productive employment opportunities. The survey report shows that of the total female-headed households 12.9 per cent are government employees, 25.3 per cent traders and 13.7 per cent daily laborers, the remainder and the large proportion (48.1%) are dependent on other sources and are unable to increase their own income (See Annex - 15)

The poverty line in US dollars per month for different household indicate that for a one-person household is 53 USD, for 2 persons 106 USD, 3 persons 159 USD. (MPEC)

According to the survey result one-person householders that earn less than 50 USD per month accounts for 70.5 per cent, two persons householders that earn less than 100 USD accounts for 94.0 per cent, three person householders below the poverty line accounts for 96.2 per cent. In general the total persons of households below the poverty line are 97.7 per cent. The poverty line trend shows a positive correlation with the size of the household.

This illustrates the source of saving by individual and local communities can not be reliable because of low level of income. The public sector need to play an important role in providing incentives necessary to attract additional resources for low income housing and to increase the potential for savings. (See Table - 11)

Table - 11

Total Number of Households in 12 Towns by Monthly Income Group (USD) and Family Size

Income group	Family size										Total	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+			
1 < 50	6294	11,105	146637	16767	17428	146527	9012	5424	12254	107448	54.0	
2 50 - 99	1876	3057	6173	7398	9433	7914	5881	5433	11578	58741	29.5	
3 100 - 149	565	497	1261	2087	2462	3408	1413	1681	5715	19098	9.6	
4 150 - 199	80	289	776	1131	693	1568	1624	1374	4507	12042	6.1	
5 200+	115	124	88	69	25	169	230	27	815	1662	0.8	
Total household	8930	15070	22935	27452	30041	27586	18160	13939	34869	198982	100	
Household under poverty line	6294	14160	22071	27383	30041	27586	18160	13939	34869	194503	-	
Percentage of household under poverty line	70.5	94.0	96.2	99.7	100	100	100	100	100	97.7		

B. House Prices

B.1 The Low Level of Building Material Technology and availability

Construction material price increases, as one of the major constraints of supply is caused among other causes, by the limited production of local building materials, and underdeveloped research and development activities on low cost building materials. In this case the limited capacity to produce adequate local building materials brought a heavy dependence on expensive imported materials.

In the area of research and development of indigenous building materials the effort is hampered by poor institutional support and a lack of coordination among the institutions involved in this matter. The outcome therefore is considerable in cost effectiveness, diversity and limited production and distribution to support the residential construction industry.

Local building materials have remained undeveloped and unexploited even when raw materials have been available. Cement has been in short supply or is expensive, but where lime has been available, it has remained unprocessed and unused; where soils, suitable for the manufacture of stabilized earth blocks which require a minimum proportion of cement have been available, the scope of making good blocks and achieving a commercial scale of operation has not been studied.

The development of a viable building material industry and construction industry sector could also be the principal means of absorbing some unemployed because a significant proportion of the total labor engaged in all manufacturing industries, will be employed. In building industries, the residential construction is the largest potential sector of the construction industry in Ethiopia.

The availability of investment capital for housing and urban facilities alone does not guarantee that the desired construction would take place. The two other major requirements are the building materials, and the labor and organization needed to build. As for the organization of these factors of production objectives, in the case of low-cost housing projects in particular will be

- 1) Finding ways of utilizing available local material in order to minimize imports, reduce dependence on transport and utilize manpower already experienced in traditional methods, provide these results in sound and economic construction.
- 2) Encourage especially the private sector to increase investment in industries which can produce cheaper and better building materials, not only for housing but for all other construction.

- 3) Training women, the unemployed, the returnees and other unskilled labor, thus raising their earning capacity as well as meeting the nation's need for competent workers.
- 4) Developing through research and experiment more productive building methods, standardization of parts and other means of lowering costs.
- 5) Allocating in the national development plan, adequate capital resources to the low cost construction industry to enable it to function economically and at continually lower unit costs.

B.2 The Low Cost Housing Construction Industry

It is understood that the capability of the construction industry determines to a large extent the achievement of national development goals. So far the construction industry although it is limited stood for the capacity to execute large construction projects and infrastructures. However, the role of a small-scale construction industry and the informal construction sector have not been receiving much attention, particularly for tackling human settlements programs for the lower income group and the maintenance of local infrastructure.

The construction industry in the country is unable to cope with the requirements of the development plan. This situation stems mainly from the adoption of imported designs and technologies, often not adopted, and costly, that are inappropriate to local conditions and indigenous social and economic intent as well as to the availability of local resources. This situation results in an increase of dependent on imported plant, material equipment as well as low skilled labor at the local level.

Our National Action Plan Concerning This Area Will Be:

1. The development of an indigenous construction industry, using untapped resources in the country where genuinely local firms, small or large often need assistance.
2. To recognize the special importance of the construction industry and to give financial and technical support to attain the natural objectives and the production targets required for human settlements.
3. To give more attention to the role of the informal construction sector in the implementation of the housing program by supporting it in having an organizational framework and legal status.

4. Necessary Policies and Strategies Towards Solving Human Settlement Problems

4.1. Major Problems in Urban Settlement

- 4.1.1 The lack of a comprehensive and flexible methodology for planning, organization and management of an urban settlement scheme, the lack of a strong executing body and the lack of effective settlement level information system.
- 4.1.2 The low social and public awareness of the importance of urban settlement planning which invites the development of squatter structures.
- 4.1.3 The low level of institutional capacity to manage physical, social and economic development pattern at local, regional and central levels.
- 4.1.4 The stagnation and degeneration of urban centers rather than improving and prospering the level of urbanization which is not accompanied by technological advance, industrial and economic growth and improper spatial dispersion in urban and rural centers (low access of interaction between urban centers and agricultural potential rural areas).
- 4.1.5 The low level of municipal financial capacity to manage or coordinate all urban/city activities.
- 4.1.6 The absence of strong links within all actor groups such as NGOs, CBOs, research institutions, local and central bodies that are concerned about urban settlement issues.
- 4.1.7 The absence of clear and well-defined national urban development policies and strategies.
- 4.1.8 Urban administrators have little capacity to deal with urban development problems under their jurisdiction. Their ability to plan finance and carry out programs is highly constrained due to:
 - 1) The lack of adequate local sources of revenue to deal with urban problems. There is also a lack of transfer of revenue from the central government.
 - 2) Almost all city administration are poorly staffed and have few competent planners or managers. These administrative and technical personnel are poorly paid, and their productivity is inadequate to take the initiative in solving local problems.

- 3) Crucial services such as water and electricity etc. in obtaining sufficient revenue for local development are controlled by national government agencies.
- 4) Restraints are placed by the old tariff regulations so local governments are not able to raise their revenue through local taxes.
- 5) Local governments not only lack technical or managerial skills but they also lack appropriate equipment supplies and facilities to provide basic services to stimulate growth.

4.2 Action taken by the Government Towards Formulating and Implementing National Shelter and Urban Development Programs and Strategies

The government is concerned by the continued exodus of persons from rural to urban areas and designed a five year development plan and strategies to control this through Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) programs. In this case it is planned to make rural areas more attractive by creating job opportunities, improving agricultural methods, and providing the amenities and communal facilities.

The five year development plan will also give opportunities for the development of secondary regional towns which have in effect the control of the burden of population influx to the primate city (Addis Ababa), which has a population of about 30% of the total urban population.

It is also known that people are attracted to urban areas not by the thought of obtaining better housing but by better employment opportunities.

As a fundamental question of existing policy, government interest is to withdraw from the actual building process thus leaving this to private initiative once-developed lands and plots. The primary duty of government in this way will be to formulate a housing policy and provide general guidelines and control measures to see that housing construction will make upon an equitable basis to the whole of the existing shortage.

The following is a brief account of the most important measures taken by the government to address different aspects of shelter and urban services

4.2.1 Shelter and Urban Development Activities

- 4.2.1.1 The establishment of an office for the sale of previously government owned houses.

This is a autonomous office established in 1995 and has the objective to minimize and change the role and participation of the state in the economy to create a strong basis for sustainable and reliable economic growth. It has also an effect in the creation of free market conditions in the housing sector to address the demand for houses.

- 4.2.1.2 The strengthening of housing affairs and cooperatives at the central and regional level, which is responsible for housing sector studies and coordinating housing cooperative activities.

- 4.2.1.3 In view of creating healthy urban growth and urbanization patterns carrying urban studies and planning to alleviate major urban problems and to promote urban development, the National Urban Planning Institute (NUPI) was established in 1987 under proclamation No. 317/1987, with the objectives of:

- formulating urbanization policies and strategies; developing standards, control mechanisms, methodologies and models for urban planning and development studies,
- preparing a master plan and detailed plans for urban areas and rendering technical assistance and professional advice in areas of urban planning and related functions, and
- executing, coordinating and promoting urban planning which include designing various types of urban plans.

- 4.2.1.4 In order that the housing sector to develop and performs efficiently to provide affordable urban housing for all Ethiopians, especially the poor, a "Housing sector study" consulting group is working with the Ministry of Works and Urban Development. The housing sector study is expected to provide a qualitative over view of the housing sector, a base line quantitative snapshot of the sector, including consumer and supplier behavior, the related land and financial markets and of government interventions, a synthesis of research, implications and recommendations for policy, programs and institutional development of the sector.

- 4.2.1.5 In the 5th country UNDP human resources development and utilization program a sanitary environment sound and affordable urban housing study is proceeding by the Ministry of Works and Urban Development. This program is designed to study the situation in which the urban poor and vulnerable groups will have access to low-cost housing, and healthy sound living environment.

4.2.1.6 The reorganizing of urban development support services (UDSS) to render basic support in the field of urban development for central, regional and local urban administrations. The main mandate of UDSS is to develop and when necessary to follow up policies, plans, programs and strategies for urban development; improve municipal financial and general management capabilities, give technical support in municipal engineering and to identify projects and direct feasibility studies of projects to enhance support to regions, municipalities and towns to develop effective urban management.

4.2.2. The Development of a Transportation Network

The major precondition of any decentralized development policy is the development of a transportation network which makes possible the development of intended regional growth centers and other lower grade selected towns and rural service centers in order to diminish the difference between the way of living in the major urban centers and the rest of the country and to activate the potential resources of the country. This has to consist of a major road network, which can be developed mostly by upgrading some of the existing roads, supplemented by a feeder road system.

The pattern of settlement and economic activity in the country gives transportation a strategic role in economic development. As the country has large territory (greater than 1.1 million sq. kms.) with a widely-dispersed population, mainly around its geographic periphery and the economy is an agricultural economy (account for 45 per cent of GDP) general development is dependent on the transport system being able efficiently to integrate the rural communities with the urban centers and facilitate the reliable and cost effective transport of export crops from the major collection points to the ports.

With the overall objective of the development of a transportation network on the effect of human settlement development and management and the balanced growth of different regions of the country, the five year road sub-sector development program has been prepared with the following priorities.

1. The rehabilitation and upgrading of trunk roads.
2. The upgrading and expansion of major link roads.
3. The construction and upgrading of regional roads.
4. Road maintenance.
5. Bridges and culverts rehabilitation and replacements.
6. The strengthening of equipment maintenance and management capacity
7. The promotion of labor base technology.

4.2.3. Rural-Urban Balance

This is a program to develop regional towns to stimulate rural areas as well as to slow down the population growth rate of Addis Ababa (expected to reach 4.0 million by the year 2000, as against a population of 1.4 in 1984).

4.2.3.1. Priorities for Regional Centers (towns)

According to FDRE national policy that is Agricultural Development Led-Industrialization (ADLI) an effort has been made to develop regional towns by giving considering to population density, the demographic potential of the region, the possibilities for agricultural development and agro-processing industries, and transportation and communication access.

Urban centers which are already growing rapidly because of their proximity to the existing city (A.A) need be of less concern. Greater concern will be towns in areas, which lacks large city development and from where there is large population flow to Addis Ababa. It is best to have a hierarchy of urban centers, each with a special role, rather than a large number of cities more or less alike in character and function.

4.2.3.2. Balanced development

For economic development to take place in any particular town there must be a balance among population, housing, infrastructure and employment opportunities. This case requires a shift of resources from the primate city (A.A) to other urban centers chosen as potentials for development. Investment in transportation and other infrastructure should be made in such a way as to strengthen links between secondary centers and market centers and among market centers themselves. However, this investment should be made gradually in response to need and demand.

4.2.3.3. Decentralization of Major Economic Activities (Industry)

As it is placed in the National Economic Policy, a strong industrial location policy (or incentive for investment away from the center) to reduce employment growth with in the city and to disperse manufacturing jobs to other cities is needed.

Another way which encourage decentralization for the effect of rural-urban balanced development is moving the decision making and controlling office to the regional centers to promote small-scale industries in secondary towns, the provision of low-cost sheds, infrastructure and marketing facilities.

4.2.4. Coordination of Efforts and Capacity Building

For purposes of finance and implementation, urban development technical and financial supporting service and the institute of National Urban Planning will be strengthened. These institutions will be used to support the activities of urban management to ensure that it is serviced with adequate infrastructure to develop land, and then to lease it at market levels. These institutions will also be able to facilitate negotiation with foreign donors to finance projects consistent with the decentralization strategy.

Another function of these institution will be to support regional or local (municipal) activities in their effort to have efficient patterns of land use, promote the development of land in response to demand and organize the necessary institutional arrangements. This could be done for purposes of low-cost housing by acquiring an adequate supply of small inexpensive plots for site and service and squatter upgrading projects. In so doing, existing housing standards would have to be relaxed. At the same time local governments could be helped to mobilize their fiscal resources by expanding and improving their land assessment systems and their tax collection.

5. THE NATIONAL PLAN OF ACTION

Goals and Strategies for Implementation

In view of the urgency attached to the execution of shelter provision and the urban physical development plan, the construction industry and settlement program will be under great pressure; accordingly its capacity to meet this demand must be planned well in advance. This strategy plan for 1996-2000 will require government intervention and assurances. As such construction industries should be promoted as the leading economic sector given the links of this sector. It generates economic growth and expands employment opportunities for semi-skilled and unskilled workers. In this, special attention should be given to off seasonal rural works programs and urban shelter programs to absorb the under-employed and the unemployed.

The effect of investment in housing construction would generate additional income in the rest of the economy. Housing construction would generate more employment than manufacturing for low income groups. It is likely that housing would rank higher if analyze separately.

The fundamental requirement of policies and strategies for the shelter program is to identify particular target groups, evaluate their needs, problems and potential for improvement and ensure that the resources allocated to them actually reach them. The main objective is to place these groups in a position where they can identify and use shelter projects and benefit substantially from such use. In designing basic policies for housing the poor, the fundamental question is how best to take advantage of that invaluable human resource and match it against the limited available resources of society.

According to the decision taken in Pre. Comm. I and UN member countries commitment to implement the habitat Agenda, we have prepared the National Plan of Action, ^{based on} with relevant policies and programs.

This National Plan of Action as part of Global programs and action plans focuses on the basic issues and problems of the National Human Settlement Development programs, which have assessed and evaluated, using urban and housing indicators and best practices.

Under the framework of global urban settlement agenda and five years national development programs, the Plan of Action which consists of the following objectives and strategies has prepared.

5.1 Adequate Shelter

Basic Guiding Principles for Housing and Urban Development Policies.

1. Human settlement, housing and related infrastructure and environmental health concern should be incorporated into regional, woreda local level planning and development activities.
2. Maximum reliance should be placed on communities and individual families to improve their immediate habitat, to construct their own houses and to provide human and domestic waste disposal facilities.
3. The government's role should be confined to ensuring security of tenure or housing and land, formulation of enforceable housing policies and regulatory framework and provision of basic infrastructure, sanitation and health services, and as appropriate, incentives. However, there should be a strong relationship between the government and communities in the development of sound and affordable Urban Housing and Sanitary Environment, and the potential supplementary role of NGO's and CBO's should be recognized.
4. Low-cost housing construction and building material experimentation and development technologies and standards should be set at different administrative levels as low-cost housing provision should be within the reach of the Urban poor, women-headed households and vulnerable groups.
5. Spatial consideration should be given to attract the flow of housing finance from national and international sources.
6. National and international institutions should be encouraged to finance housing. An independent institution must be established to do everything possible to secure sources of finance and funds for housing. These opportunities will encourage the movement of housing cooperatives, which was not given emphasis before.
7. There must be a human settlement planning scheme in which participate all actor groups such as academic institutions, national, regional and local level governments and non-governmental bodies.
8. The design and technologies for shelter, infrastructure and services should reflect the present demand, and be able to adopt to the future population growth.
9. There should be clear lateral and vertical operation links among the central sectoral administrations and the regional/local administrations which are responsible for shelter and infrastructure provision programs.

10. The participation of private investment must be encouraged in the provision of low-cost housing and related infrastructure, the production of local building materials and the saving of finance for housing.

Strategies

1. Establish an institutional framework which ensures clear mandates and coordination of responsibilities among various governmental agencies active in the field of shelter and infrastructure planning and development programs.
2. Promote shelter and related infrastructural development and the creation of awareness in the community to foster a sense of responsibility and determination to acquire and maintain a relatively better human settlement situation.
3. Develop a national shelter programs which addresses the problem of the urban poor, women-headed households, children and vulnerable groups of the society.
4. Develop a national plan which prompts self-help strategies, low-cost housing, sustainable technologies, the participation of all social groups, especially women, minimizes urban and rural differences, areas of priority and define the yearly implementation rates required to meet demand.
5. Develop and promote through local citizen groups and neighborhood centers the wider application of appropriate and affordable technologies for building materials, infrastructural development, sanitation facilities and water supplies.
6. Encourage local citizens to establish housing co-operatives and to increase the potential for saving by creating employment opportunities and income-generating mechanisms for developing sustainable settlement areas and infrastructural services.
7. Develop and enhance the capacity of central and regional government institutions for upgrading slum areas and co-ordinating urban settlement schemes.
8. Establish revolving credit funds for housing renewal, housing co-operatives and communities to purchase the necessary materials for the maintenance and construction of houses and related facilities.
9. Formulate appropriate legislation with housing , sanitation and building technology standards which are enforceable and affordable for low cost housing areas.
10. Undertake studies to identify suitable housing design standards, urban upgrading and development plans in the different cities of the country.

11. Develop and enhance the technical and managerial capacity of local governments to administer urban centers, capable of solving existing problems in urban housing and infrastructural services.

Action

- A- Find effective ways of channeling more of the limited public resources into the provision of adequate and affordable services for low and middle income groups,
- B- Enhance efforts to be directed initially towards fulfilling basic needs and matching effective demand within urban areas rather than attempting to develop standards that are not affordable by the majority,
- C- Creating good access to employment opportunities is the highest priority of poor urban families. Consequently, the location of low-income housing is of prime importance.
- D- The costs of housing projects must be recovered if they are to be repeated on the large scale required by existing conditions. Most countries cannot afford to subsidize at any scale. If subsidies are necessary to reach the lowest income groups, this must be recognized and kept to the minimum. Cross subsidization may bring projects within the reach of the lowest income groups.
- E- Take appropriate measures so that house building may follow closely the proportion of the income group to be served. These measures may include careful planning, designing, costing and execution of housing projects,
- F- Effect maximum utilization of the existing open-space reserve by encouraging subletting where this does not exist,
- G- Preserve the existing housing stock to the maximum extent possible and to relieve as much as possible maintenance responsibilities from the public sector to encourage home ownership.
- H- Set priority to the housing needs of slum dwellers, lower income groups and industrial workers as well as the promotion of self-help, cooperative, sites and services and upgrading methods for attacking the national housing problems,
- I- Increase the supply and quality of building materials and create the necessary construction capacity,
- J- Improving the capacity of existing housing and urban development institutions in order to increase their performance,

- K- The formation of a special housing fund for utilization in low-income housing development so that financial institutions can lend for housing on a continuous basis. Such financing should be addressed to a broad range of low-income groups.

5.2 Sustainable Human Settlement Development

As in other developing countries, the question of human settlement planning, development and management has been and is a major socio-economic problem in Ethiopia. The rapid population growth being witnessed in both rural and urban areas of the country coupled with the accelerated pace of environmental degradation and the relatively high density of large urban centers and populated highlands is making human settlement more important.

The country has never had a human settlement policy and was late to recognize the need to elaborate a national policy of human settlements as part of its national socio-economic development process. Although, no such integrated policy exists at the present time, major components for a national human settlement policy are clearly embodied in different policies and strategies that are currently widely being implemented.

Aware of the complexity and gravity of the problem of human settlement the country has identified the following major areas of objectives for priorities at the national level.

Objectives

1. Adopting realistic and appropriate human settlement policies and spatial planning strategies.
2. Promoting socially-integrated human settlement, creating the possibilities for active and effective participation of the people, especially women and the poor, in the planning, building and management of their human settlement
3. Acknowledging and harnessing the potential of the informal sector, where appropriate, in providing housing and services for the poor.
4. Creating a living environment which recognize and respect the cultural, economic and infrastructural needs of the community.
5. Enabling competitive and sustainable economic development that will attract investments, generate employment and provide revenues for human settlements development.
6. Creating economic opportunities conducive to full employment for both men and women.
7. Reducing the impact of natural and man-made disasters on human settlements.

Action

- A- Formulate and implement a national human settlement development policy, which insures equitable access and maintenance of essential services.
- B- Re-direct public resources in support of community based management services and infrastructure and promote the participation of local communities, including women, in the identification of public service needs, spatial planning and the design and provision of urban infrastructure.
- C- Promote the social integration of all social groups, recognizing the importance of voluntary contributions and in close cooperation with non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations, the cooperative sector, public and private foundations.
- D- Establish, as appropriate, national legislation to guide the implementation of public policies for sustainable urban development, land utilization, housing and the improved management of urban growth.
- E- Develop and support the implementation of improved land management practices that deal comprehensively with competing urban land requirements for housing, industry, commerce, infrastructure, transport and green spaces.
- F- Promote the integration of land use and transport planning to encourage a development pattern that reduces transport demand.
- G- Strengthening the commercial and market function of small and intermediate towns to reduce migration to the primate city, by generating employment.
- H- Upgrade basic link extending roads in different regions and accelerate the link with the different urban centers and with the hinter-land.
- I- Encourage the existing conducive policy grounds to activate private investors in the development of agro-based industries; thus increasing productivity and income generation for the poor.

5.3 Capacity Building and Institutional Development

Regarding the capacity and institutional development of local governments, the main problems to be faced arise from currently inadequate financial resources for providing services the continued population increase. A second problem, of increasing significance in the larger cities, is that a haphazard settlement pattern both in living quarters and productive enterprises result in ever greater costs.

All urban administrations are poorly staffed, and the organizational structure of the municipalities is based on outdated legislation, which is not conducive to urban planning. Despite the existence of many institutions directly involved in urban development activities the inter-sectoral coordination has been very poor. Intra-sectoral collaboration within the urban development institutions is also so weak that municipalities lack adequate capacity to design development projects and implement programs.

The following necessary actions are anticipated which will help both central and local level institutions involved in human settlement to develop their capacity.

Objectives

1. To ensure effective decentralization and strengthening of local authorities and their network.
2. To encourage and support participation, civic engagement and the fulfillment of local authorities and civic organizations.
3. To strengthen the national and local economic and financial base with a view to addressing the needs of sustainable human settlements development.
4. To improve the capacity of information technology and network, which should be appropriately and optimally utilized to enhance and improve education, training and public awareness of the social, economic and environmental issues affecting the quality of life, and to facilitate access by all key actors and communities in the exchange of habitat practices, including those which uphold the rights of children, women and other vulnerable groups in the context of growing urbanization.
5. To increase the skill and capacity of the metropolitan city's (Addis Ababa) management that require special skills and capacity to manage its large concentration of urban poor, extensive infrastructure networks, transport, the communication system etc.

Actions

- A- Strengthening and developing institutional capacity and involve policies pertaining to the acceleration of urban socio-economic development.
- B- The creation of an effective institutional mechanism, and adoption of policies which will enable municipalities to both extend their tax base and borrow funds, to become legal entities which can own property, and to enforce better regulations on land use.
- C- The building institutional capacity at the central, regional and municipal levels, by which central local authorities will be greatly up graded and given increased responsibilities for research, policy formulation, and administration reform.

- D- The regional bureau will be strengthened as part of decentralization strategy, and efforts will be made to utilize more fully local level administration institutions.
- E- Skill upgrading and training, which were specially given for technical persons under the urban planning college, will be extended through the civil service college. Lower level employees' skill upgrading by training in basic financial management and accounting system will be given by UDSS.
- F- Although modernizing the cadestral system to update land information and documentation needs a long time endeavor, our plan of action until 2000 will be the training of manpower and preparing the necessary equipment for land registration and cadestral system management,.
- G- To strengthen the capacity of local government and sectoral ministers and its bodies working within the field of operation of the various agencies to collect, analyze and disseminate as appropriate, comparative data on the performance of local authorities in providing for the needs of the people.

5.4 Manpower Research (Employment Creation)

Objectives

To assess the quality and quantity of the manpower of the country and formulate integrated long-term and short-term manpower planning.

- To establish a data bank of manpower employment and unemployment information.
- To materialize the manpower and employment policy, accumulate and analyse the data of manpower of the country
- To train national experts in the field of employment and human resource development
- To establish a system for the regular flow of data of labor statistics (LS), Labor Market Informants (LMI) and other aspects of human resources.
- To improve and strength the capacity of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs in the collection of comprehensive labor statistics, labor market information and in undertaking major surveys on comprehensive LS and LMI at regular intervals and recommend a mechanism for their efficient production and dissemination.
- To generate employment opportunity for job seekers.
- To promote remittance possibilities.
- To match the available vacancies with the appropriate job seekers.

Action

- To undertake a survey on manpower employment and vocational training and analyze the causes of long-term employment and their effect, in particular reference to vulnerable groups (older workers, women, youths, single parents) and propose employment policy recommendations.
- To exchange information on different employment promotion measures and their consequences and monitor the development of global strategies.
- To produce a yearly report of labor statistics which incorporates data on job seekers, vacancies, placement, number of trade unions and work accidents in various socio-economic characteristics.
- To issue work permits for Ethiopians who submit appropriate work contracts to work abroad and compile the data.
- To assess if there is any means of employment outside Ethiopia.
- To render employment service to all Ethiopians who fall in the production of indigenous people in the labor market, and their access to employment opportunities, without any discrimination.

5.5 The Government of Ethiopia and UNICEF Agreement Objectives Strategies and Action Plans Regarding Basic Services for Children and Women For the Year 1994-1999

Objectives

1. The acceleration of universal child immunization to reach 80% coverage, combined with vitamin A distribution to eliminate vitamin A deficiency;
2. To achieve oral rehydration therapy use by child caretakers to 80%;
3. The elimination of Iodine deficiency disorders through promotion and utilization of iodized salt;
4. The promotion of positive sexual behavior and practices to 80% of youths aged 10-19 both in and out of school to prevent HIV infection;

5. The promotion of baby and mother friendly practices in 75% of the 89 hospitals and 160 health centers;
6. The advocacy for the implementation of the convention on the Rights of the child;
7. Establishment of systems for monitoring the situation of children and women as part of the governments regular social statistics compilation;
8. The formulation of child and women focused policies; and
9. Assisting central and regional governments to increase emergency preparedness capabilities and improved responses to emergency situations.

Strategies

1. Support policy formulation and/or re-orientation and promotion for the health, food and nutrition, water and sanitation, and education sectors;
2. Support Zones Regions, the Ministry of Health and others national institutions to ensure expanded programs of immunization, plus vitamin A for children under one year and women of child-bearing age;
3. Support oral Rehydration Therapy promotion with a target of 80% knowledge and practice among families;
4. Ensure accessibility of 95% of the population to iodized salt to eliminate iodine deficiency disorders;
5. Support massive education on the prevention of AIDS amongst youths aged between 10-19 years which focus on the mobilization of the community, public and social sectors;
6. Enhancement of the capacity at central, regional and zonal level for continuous support to woreda integrated basic services in 64 woredas;
7. Search for mechanisms for cost-sharing between the central, regional/zonal levels and the woreda/community levels; and
8. Strengthen or develop systems for monitoring, preventing and responding to emergencies at the central, regional, zonal and woreda administration levels.

Action

A. Health

1. Supporting the Ministry of Health to strengthen planning processes, develop health management information systems, and analyze nations data relating to the health goals;
2. Promote sector policies as well as intensify health education; and
3. Strengthening management for improving the quality of and accessibility to community based health services in order to decrease mortality amongst children and women.

B. Nutrition

1. To support the implementation of the national food and nutrition strategy in order to have national plans of activities incorporated into the regions development plans and annual budgets.
2. Support Activities that will enhance community awareness and skill in analyzing nutritional problems and issues; and
3. The empowerment of women-head households and increasing their access to credit and energy-saving technologies which enhance their capacity to participate in income generating activities and socio-economic development as well as improving their child and health care practices.

C. Water and Sanitation

1. Assist the development and promotion of national policies in the areas of water supply and sanitation;
2. Incorporate a national program of action goals stressing low-cost technologies and village level operation and maintenance, standardized designs and hardware, and an increase in the efficiency of existing capital assets, mobilization and restructuring of resources and the development of a comprehensive training program;

3. Reducing water-borne and water related diseases at the local level by increasing the availability of potable water and sanitation facilities in the communities;
4. The development of human resources;
5. Assisting the regions and woredas to use cost-effective, affordable and sustainable technologies;
6. Establishment or strengthening of maintenance facilities at the regional, woreda and community levels;
7. Promotion of community management and protection of water sources with particular emphasis on women's empowerment; and
8. Design and dissemination of environmental sanitation and hygiene information.

D. Education

1. Support the Ministry of Education to develop and promote a Basic Education for All oriented national policy;
2. Undertake a comprehensive education sector analysis;
3. Support the development of pre-school and primary education curricula;
4. Strengthen the education media to broadcast the facts of life with an additional section on peace education and improve distance radio education for primary schools;
5. Increasing access to family and community based early childhood care, development and education, raising the primary school participation rate and improving functional literacy in the communities, especially for girls and women;
6. Assisting woredas in adapting early childhood care, development and education curricula materials to respond the felt needs of the community;
7. Strengthening the management of the woreda education system through orientation and training of personnel; and
8. Involvement of NGO's, CBO's and development workers in the planning, management and monitoring of basic education to strengthen the foundation for educational activities.

5.6 WOMEN & HUMAN SETTLEMENT DEVELOPMENT

Objectives

1. Reduction of women's poverty by arranging favorable condition for them to improve educational status and skill upgrading and training in order to earn better income .
2. To facilitate housing for the homeless urban women household heads especially for jobless and low income groups.
3. To ensure the participation of women in economic, social and political activities of local community.

Strategies

1. Land should be given to women when they reach working age to prevent early marriage and feel confident after marriage which will be reducing high rate of urban migration of rural women;
2. Parents should be encouraged to send daughter to school;
3. Basic services such as health centers (especially mother and child health services and delivery clinics) educational facilities, easy access to safe drinking water, flour-mills, it should be expanded to make life easier for women;
4. Civic education has to be arranged with special emphasis on the need of women participation in local government system;
5. Various types of appropriate technologies for domestic chores should be introduced in order to reduce women's work load which in reality makes life difficult to bear and lead the women to aspire for a relatively better urban life.
6. Different forms of skill upgrading training has to be arranged for urban poor women so as to facilitate employment and job creation.
7. Easy access to credit mechanism for urban women must be created to generate better income in general and to build low-cost housing in particular;
8. Design sensitization program for housing policy makers and designers at various levels should increasing rate of female headed households in the urban areas;

9. Formulation of a national housing policy and strategy that incorporates the housing policy and strategy that incorporates the housing need of women recognizing their size in the population as half and their triple role as mothers, bread winners and significant actors in community affairs specially in the housing construction process.
10. Allocation of special fund for low-cost housing construction for homeless females headed households who are victims of displacement and natural disaster
11. Arranging different training programs for women in the field of indigenous building material in order to combat environmental degradation.

Action

1. Enhance gender perspectives development planning to facilitate women's equal access to resources, employment, markets and trade.
3. Ensure integration of gender concerns and perspectives in policies and programs for sustainable development.
3. Review adopt and maintain macro economic policies and development strategies that address the needs and efforts of women to overcome poverty with framework of sustainable development.
4. Research will be conducted in different regions on how women will have access for land and property.
5. Arrange high level workshops for regional governments and parliamentarians to discuss the allocation of plot to women.
6. Facilitate credit mechanisms for rural and urban poor women's in different regions.
7. Strengthen the capacity of regional agricultural offices extension workers so that they can be able to effectively address the needs of rural women;
8. Arrange a series of updated training's for agricultural extension workers related to improved agricultural inputs and appropriate technology.
9. Networking with regional development associations NGO's and CBO's on how to expand basic services such as health centers, schools and any other development endeavors.
10. Arrange training program for women in the production of indigenous building materials.

11. Strengthen the institutional capacity of home-science department of Awassa agricultural college so as to develop appropriate technologies for rural women household.
12. Skill upgrading training for urban poor women will be arranged with special emphasis in the construction process.
13. Arrange sensitization workshop for housing project planners and designers that address the interest and role of women in housing construction and its challenge.
14. Search fund to be allocated for low-cost housing construction to the homeless female-headed households.

Annex - 1

Primary Source of Water Supply in the Household

Urban Center	Percentage of Households Obtaining Water as a Primary Source			
	Piped Connection	Communal Tap	Well, Stream Lake or Dam	Others
Adigrat	39.6	38.4	21.3	0.7
Arbaminch	47.4	49.1	3.5	-
Awassa	47.1	48.4	4.5	-
Bahirdar	40.3	42.3	4.5	12.9
Dessie	34.1	50.7	7.6	7.6
Diredawa	27.7	69.8	2.2	0.3
Gondar	21.0	40.5	17.5	21.0
Harar	39.5	56.8	3.6	0.1
Jimma	22.2	38.7	39.1	-
Mekelle	27.3	51.7	18.6	2.4
Nazareth	38.8	45.1	8.0	8.1
Nekemte	23.8	22.7	51.9	1.6
Total %	34.1	46.1	15.2	4.6

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

Annex - 2

**Number of Household Having Safe or Potable Drinking Water
Located Within 200 Meters of the Dwellers**

No.	Urban center	H/Hs		
		Total H/H	Access to Potable Water	%
1	Mekelle	25691	17615	68.8
2	Arbaminch	5701	3576	62.7
3	Jimma	17556	8604	49.0
4	Nazareth	20210	15668	77.5
5	Diredawa	28866	20771	71.9
6	Harar	18053	15592	86.4
7	Gondar	21070	19835	69.0
8	Dessie	19822	16299	82.2
9	Bahirdar	14933	12187	81.6
10	Nekemte	8204	2707	33.0
11	Adigrat	8994	5535	61.6
12	Awassa	9856	5497	55.7
	Total	198982	143886	72.3

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

Annex - 3

**Proportion of Road Expenditure on Revenue Capital Expenditure
and Recurrent Expenditure**

Urban Center	Proportion of Road Expenditure			Per Capita Expenditure
	Revenue	Recurrent Expenditure	Capital Expenditure	
Adigrat	0.13	0.32	0.37	0.28
Arbaminch	0.02	0.06	0.14	0.09
Bahirdar	0.14	0.36	0.99	0.33
Dessie	0.58	1.65	0.97	1.01
Diredawa	0.11	0.25	0.31	0.31
Gondar	0.05	0.11	0.19	0.11
Harar	0.13	0.41	0.70	0.45
Nekemte	0.24	0.08	-	0.05
Average Total	0.18	0.41	0.52	0.33

Source : Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

Annex - 4

**Number of Expected Age Group Population and enrolled Students in
Elementary and Secondary Educational by Sex (1995)**

Urban Center	Elementary						Secondary and Post Secondary											
	Male			Female			Total			Male			Female			Total		
	Population	Enrolled Students		Population	Enrolled Students		Population	Enrolled Students		Population	Enrolled Students		Population	Enrolled Students		Population	Enrolled Students	
Adigrat	9580	3659		8437	3369		18017	7028		7783	2370		8000	1802		15783	4172	
Arbaminch	4250	3558		3742	3508		7992	7066		3452	2867		3548	2264		7000	5131	
Bahirdar	15373	6809		13539	7016		28912	13825		12489	5301		12836	4820		25325	10121	
Dessie	16336	7879		14386	8541		30722	16420		13272	4138		13640	3055		26912	7193	
Diradawa	24024	10183		21156	8522		45180	18705		19517	5021		20060	4164		39577	9185	
Gondar	17974	9310		15828	10145		33802	19455		14602	7040		15008	8110		29610	15150	
Harar	15364	6355		13531	5712		28895	12067		12482	3883		12830	3547		25312	7430	
Mekelle	22074	9533		19439	9932		41513	19465		17933	4497		18432	3701		36365	8198	
Nekemte	8066	3330		7102	3334		15168	6664		6552	3140		6735	5724		13287	8864	
Total	133041	60616		117160	60079		250201	120695		108082	38257		111089	37187		219171	75444	
%	53.2	50.2		46.8	49.8		100	100		49.3	50.7		50.7	49.3		100	100	

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD September 1995.

Annex - 5

Percentage of Housing Unit and System of Waste Water disposal

Urban Center	Type of Waste Water Disposal				Total
	Septic Tank	Free Flow	Drains	Others	
Adigrat	18.3	79.2	2.5	-	100
Arbaminch	15.3	80.3	2.6	1.8	100
Awassa	34.9	59.0	5.9	0.2	100
Bahirdar	17.7	76.8	5.5	-	100
Dessie	4.7	79.0	14.0	2.3	100
Diredawa	14.8	79.2	4.7	1.3	100
Gondar	6.4	88.8	3.8	1.0	100
Harar	13.9	80.0	5.8	0.6	100
Jimma	23.1	52.2	18.5	3.2	100
Mekelle	16.8	74.4	4.2	4.6	100
Nazareth	19.5	66.3	12.3	1.9	100
Total Average	16.9	74.2	7.3	1.5	100

Source : Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

Annex - 6

Disposal Methods For Solid Waste

No.	Urban Center	Proportion of Solid Wastes by Weight Disposed to				Total
		Sanitary Land Fill (solid waste collected by garbage cane, car, cart)	Incinerated (Home Burn)	Open Dump %	Others	
1	Adigrat	12.2	7.3	36.0	44.5	100
2	Arbaminch	5.3	57.5	21.9	15.3	100
3	Awassa	4.3	58.8	24.2	12.7	100
4	Bahirdar	3.2	63.9	20.0	12.9	100
5	Dessie	6.8	37.6	48.2	7.4	100
6	Diredawa	14.7	30.0	41.2	14.1	100
7	Gondar	8.7	22.2	60.3	8.8	100
8	Harar	19.1	23.4	41.1	16.4	100
9	Jimma	10.9	42.6	34.9	11.6	100
10	Nekemte	-	18.6	66.1	15.3	100
11	Mekelle	10.2	22.1	32.3	35.4	100
12	Nazareth	8.8	60.7	16.1	14.4	100
	Total %	8.7	37.1	36.8	17.4	100

Source : Household Sample Survey, MoWUD 1995

* It is a burning of solid waste at home without using an incinerator.

Annex - 7

Proportion of Latrine Facilities in the Household

Urban centers	Proportion of Households with the Following Types of Latrine Facilities		
	Under-Ground Individual	Under-Ground Communal	Open Ground or Trench
Adigrat	22.0	6.1	71.9
Arbaminch	58.8	28.5	12.7
Awassa	73.8	21.6	4.6
Bahirdar	49.0	16.1	34.9
Dessie	43.1	31.7	25.2
Diredawa	51.2	42.6	6.2
Gondar	38.7	145.3	47.0
Harar	44.0	29.6	26.4
Jimma	65.7	23.2	11.1
Mekelle	36.5	28.2	35.3
Nazareth	59.6	27.2	13.2
Nekmete	61.1	18.9	20.0
Total (12 towns)	50.3	24.0	25.7

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, 1995.

Municipal Average Source of Income (1992-1995) in Birr (000)

No.	Urban Centre	Taxes		User Charges		Other Own Source of Income		Transfer From Higher Level of Government		Borrowings		Other Income		Total
		amount	%	amount	%	amount	%	amount	%	amount	%	amount	%	
1	Diredawa	2157.5	69.6	655.4	21.2	285.8	9.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	3098.7
2	Gondar	1055.3	54.4	370.5	19.1	511.9	26.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	1939.2
3	Bahirdar	1004.8	59.1	306.6	18.0	387.8	22.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	1700.9
4	Dessie	775.5	57.5	343.9	25.5	230.1	17.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1349.5
5	Harrar	1975.0	76.9	73.8	2.9	444.8	17.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	2568.4
6	Nazareth	1932.2	58.4	1074.1	32.5	302.1	9.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	3308.4
7	Adigrat	655.1	68.2	197.2	20.5	108.7	11.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	961.0
8	Arbaminch	148.0	20.4	220.1	30.3	232.3	32.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	726.0
9	Nekempt	404.6	57.1	41.9	5.9	160.0	22.6	0.6	0.1	13.6	1.9	112	15.4	708.7
	Total	101081	61.7	3783.5	20.0	2663.5	16.3	0.6	0.003	13.6	0.08	291.6	14.3	16360.8

Source : Household Sample Survey MoWUD, September 1995.

Average Municipal Per-Capita Capital Income and Expenditure in Birr (1992-1995)

No.	Urban Centre	Total Income (1992-1995) (Birr 000)	Population 1995 (Estimated)	Per Capita Capital Income	Expenditure (Birr 000)	Per Capita Capital Expenditure
1	Diredawa	3098.7	180718	17.1	3065.7	16.9
2	Bahirdar	1939.2	115641	14.7	1237.3	10.7
3	Gondar	1700.9	135205	14.3	1919.0	14.1
4	Dessie	1349.5	122886	11.0	1936.2	15.7
5	Harar	2568.4	115581	22.2	3348.0	28.9
6	Nazareth	3308.4	138974	23.3	1769.6	12.7
7	Adigrat	961.0	72068	13.3	817.2	11.3
8	Arbaminch	726.0	31967	22.7	572.1	17.8
9	Nekemte	708.7	60673	11.6	-	-
	Total	16360.8	973713	16.8	14665.0	16.0

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD September 1995.

- * Average per capita capital income = 16.8 Birr = 2.7 dollars
- * Average per capita capital expenditure = 16.0 Birr = 2.5 dollars
- * 1 dollars is equivalent to 6.3 Birr

Annex - 10

Average Recurrent Expenditures 1993-1995 in (000 Birr)

No.	Urban centre	Salary	%	Operating expense	%	Capital expenditure	%	Total
1	Bahir dar	416.9	33.7	660.7	53.4	159.7	12.9	1237.3
2	Gondar	552.3	28.8	866.2	45.1	500.5	26.1	1919.0
3	Dessie	663.3	34.2	472.2	24.4	800.8	41.4	1936.3
4	Harar	511.5	28.9	792.5	44.8	465.6	26.3	1769.6
5	Nazareth	710.4	21.2	1262.7	37.7	1374.9	41.1	3348.0
6	Adigrat	85.7	10.5	389.6	47.7	341.9	41.8	817.2
7	Arbaminch	166.1	29.0	279.4	48.8	126.6	22.2	572.1
8	Nekempt	251.8	-	208.4	-	-	-	-
9	Diredawa	523.5	17.1	1397.9	45.6	1144.3	37.3	3065.7
	Total	3629.7	24.8	6121.2	41.8	4886.7	33.4	14637.6

Source : Household Sample Survey, MoWUD September 1995.

* Wages in the budget = 66.6%
(wages salaries and over heads)

Annex 11

Municipal Employees Per Thousand Population for Selected Towns

Urban Centre	No. of Municipal Employees	Population . (1995)	Ratio of Employee /1000 Population
Arbaminch	42	31967	1.35
Nazreth	153	138974	1.10
Diredawa	162	180718	0.90
Dessie	178	122886	1.45
Gondar	173	135205	1.28
Bahirdar	115	115641	0.99
Nekempte	80	60673	1.32
Mekelle	140	166052	0.84
Harrar	140	115581	1.21
Total	1183	1,067,697	1.11

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

Annex - 12

Municipal Manpower Distribution with Educational Level and Sex

Urban Centre	Educational Level and Sex											
	Primary		Secondary		Post Secondary		College and Above		Total			
	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	no.	%		
Arbaminch	16	1	6	1	11	5	2	-	42	4		
Nazareth	76	13	31	9	20	3	1	-	153	13		
Diredawa	73	-	40	35	10	3	1	-	162	14		
Dessie	78	10	53	26	10	1	-	-	178	15		
Gondar	76	9	42	35	9	1	1	-	173	14*		
Bahirdar	75	9	9	13	-	-	7	2	115	9		
Nekempt	16	5	11	4	27	13	4	-	80	7		
Mekelle	70	16	17	15	4	1	16	1	140	12		
Harar	32	18	7	2	28	35	16	2	140	12		
Total	512	81	216	140	119	62	48	5	1183	100		
%	43.3	6.8	18.3	11.8	10.0	5.2	4.0	0.5	100			

Source : Household Sample Survey , MoWUD September 1995.

Annex 13

Availability of Vehicles and Major Machinery and Equipment

Type	Mekele		Dessie		Gondar		Adigrat		Bahir Dar		Nekemte		Arbaminch		Awassa		Harar		Nazreth		Total	
	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.	F.	N.F.
1. Roller	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Asphalt Heater and Sprayer	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Excavator	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4. Loader	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5. Damp Truck	3	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6. Service cars	4	-	5	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7. Ambulance	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. Truck	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9. Vacuum Tanker	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Garbage collector	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11. Fire Fighter	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12. Abattoir Service	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13. Cemetery Service	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14. Crusher	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15. Grader	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16. Dozzer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17. Hollow Block H.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	10	5	11	5	7	1	4	2	11	18	5	-	3	-	5	13	13	6	14	20	83	70

Source: Household Sample Survey, MWUD, September 1995

Average Number of Persons per Room, Average Number of Persons Per Housing Unit, Average No. of Rooms per Housing Unit, Ratio of Household Per Housing Unit and Average Household Size.

No.	Urban centre	Average number of persons per room	Average number of persons per housing unit	Average number of rooms per housing unit	Ratio of household per housing unit	Average household size
1	Awassa	1.89	6.61	3.50	1.14	5.81
2	Nazareth	2.55	8.8	3.46	1.28	6.87
3	Jimma	2.56	8.1	3.11	1.24	6.23
4	Diredawa	3.33	7.49	2.25	1.20	6.26
5	Gondar	3.25	8.03	2.49	1.25	6.42
6	Bahirdar	3.39	10.64	3.14	1.37	7.74
7	Dessie	2.28	7.42	3.25	1.20	6.20
8	Nekempt	2.60	9.37	3.62	1.23	7.38
9	Adigrat	4.30	12.6	2.9	1.60	8.01
10	Harar	2.91	7.74	2.66	1.21	6.4
11	Arbaminch	1.90	6.15	3.22	1.09	5.6
12	Mekelle	4.16	10.35	2.49	1.60	6.46
	Total Average	2.9	8.4	2.91	1.28	6.59

Source : Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

Annex - 15

Housing Unit With the Type of Wall Building Material and Age (12 Towns)

Age	Building Material Type												Total	
	Brick		Stone		HCB		Wood and mud		Others		Total		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
< 10	263	14.0	7489	16.1	6295	19.7	9519	13.4	868	23.6	244134	14.7		
10 - 19	597	31.9	11656	25.1	7962	24.9	17542	24.6	825	22.4	38582	24.9		
20 - 29	492	26.3	9316	20.0	6873	21.5	15421	21.6	678	18.3	32780	21.1		
30 - 39	176	9.4	7375	15.9	6386	20.0	15981	22.4	338	9.0	30256	19.5		
40 - 49	190	10.1	4805	10.3	2229	7.0	7449	10.5	267	7.1	14940	9.6		
50+	156	8.3	5843	12.6	2190	6.9	5372	7.5	723	19.6	14284	9.2		
Total	1874	100	46484	100	31935	100	71284	100	3699	100	155276	100		
* Obsolete	156		5843		4419		28802		3699		42919	27.6		
** Permanent structure	1528		28461		14257		9519				53765	34.6		

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD September 1995

Note: *

With normal maintenance and repair the service period of the housing is expected to be a) Brick 50 years b) Stone 60 years c) HCB 40 years d) Wood and mud 30 years based on this estimate housing units of age 50+ with Brick and stone, HCB with the age of above 39, and wood and mud above 29 years will be obsolete in the coming 5 years period. Therefore from the total housing unit 27.6% of the housing unit are estimated obsolete.

**

According to Human Settlement indicator permanent structure is the percentage of dwelling unit which are likely to last twenty years or more having normal maintenance and repair. Therefore from the total housing unit only 34.6% are permanent structure.

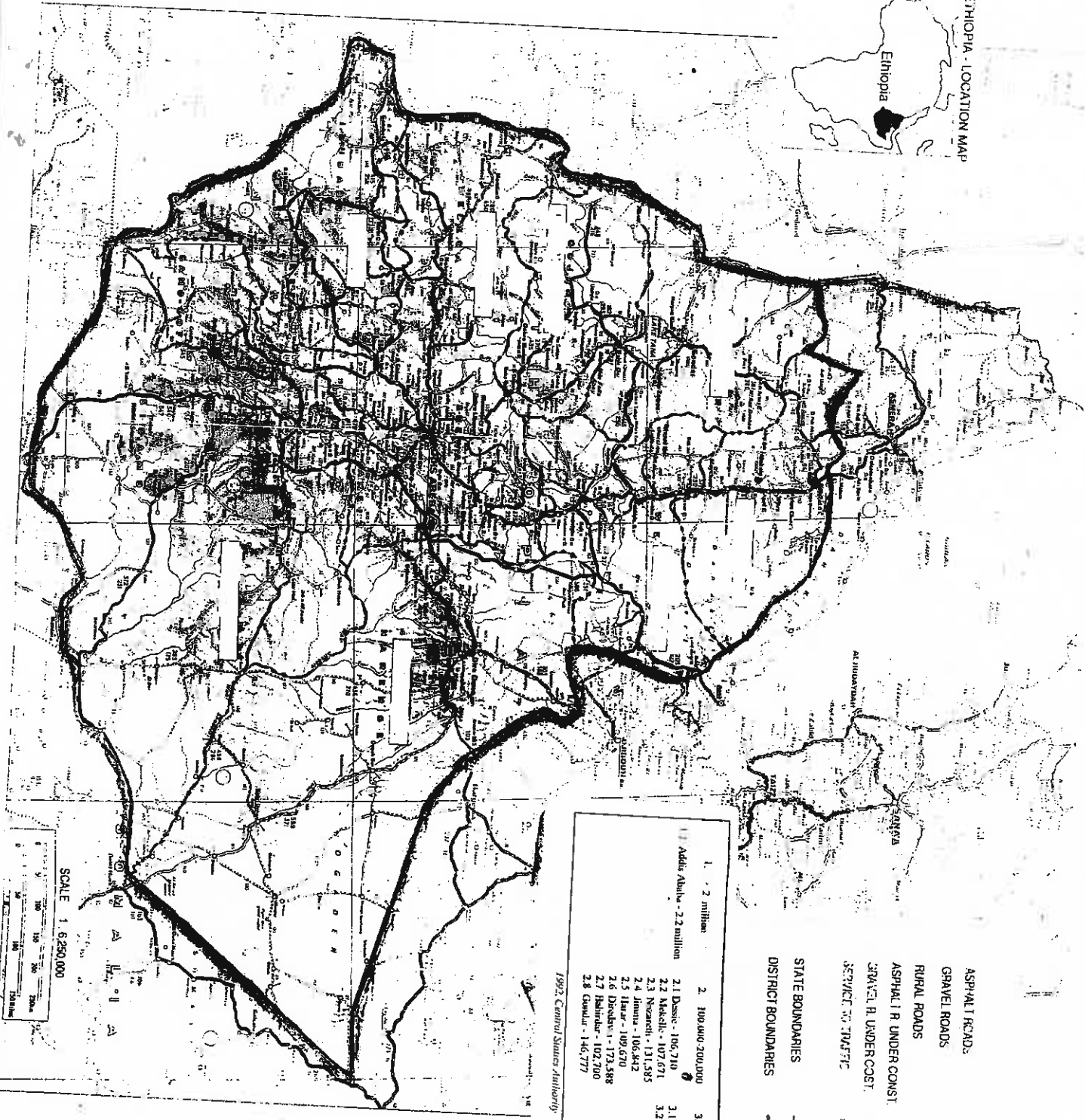
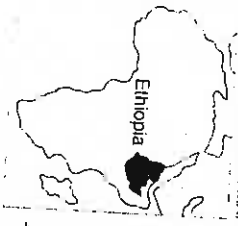
Household Heads Employment Status for 12 intermediate towns

Sex	Age	Government		Trader		Daily labourer		Others		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
MALE	< 25	720	1.6	1034	3.1	574	3.6	620	2.0	2949	2.4
	26 - 35	10508	23.8	6164	18.8	2608	16.3	2824	9.3	22108	17.9
	36 - 45	21131	47.9	10881	32.9	5025	31.5	5162	17.0	42200	34.1
	46 - 55	8437	19.1	7294	22.1	3348	21.0	6531	21.5	25610	20.7
	56 - 65	2305	5.2	5186	15.7	2497	15.7	8247	27.2	18236	14.8
	66+	887	2.0	2376	7.2	1598	10.0	6918	22.8	11800	9.5
	Not stated	199	0.4	122	0.2	351	1.9	122	0.2	793	0.6
	Total	41188	100.0	30080	100.0	16001	100.0	30427	100.0	123697	100.0
	%	35.7	-	26.8	-	12.9	-	24.6	-	100.0	-
	FEMALE	< 25	401	4.1	938	4.9	475	4.6	1515	4.2	3330
26 - 36		3592	36.9	3958	20.7	2353	22.8	4852	13.4	14755	19.6
36 - 45		3991	41.0	6579	34.4	3272	31.7	7731	21.4	21573	28.7
46 - 55		1060	11.0	3751	19.7	2203	21.4	8001	22.1	15025	20.0
56 - 65		404	4.1	2001	10.5	1206	11.7	7084	19.6	10694	14.2
66+		209	2.1	1785	9.3	729	7.1	6709	18.6	9432	12.5
Not stated		68	0.7	69	0.4	69	0.7	270	0.7	274	0.4
Total		9734	100	19081	100	10308	100	36161	100	75285	100
%		12.9	-	25.3	-	13.7	-	48.1	-	100	-

Source: Household Sample Survey, MoWUD, September 1995.

ETHIOPIA - LOCATION OF MAJOR URBAN CENTER

ETHIOPIA - LOCATION MAP



1. < 2 million	2. 100,000-200,000	3. 50,000-100,000	4. < 50,000
Addis Ababa - 2.2 million	2.1 Dire - 106,710	3.1 Awassa - 62,943	4.1 Addisniet - 37,428
	2.2 Mekelle - 107,671	3.2 Nekemte - 52,413	4.2 Adigral - 33,934
	2.3 Negele - 131,585		
	2.4 Jimma - 106,442		
	2.5 Harar - 109,670		
	2.6 Debedes - 173,588		
	2.7 Bahirar - 102,700		
	2.8 Gondar - 146,777		

1992 Central Statistcs Authority

- ASPHALT HEADS
- GRAVEL ROADS
- RURAL ROADS
- ASPHALT R UNDER CONST.
- GRAVEL R UNDER CONST.
- SERVICE TO TRAFFIC
- STATE BOUNDARIES
- DISTRICT BOUNDARIES

SCALE 1:6,250,000