

Ethiopia

2016 Country Review

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Chapter 1

Country Overview

Country Overview

ETHIOPIA

Ethiopia, located in eastern Africa, is the continent's oldest independent country. Apart from a five-year occupation by Italy in 1936-1941, it has never been colonized. In 1974, a military junta, the Derg, deposed Emperor Haile Selassie (who had ruled since 1930) and established a socialist state. Torn by bloody coups, uprisings, wide-scale drought, and massive refugee problems, the regime was finally toppled in 1991 by a coalition of rebel forces, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). A constitution was adopted in 1994, and Ethiopia's first multiparty elections were held in 1995. A border war with Eritrea in the late 1990s ended with a peace treaty in December 2000, but border tensions between the two countries persist. Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world. The largely agricultural economy remains vulnerable to climatic shocks, particularly droughts, and to world commodity price fluctuations. The war with Eritrea from 1998 to 2000 also had a devastating economic impact. However, Ethiopia has made significant progress in improving its economic performance in recent years thanks to the implementation of sound economic policies and financial support from the international community.

Key Data

Key Data	
Region:	Africa
Population:	103134200
Climate:	Temperate plateaus; hot lowlands; February-April 'short' rains (belg); June-September 'big' rains (meher)
Languages:	Amharic (official) Tigrinya Orominga Guaraginga Somali Arabic English
Currency:	1 birr (Br) = 100 cents
Holiday:	National Day is 28 May (1991), Ethiopian New Year is 11 September, Genna is 7 January
Area Total:	1127127
Area Land:	1119683
Coast Line:	0

Ethiopia

Country Map



Africa

Regional Map



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Chapter 2

Political Overview

History

The history of Ethiopia, known biblically as Abyssinia, is rich, ancient, and full of mystery and intrigue. Anthropologists believe that East Africa's Great Rift Valley, which stretches south through Kenya and Tanzania, is the site of the origin of humankind.

It was in the Afar region of Ethiopia where scientists discovered the remains of "Lucy" or Dinkeneshe, meaning "thou art wonderful," as she is known to the Ethiopians. "Lucy" lived more than three million years ago, and her bones are now on display in the Ethiopian National Museum. The first recorded account of the region dates back almost 5,000 years to the time of the Egyptian pharaohs, when the ancient Egyptians sent expeditions down the Red Sea in quest of gold, ivory, incense, and slaves.

Ethiopia is the oldest independent country in Africa and one of the oldest in the world. Herodotus, the Greek historian of the fifth century B.C.E., describes ancient Ethiopia in his writings.

Missionaries from Egypt and Syria introduced Christianity in the fourth century C.E. and the Old Testament of the Bible records the Queen of Sheba's visit to Jerusalem. According to legend, Menelik I, the son of King Solomon and the Queen of Sheba, founded the Ethiopian empire.

The Ark of the Covenant is said to rest in Axum, the seat of the great Axumite kingdom, which was also home to an early Christian community. According to legend, King Lalibela is believed to have constructed eleven rock-hewn churches, several of which are still standing today, that were considered an eighth wonder of the world.

Following the rise of Islam in the seventh century, Ethiopia was gradually cut off from Christendom. The Portuguese re-established European contact with Ethiopia in 1493, primarily to strengthen their hegemony over the Indian Ocean and to convert Ethiopia to Roman Catholicism. A century of conflict between pro- and anti-Catholic factions followed, resulting in the expulsion of all foreign missionaries in the 1630s. This period of bitter religious conflict exacerbated hostility toward foreign Christians and Europeans, and hardened Ethiopia's isolation until the mid-19th century.

Under Emperors Theodore II (1855-68), Johannes IV (1872-1889), and Menelik II (1889-1913),

the kingdom began to emerge from its medieval isolation. When Menelik II died, his grandson, Lij Iyasu, succeeded to the throne but soon lost support because of his Muslim ties. The Christian nobility deposed him in 1916, and Menelik's daughter, Zewditu, was made empress. Her cousin, Ras Tafari Makonnen, was made regent and successor to the throne.

In 1930, the empress died, and the regent, adopting the name Haile Selassie, was crowned emperor. His reign was interrupted in 1936 when Italian fascist forces invaded and occupied Ethiopia despite his plea to the League of Nations for intervention. Five years later, the Italians were defeated by British and Ethiopian forces, and the emperor returned from exile in England to retake the throne.

While Ethiopia did experience a brief period of subjugation at the hands of the Italians, it is noteworthy as the only African country that was never colonized by European colonialists.

Note on History: In certain entries, open source content from the State Department Background Notes and Country Guides have been used. A full listing of sources is available in the Bibliography.

Political Conditions

After a period of civil unrest that began in February 1974, the aging Haile Selassie I was deposed in September 1974. A provisional administrative council of soldiers, known as the Derg ("committee") seized power from the emperor and installed a government socialist in name and military in style. The Derg then summarily executed 59 members of the royal family, ministers and generals of the emperor's former government. In August 1975, the Emperor himself was finally dispatched in the basement of his palace after nearly a year of imprisonment and torture.

After having his two predecessors killed, Lt. Colonel Mengistu Haile Mariam assumed power as head of state and Derg chairman. In December 1976, an Ethiopian delegation in Moscow signed a military assistance agreement with the Soviet Union that paved the way for a massive military expansion and a totalitarian-style government during Mengistu's years in office. At the same time, Ethiopia abrogated its military assistance agreement with the United States and expelled American military missions. From 1977 through early 1978, thousands of suspected enemies of the Derg were tortured and/or killed in a purge called the "Red Terror." Communism was officially adopted during the late 1970s and early 1980s with the promulgation of a Soviet-style constitution, Politburo, and the creation of the Workers' Party of Ethiopia (WPE).

In July 1977, sensing the disarray in Ethiopia, Somalia attacked across the Ogaden Desert in pursuit of its claims to the ethnic Somali areas of Ethiopia. Ethiopian forces were driven back far inside their own frontiers, but, with the assistance of a massive Soviet arms airlift and Cuban combat forces, they finally stemmed the attack. A year later, the major Somali regular units were forced out of the Ogaden. Although the major offensive was rebuffed, insurgency and occasional border clashes in the area continued, and more than twenty years later, the Somali region of Ethiopia remains underdeveloped and insecure.

The Derg's collapse was hastened by droughts and famine, coup attempts, as well as by insurrections, particularly in the northern regions of Tigray and Eritrea. In one particularly egregious episode, while the world was mobilizing to provide relief supplies to famine-stricken Ethiopians ("Live Aid" and "We Are The World"), the Derg was spending an estimated \$80 million dollars on a lavish 10th anniversary celebration for itself and its "revolution."

In 1989, the Tigray People's Liberation Front (TPLF) merged with other ethnically based opposition movements to form the Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). In May 1991, EPRDF forces advanced on and entered Addis Ababa, driving Mengistu from the country and into political asylum in Zimbabwe.

In July 1991, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) organized a national conference in which most Ethiopian political organizations participated. The EPRDF, the EPLF, the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), and others established the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE), comprised of an 87-member Council of Representatives and guided by a national charter that functioned as a transitional constitution. This charter committed the TGE to respect fundamental human rights and provided for the drafting of a new constitution and national elections based on the constitution by the end of 1993.

In June 1992, the OLF withdrew from the government. In March 1993, members of the Southern Ethiopia Peoples' Democratic Coalition left the government. In May 1993, the EPLF formalized the split that had begun in practice with the fall of Addis Ababa in 1991, with Eritrea stepping out of Ethiopia and into the ranks of independent nations.

A Constituent Assembly was elected in June 1994; this assembly adopted the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia in December 1994.

Since August 1995, the Ethiopian Peoples Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) government of Prime Minister Meles Zenawi has promoted a policy of ethnic federalism, devolving significant powers to regional, ethnically based authorities. Under the present government, Ethiopians enjoy greater political participation and freer debate than ever before in their history, although fundamental freedoms, including freedom of the press and freedom of association, are, in practice

circumscribed.

The elections of May-July 2000 brought a culturally plural government. The Oromo People's Democratic Organization (OPDO) won the most seats (177), the Amhara National Democratic Movement (ANDM) won the second highest number of seats (134). Prime Minister Meles Zenawi's EPRDF won 19 seats.

Prime Minister Meles Zenawi nonetheless maintained his position, though he was forced to form a much broader coalition. While Ethiopia has made progress on democratic grounds (i.e. the holding of elections), the scope for civil society remains constrained as the government continues its transition from army of rebellion to government of the people.

One of the major issues that Ethiopia faces is political rivalry within the fractious ruling coalition. To some extent the rivalries are related to ethnic politics. Since the ending of the war with Eritrea, the EPDRF government has been facing internal political dissent resulting in crackdown, arrests, defections and dismissals. On Aug. 30, 2001, the then-Ethiopian president Nagasso accused the ruling EPRDF of carrying out an illegal act by appointing General Abdullah Gameda a close ally of Prime Minister Meles Zenawi to head the Oromo Peoples Democratic Organisation, one of the four main parties in the ruling coalition. In October 2001 Nagasso who had fallen out with Zenawi was replaced by an election of Girma Woldegiorgise as the new president.

Still more evidence of internal upheavals occurred in August 2001 when Almaz Meko a senior member of EPRDF and Speaker of Ethiopia's upper chamber of Parliament defected to the USA seeking political asylum. Meko, who is from the Oromo ethnic group, accused the prime minister's Tigray Peoples Liberation Front of persecuting the Oromo people. She has now joined the exiled Oromo Liberation Front, a separatist movement, which commands guerillas and organizes armed attacks on government forces in some areas in Ethiopia.

Heavy-handed tactics by the government apparatus are not the only obstacles to significant political development. Within the leadership of the EPRDF, there remains a holdover Tigrayan bias from the fight to topple the Derg. The two main components of the EPRDF as recently as 1991 were the TPLF and the EPLF, which were fighting for the rights of Tigrayans and Eritreans respectively. With the independence of Eritrea and the departure of the EPLF, the former TPLF leaders were able to assume complete control of the EPRDF. This control has been followed by the steady departure of former allies, including the leadership of the Oromo forces and other smaller ethnic forces. In their place, Tigrayan's and others loyal to Prime Minister Meles Zenawi have occupied the security services and the judiciary. With the ascendancy of Tigray in a Federal Ethiopia and the breakdown in relations between former friends and allies from the EPRDF, Meles and President Afwerki of Eritrea, it is hardly surprising that fighting between the neighbors erupted in May of 1998.

Given both governments' long expertise in propaganda and media warfare, even the basic facts of the conflict are in dispute. The Ethiopian version contends that in May and June 1998, Eritrea unilaterally crossed the border and began storming through Ethiopian territory, engaging in a scorched earth campaign. For the Eritrean side, they contend they were provoked to act by Ethiopian intransigence, and their unwillingness to respect the former colonial boundaries under the Italians who occupied Eritrea for more than 50 years before WWII. The 1,000-kilometer (600-mile) border passes through some extremely rough terrain and has never been completely demarcated. As a result, each side claims, with some justification, that the other has invaded and occupied territory not rightfully theirs.

The ferocity of the war seemed to take Eritreans and Ethiopians alike off-guard, and left the international media far behind. By the beginning of 1999, the war was the largest in the world with nearly half a million troops committed between the two sides. In March 1999 more people died on the Eritrean-Ethiopian border in three days than in the entire war in Kosovo. The numbers of people who have died in the war is uncertain, but it is estimated to be well into the tens of thousands. The tactics employed by Ethiopia were reminiscent of World War I trench warfare, but with modern weapons. As a result, death was rapid, common and brutal for both sides.

The war took its toll on both states; tens of thousands of combatants and civilians have been killed over the course of the conflict and nearly a million people have been displaced. After Ethiopia gained ground and began to penetrate deep into undisputed Eritrean territory, the Eritreans stepped up their demands for a deal. The agreement signed in June 2000 required the Eritreans to withdraw 25 kilometers from the disputed border, whereas the Ethiopians had only to withdraw to the other side of the border, while retaining control of several disputed towns on its side of the line. This demilitarized strip is to be patrolled by United Nations (U.N.) peacekeepers under the auspices of the Organization for African Unity (OAU), which brokered this peace accord.

On Dec. 10, 2000, the two countries signed a peace treaty brokered by the OAU under the chairmanship of Algerian President Abdelaziz Boutefilka, the immediate past chairman of the OAU to consolidate the June 2000 agreement. The accord signed in the presence of U.N. Secretary General Kofi Annan, former United States Secretary of State Madeleine Albright and OAU Secretary General Salim A. Salim, provides for, among other things, delineation of the Ethiopian and Eritrean borders; payment of compensation claims by nationals and the facilitation of the deployment of some 4,200 U.N. peacekeepers along the countries' common border.

The peace accord signed in December 2000 also established The Boundary Commission, a neutral body of the International Court of Justice in The Hague, to draw a permanent boundary through a disputed region covering large areas of fertile farmland. The dispute over the farmland was one of the principal irritants which caused the war. In April 2002, The Boundary Commission handed down its decision on the boundary between Eritrea and Ethiopia. Work to finalize The Boundary Commission's decision continued but required the de-mining activities be completed before

finalizing the border area.

Throughout 2001 and 2002 the peace process that was initiated in the December 2000 agreement continued to unfold. The U.N. peacekeeping force was able to foster a pull back of forces and a continued cessation of hostilities. Prisoner exchanges were conducted and the tedious process of clearing land mines was initiated with offers of help from international sources.

In September 2002 the U.N. Security Council approved a six-month extension of the peacekeeping force, until March 2003, to continue the efforts on demarcation of the boundary and preservation of the cessation of hostilities.

The Ethiopian government continued to undertake ambitious programs of political and economic reforms as provided in the 1994 constitution. In July 2002, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi was awarded the World Peace Corp Mission 2002 Top Honour Prize for his contributions to ending the Ethiopian and Eritrean border dispute and efforts in promoting democracy and peace.

During the latter part of 2002 and the first half of 2003, Ethiopia faced a serious challenge. A decline in donations -- possibly caused by the world's attention on the war in Iraq -- combined with drought and a severe food shortage affecting up to 14 million people in Ethiopia and millions more in southern Africa was threatening to bring back the specter of the 1984 famine in Ethiopia in which one million people died.

In April 2003, the U.N. World Food Program described the situation in Ethiopia as a "huge crisis" and warned it was quickly going to get worse, noting that at that time more than seven million people were in need of emergency food. By June 2003, more than 12.5 million Ethiopians were dependent on food aid. In an effort to move people from the barren highlands, the Ethiopian government initiated an ambitious program to move two million people to unused land in the west and south. In 2003, the project met with little success. Resettlement camps, which were promised to be set up with schools, water and facilities, were not ready. Many died from malnutrition and disease and some left the camps to return to the highlands.

Meanwhile, previously in September 2002 the U.N. Security Council approved a six-month extension of the peacekeeping force, until March 2003, to continue the efforts on demarcation of the boundary and preservation of the cessation of hostilities.

Then, in April 2003, the Boundary Commission ruled that the disputed town of Badme - which is on the board of Ethiopia and Eritrea - officially lies in Eritrea. The decision infuriated Ethiopian officials, although the country had previously stated it would accept any ruling by the commission as final -- thus evoking criticism from Commission officials.

Ethiopian officials opposed the border commission ruling and Eritrea warned of "grave

consequences" if Ethiopia rejected the ruling. The long-awaited physical demarcation of the border was scheduled to take place in May, but could not take place without the co-operation of both nations.

Ethiopia claimed that the boundary commission did not stick to its mandate as defined in Algiers. The commission, however, said its decision was based on treaties, maps and historical reality and threw out Ethiopia's evidence as "inadequate" and "inconsistent."

On July 17, 2003, the United Nations Security Council encouraged the two countries to accept as final and binding the agreement on the delimitation of the border between the two countries. The council also urged both Eritrea and Ethiopia to cooperate fully with the commission responsible for demarcating the boundary, while expressing its concerns at delays in the demarcation process up until that point.

In spite of the peace treaty, which in no way prejudices the status of competing claims, there was fear that hostilities remained. The demarcation of the border was still a highly contested issue and with Tigrayan nationalists in control of the government in Addis, the conflict, which at times has resembled a blood feud between friends and neighbors, could re-emerge as ambitions flare.

In January 2004, ethnic clashes in the western Gambella region prompted several thousand people to flee to Sudan. Violence between the Nuer and Agnwak continued for more than a month leaving nearly 200 dead and over 15,000 displaced. Authorities moved in arresting dozens. In May, 20 people were killed when government authorities attacked a violent gang in the region and seized their weapons.

By mid-2004, the dialogue on the border demarcation between Eritrea and Ethiopia was at a stalemate. Demarcation was delayed at least three times due to Ethiopia's refusal to allow Eritrea to claim the village of Badme. With allegations of cattle theft and exchanges of gunfire in late 2003 and early 2004, tensions seemed to be easing by August 2004. However, the stalemate resulted in the extension of the U.N. peacekeeping mission twice - until March 2005.

Also in 2004, the U.N. World Food Program shipped food to Ethiopia in response to the ongoing food crisis above (see details above).

In parliamentary elections held in Ethiopia in mid-May 2005, the country's ruling party -- Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) and its allies appeared to have won an overall majority in the 547-seat parliament. Although vote counting was painfully slow, returns from constituencies showed that Prime Minister Meles Zenawi's coalition may have garnered enough seats to form another government, albeit with a reduced majority.

The official electoral body, known as Nebe, said that final results would be delayed until June 8,

2005. due to reports of vote-rigging and irregularities. The election results did nothing to resolve the sense of dispute surrounding the political process. Indeed, more than 3,000 people were arrested in Ethiopia as violent protests broke out. In June, protests turned deadly when official security forces fired at the protestors, killing 40 people. While the European Union (EU) urged political leaders to put an end to unrest, the Ethiopian Human Rights Council (EHRCO) complained of suppression by the authorities. In a move oriented to resolving the matter, the two sides agreed to a joint inquiry on voting irregularities.

New elections in certain contested districts were scheduled for August 2005 even after results in several constituencies were finalized. Some groups decided to boycott these elections, while others wondered about launching further complaints about vote rigging.

Also in August 2005, the Ethiopian government accused election observers from the European Union (EU) of contributing to the post-election violence in that country. The Ethiopian government claimed that the EU mission "illegally and secretly leaked information" to the country's political opposition, effectively stoking the flames of discord and spurring the violent protests that followed. In its official statement, the Ethiopian government said, "The mission, against the regulations of its tasks as an observer, illegally and secretly leaked unfounded information to the opposition which gave them confidence wrongly so as to lead them to violence in the streets." The accusations by the Ethiopian government came on the heels of a report by the EU mission on the Ethiopian election. In its report, the EU mission stated that the May 2005 poll failed to meet international standards of free and fair elections. As well, officials from the EU have dismissed the claims of the government of Ethiopia.

In September 2005, the election results were finally made official by the NEBE. The EPRDF retained its control of the government with 327 seats, or 59 percent of the vote. Opposition parties won 174 seats, or 32 percent of the vote. The CUD alone won 20 percent of the vote.

In October 2005, the Ethiopian parliament was convened, the prime minister was re-elected and the cabinet was approved.

By November 2005, protests spread across the capital city and resulted in gunfire by police. Protests were ongoing since the outcome of the country's disputed parliamentary elections months earlier. Doctors and other medical personnel reported that between 20 and 30 people had been killed by police in violent clashes. Later reports increased the number of dead to between 45 and 50 people.

Ethiopian Prime Minister Meles Zenawi responded by saying that he regretted the deaths but also noted that the police had panicked after being faced with protesters with hand grenades and guns. Zenawi also accused the opposition of provoking the unrest. For its part, the opposition called for a strike throughout the second week of November 2005. The authorities said that further violence

was anticipated.

Meanwhile, in October 2005, the United Nations (U.N.) reported that Ethiopia and Eritrea both moved troops and tanks towards their shared border. The U.N. statement said that its peacekeepers on the ground had changed their assessment of the situation from "stable" to "tense." It was also reported that troops had entered the Temporary Security Zone (TSZ) that had functioned as a buffer zone between the two countries. Eritrea responded by dismissing the report. Nevertheless, tensions were on the rise as Eritrea became increasingly frustrated by the failure to implement the December 2000 peace agreement, which demarcated the border and attributed the contested town of Badme to that country despite rejection of the decision by Ethiopia.

To date, the Ethiopian presence in Badme has prevailed. A letter from Eritrean President Isaias Afewerki to the United Nations Security Council dated Oct. 28, 2005, drew attention to this matter and criticized the international body for failing to enforce the decision on territory.

A series of explosions in the Ethiopian capital city of Addis-Ababa resulted in approximately 50 casualties in May 2006. The first of the attacks took place just outside the office for Ethiopian Airlines. The second blast occurred hours later outside the headquarters for the national electricity company. Other targets included both a bus and a bus station, as well as a cafe in the capital city's largest market area.

These explosions were the latest in a spate of several such attacks in Abbis-Ababa since the disputed elections of 2005. In those polls (discussed above), which returned the ruling party to power, the opposition accused the government of vote-rigging. The police in Ethiopia found a cache of explosives, which were later linked to an opposition group, the Coalition for Unity and Democracy (CUD). However, police did not identify CUD or any other political enclave as being possible suspects responsible for the attacks.

In 2006, relations with Somalia took center stage. The first part of 2006 saw the increasing ascendancy of Islamist militias in Somalia, to the detriment of the transitional government in that country. By mid-2006, the Union of Islamic Courts had taken control of Somalia's capital city of Mogadishu. The city, which had once been in the hands of warlords, was never safe enough for the country's weak transitional government to be seated there. Instead, the government had been forced to operate from the city of Baidoa. The fact that control of Mogadishu had shifted hands from warlords to these Islamist militias was a source of consternation for the government. Moreover, the ascendancy of the Union of Islamic Courts was also becoming a matter of concern for the government of Ethiopia, which was opposed to the Islamist militias and allied with the interim government of Somalia. In fact, the governments of Ethiopia and Somalia shared strong ties dating back to the 1990s when Ethiopia aided Somalia in defeating an Islamist militia.

When the news emerged that the Islamists were making further progress past the capital city, there were warnings from Ethiopia that it would send its troops into Somalia to protect the interim government. Ethiopia's threat to intervene on behalf of the Somali government served to raise the ire of the Islamists. The situation was not helped by reports in August 2006 of sightings of Ethiopian troops on the ground in Somalia -- a scenario that spurred threats of a "holy war" by the Islamist leadership against the Ethiopians. But complaints about foreign intervention were also being levied by the Somali government. At the other end of the equation, there were increasing suggestions that arms were flowing to the Islamist militias via Eritrea. Although the Eritrean government denied the charges that it was supplying arms to Islamist militias, the transitional government of Somalia reacted by declaring its support for an Eritrean rebel group.

As the interest groups entrenched themselves into opposing enclaves, anxieties increased about regional conflict in the region. Notably, observers began to speculate that Ethiopia and Eritrea were resuming their hostilities and using Somali terrain as the proxy for a return to war. The presence of Ethiopian and Eritrean military interests in Somalia served only to magnify the depth of the problem. In fact, according to the United Nations, there were more than 8,000 Ethiopian troops operating in Somalia as allies of the weak transitional government. Meanwhile, approximately 2,000 Eritrean troops were said to have been earlier deployed to Somalia to assist the Islamic Courts.

By December 2006, the Union of Islamic Courts issued a seven-day deadline to Ethiopia, warning that if Ethiopian troops were not withdrawn from Somalia, they would face imminent attack. Ethiopia responded by denying that its soldiers were fighting in Somalia, saying instead that hundreds of its forces were simply assisting the transitional government. In fact, Islamists and government forces -- apparently aided by Ethiopian troops -- were ensconced in fierce clashes in mid-December 2006. Ethiopia's head of government, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi dismissed the deadline and the possibility of attack, noting that such threats were nothing new.

On December 24, 2006, Ethiopia openly admitted that it was carrying out an offensive in Somalia. The government of Ethiopia acknowledged that its troops were battling militias from the Islamic Courts. Berhan Hailu, Ethiopia's Information Minister, said in an official statement that his country's military had been deployed into Somali territory for the purpose of "self-defensive measures." To this end, Hailu noted, "The Ethiopian government has taken self-defensive measures and started counter-attacking the aggressive extremist forces of the Islamic Courts and foreign terrorist groups." His remarks were regarded as a significant break from previous statements by Ethiopia, which mostly consisted of a variety of denials about its activities in Somalia.

Now, the reality on the ground in the border areas between Somalia and Ethiopia was characterized by heavy fighting. In addition to the fierce battles apparently taking place between the Islamists and the government forces, there were also reports of massive air strikes and shelling by Ethiopian fighters upon Islamist-held towns. In an interview with Agence France Presse, Sheikh Hassan

Derrow of the Union of Islamic Courts reacted to these developments in saying, "The enemy of Allah has started bombing our civilians." He and his Islamist cohorts promised to push back the advancing Ethiopian troops.

Despite the Islamic Courts' calls to foreign fighters to join in the "holy war" in Somalia against Ethiopia, the situation on the ground was intensifying. Days later, the conflict was spreading past the border regions and deeper into Somali territory. There were conflicting reports about the number of people apparently killed in the fighting.

By December 28, 2006, Ethiopian forces had advanced deep into Somali territory and were now approaching the capital city of Mogadishu. With imminent attacks upon them, Islamist forces abandoned Mogadishu after holding control over the city for several months. Reports issued by the Associated Press indicated that some members of the Islamist militias were abandoning their duties and pledging their allegiance to elders in the city. There were also reports of gunfire throughout the city and looting of buildings that had been used by officials of the Union of Islamic Courts.

At the close of 2006, the transitional government of Somalia, aided by Ethiopian forces, had control of Mogadishu. Islamist militias had fled the city, with many of their ranks heading toward the southern city of Kismayo -- one of their few remaining strongholds. Ethiopian troops were following the Islamists and moving toward Kismayo as well. Islamists then quickly retreated from Kismayo, even as thousands of civilians fled the port city amidst fears of violence. Such anxieties had been heightened when news spread that there had been violent clashes between Ethiopian troops and Islamists in the area of Jilib, to the north of Kismayo.

In other developments at the close of 2006, Ethiopia's former ruler, Mengistu Haile Mariam, was found guilty in absentia of genocide. He and a number of other officials risked being sentenced to death. This worst case scenario was unlikely to befall Mengistu who had been living in Zimbabwe for several years in exile, and would not be extradicted to face justice at home. To this end, the Zimbabwean Information Minister Paul Mangwana said, "Mengistu applied for asylum and we granted him... the position remains the same." Mengistu gained notoriety for a campaign known as the "Red Terror," when thousands of suspected political opponents were detained, executed and their bodies were dumped unceremoniously into the streets.

Meanwhile, even with the Islamists on the run and with the transitional government now retrieving some of its power, thanks to Ethiopian military support, the situation in Somalia promised to be challenging. The government was still faced with the prospect of reaching some sort of agreement with the Islamists, or risk continued destabilization in a country that had not seen peace and security for years. While the transitional government called for talks with the Union of Islamic Courts, the Islamists said that no dialogue was possible until Ethiopian forces exited Somalia.

Indeed, in 2007, the presence of Ethiopian troops in Somalia was a matter of controversy among Somali locals with divided loyalties. As a result, Ethiopia promised to depart quickly from Somalia. In an interview with the British media in mid-January 2007, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi of Ethiopia said that his country's forces were set to begin its withdrawal from Somalia. The Ethiopian leader said, "We want to withdraw at the earliest possible opportunity but we want to do it in a responsible manner."

In May 2008, Ethiopia's former ruler, Mengistu Haile Mariam, was sentenced in absentia to death by the country's Supreme Court. At issue was the period of Mengistu's 17-year rule in Ethiopia, which came to be known as the Red Terror. The Red Terror was marked by the brutal deaths of thousands of political opponents and the country's intelligentsia during the 1970s. Mengistu's rule finally came to an end in 1991 when he was ousted from power and went to live in exile in Zimbabwe. The genocide trial began in the mid-1990s but a guilty verdict was not found until 2006. In 2007, the court overturned on appeal the ruling that sentenced Mengistu and his senior aides to life in prison.

In making the new 2008 death sentence ruling, the Supreme Court said that it was instituting the death penalty because thousands of innocent victims had been tortured and executed at the hands of the defendants, in what could be classified as genocide. Judge Desta Gebru said, "The court has decided to revoke the leniency appeal from the defendants." It was unlikely that Mengistu's sentence would actually be carried out since the Mugabe regime in Zimbabwe said it would not extradite the former Ethiopian leader. However, a change of government in Zimbabwe, pending the run-off election in that country scheduled for June 2008, could herald a policy shift.

In mid-2009, Ethiopian Prime Minister Meles Zenawi said that he was preparing to step down from office. Prime Minister Meles Zenawi said that he had already commenced discussions on the matter with his colleagues in the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front -- the ruling party in Ethiopia. In an interview with the Financial Times, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi said, "My personal position is that I have had enough." Meles came to power in 1991 when his guerrilla group ousted former Marxist ruler, Mengistu Haile Mariam, from office. Ethiopia was set to hold parliamentary elections in June 2010, and the move could be a way for the Ethiopian head of government to manage his exit from the political scene without hurting the electoral chances of his party, Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front, at the polls.

The United Nations in late 2009 levied sanctions against Eritrea in response to allegations by neighboring countries and regional blocs that the east African country has been providing arms to Islamist militants in Somalia. For some time, there have been suspicions that the ongoing hostility between Eritrea and Ethiopia has resulted in Somalia being the venue of a proxy war between the two countries. Ethiopia has backed the weak transitional government of Somalia, and there have been suggestions that, in response, Eritrea has been supporting the militant Islamists hoping to bring down Somalia's regime. The United Nation's move effectively formalized these concerns of the

international community over Eritrea's actions, with the Security Council's decision to impose an arms embargo and a travel ban, as well as the freezing of assets of Eritrean officials. In response, Eritrea railed against the moves, denying the allegations that it has been arming Islamist militants in Somalia, calling the sanctions illegal, and warning that it would only exacerbate the geopolitical crisis in the Horn of Africa.

On March 3, 2010, it was revealed that millions in Western aid, which was earmarked for the victims of the famine plaguing Ethiopia in the mid-1980s, instead went towards the purchase of weapons. The report by the BBC drew upon both interviews with former rebels as well as documents by the Central Intelligence Agency. It noted that militant leaders presented themselves as merchants in order to divert aid money towards the purchase of arms. This occurred at a time when the government of Ethiopia was fighting rebels in the northern provinces of Eritrea and Tigray. In one case, Gebremedhin Araya, a senior member of the Tigray People's Liberation Front, posed as a merchant to procure funds for his group. Among the leadership of the Tigray People's Liberation Front was Meles Zenawi who became Ethiopia's prime minister in 1991. For his part, Prime Minister Zenawi issued no response to the allegations ensconced within the BBC report.

Parliamentary election were scheduled to take place in Ethiopia on May 23, 2010. At stake were the 547 seats in the Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives), to be directly elected by popular vote from single-member districts to serve five-year terms. The ruling Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) has strong control over that lower body in parliament.

The opposition has argued that the election could well become a struggle to prevent one-party rule in Ethiopia, and as such, it has warned of potential violence. Its warning was not so much a threat from its ranks but an utterance of fear that its supporters could be arrested and imprisoned if they took to the streets to demonstrate their frustration with the political system. Such fears held validity since the previous general election of April 2005 was marred by violence. In order to preclude such an unfortunate development, the incumbent EPRDF has signed an Election Code of Conduct along with the opposition parties. In the agreement, there have been provisions for specified media time, although the opposition has complained that excessive time was allocated to the ruling party.

Provisional results gave the ruling EPRDF an overwhelming 499 of the 536 declared seats, and left 11 seats undeclared. This result marked a significant increase in parliament for a party that was already the dominant political force there. The eight-party Medrek bloc, which presented the primary challenge to the EPRDF, won only one seat in the capital of Addis Ababa.

While the election in Ethiopia went off peacefully, it was certainly not free of irregularities and voter intimidation, according to international election observers. Election monitors from the

European Union criticized Ethiopia's election, with chief observer Thijs Berman describing it as "an uneven playing field." Berman continued, "This electoral process falls short of certain international commitments." Berman also drew attention to the improper and undemocratic use of national resources to fund the ruling party's election campaign. Still, Berman acknowledged that these concerns might not have materially affected the election's actual outcome.

The official results were as follows -- Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front or EPRDF 499, Somali People's Democratic Party or SPDP 24, Benishangul Gumuz People's Democratic Party or BGPDP 9, Afar National Democratic Party or ANDP 8, Gambella Peoples Unity Democratic Movement or GPUDM 3, Harari National League or HNL 1, Ethiopian Federal Democratic Forum or FORUM 1, Argoba People's Democratic Organization or APDO 1, independent 1. By October 2010, Prime Minister Zenawi formed a new government.

In mid-2011, a food and drought crisis was affecting the countries of the Horn of Africa including Somalia, Kenya, Ethiopia, Djibouti and Uganda.

On Nov. 19, 2011, reports emerged about convoys of vehicles carrying Ethiopians troops across the border into Somalia. Eyewitness accounts confirmed the presence of Ethiopian soldiers in various Somali towns. It should be noted that Ethiopian soldiers had operated in Somalia, with the purpose of backing the fragile government of Somalia against the militant Islamist group, al-Shabab, for about three years, before finally withdrawing in 2009.

For their part, Ethiopian authorities denied that their forces were involved in any incursion into Somalia in November 2011, maintaining that their soldiers have not been in Somalia in significant numbers since 2009. Of course, the characterization "in significant numbers" lent some confusion to the situation. That confusion was not helped by the statement made by a Somali member of parliament that the the presence of Ethiopian troops was necessary in the fight against al-Shabab.

In the background of the news that Ethiopian troops might be in Somalia was the fact that Kenyan troops were now in Somalia to fight against the threat posed by al-Shabab. Indeed, since October 2011, Kenyan military forces along with allied Somali troops have been carrying out an offensive against al-Shabab, the Islamist extremist enclave based in Somalia, which has increasingly operated as a proxy terror group for al-Qaida. The action was in reaction to the violence and terrorism carried out by militant terror group not only in Somalia but in other countries. Indeed, al-Shabab was suspected of being behind a number of violent attacks, killings, and kidnappings in Kenya in recent times, seemingly in retaliation for Kenya's involvement in the African Union mission in Somalia aimed at stabilizing the failed state. Now though, Kenya had joined forces with Somalia to go after al-Shabab.

Should the claims prove to be true about Ethiopian troops in Somalia, and given the presence of Kenyan troops along the border zone, al-Shabab would certainly be under pressure. That being said, the presence of foreign troops in Somalia could prove to be a controversial matter, even

contributing to further instability in a country that can only be classified as a failed state.

At the close of 2011, it was reported that Ethiopian forces had captured the central Somali town of Beledweyne from al-Shabab Islamist militants. Eyewitnesses on the ground observed that both armored vehicles and heavy artillery were used in the assault on al-Shabab militants in Beledweyne. A lengthy battle between about 3,000 Ethiopian troops and al-Shabab fighters followed, ultimately ending in the withdrawal of the Islamic militants from the strategically-located town along the road to Somalia's capital of Mogadishu.

Somali Prime Minister Abdiweli Mohamed Ali confirmed the news of Beledweyne's capture, saying, "Early this morning, the Somali National Army recaptured some al-Shabab-occupied territories engaging the enemies in Hiiraan and other regions of the country." He said that the operation was aimed at liberating the country from "the tyranny of al-Shabab." Meanwhile, Ethiopian authorities confirmed the involvement of its country's troops, saying that the assault was carried out at the behest of the Somali government. This confirmation reinforced reports a month earlier that convoys of vehicles carrying Ethiopian troops had moved across the border into Somalia.

It should be noted that Ethiopian soldiers had operated in Somalia, with the purpose of backing the fragile government of Somalia against the militant Islamist group, al-Shabab, for about three years, before finally withdrawing in 2009. Now, in late 2011, it was apparent that there was the resumption of some military engagement by Ethiopian troops in Somalia once again, with an eye on repelling al-Shabab.

On March 15, 2012, Ethiopian National Defense Forces attacked military posts used by anti-Ethiopia groups. These military posts were located about 16 kilometers from the Ethiopian border and were actually across the border into Eritrean territory. The government of Ethiopia quickly dispatched a statement confirming the operation in the interests of national security and announcing its success. Ethiopia has accused neighboring Eritrea of supporting, financing, and training these subversive anti-Ethiopian groups, which Ethiopia claims carry out terrorist actions against the state. Indeed, the area of Afar in the northern part of Ethiopia was recently subject to attacks when subversive armed groups killed five European tourists and abducted two others along with two Ethiopians. Ethiopia has placed the blame for these attacks on Eritrea. For its part, the government of Eritrea said on March 16, 2012, that it would not be dragged into another war with Ethiopia. Instead, Eritrea said that it would call on the United Nations Security Council to take punitive measures against Ethiopia.

It was reported on Aug. 21, 2012 that Ethiopian Prime Minister Meles Zenawi died while seeking medical treatment out of the country. The Ethiopian Council of Ministers, which announced the death of Meles Zenawi in Belgium, designated Deputy Prime Minister Haile Mariam Desalegn to be the acting head of government, in keeping with constitutional provisions.

After the death of Ethiopia's prime minister, the parliament's failure to inaugurate a successor left the country in some degree of political limbo. At issue was the fact that the appointment of Desalegn as prime minister was to be ratified by parliament. However, there was a brewing debate over whether Desalegn's post as deputy prime minister was a delegation of responsibility that did not facilitate automatic succession. It should be noted that despite the claim by the Ethiopian Council of Ministers that the deputy would succeed the prime minister in keeping with constitutional provisions, the Ethiopia's constitution does not actually specify succession details in case of incapacitation or death of a sitting head of government.

In late August 2012, Ethiopian authorities made clear that despite the fracas over succession, the country was stable. That claim was put to the test in the first week of September 2012 when the ruling Ethiopian People's Democratic Front in parliament chose to delay the appointment, effectively plunging the country into a state of political uncertainty. Nevertheless, later in September 2012, Hailemariam Desalegn officially became the country's new prime minister succeeding the late long-time ruler, Meles Zenawi.

A presidential election was set to be held in Ethiopia in October 2013. In Ethiopia, the president is elected in an internal vote by the bicameral parliament to a six-year term. Incumbent President Girma Wolde-Giorgis could not contest this election due to term limits.

Several individuals have been discussed as possible contenders for the presidency. These possible candidates include: Abadula Gemedo, the speaker of the House of People's Representatives and a former cabinet minister; Ashebir Woldegiorgis, an independent member of parliament and former president of the Ethiopian Football Federation; Eleni Gabre-Madhin, the founder of the Ethiopia Commodity Exchange and a businessman; Hailu Shawul, the former chairman of the Coalition for Unity and Democracy; and Haile Gebreselassie, a well-known Olympic long-distance runner and a businessman.

Because the ruling Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) has overwhelming control over the parliament, its membership would be the major decision maker in determining who would become the next president.

Ultimately, the internal election in Ethiopia's parliament went forward on Oct. 7, 2013, and it was Mulatu Teshome who was elected as president to a six-year term. Clearly, the election of Mulatu Teshome was something of a surprise since his name was not among the likely successors being discussed in the public purview as the next head of state. Mulatu Teshome -- often referred to as simply "Mulatu" in Ethiopia -- was an Oromo people, the country's largest ethnic group. He had a record in public service as Ethiopia's ambassador to Turkey, and having served as Ethiopia's ambassador to China and Japan, as well as Ethiopia's Minister of Agriculture.

Parliamentary elections were expected to be held in Ethiopia on May 24, 2015.

In Ethiopia, the legislative branch of government is a bicameral Federal Parliamentary Assembly, consisting of an upper chamber, the Yefedereshn Mekir Bet (Council of the Federation), and a lower chamber, the Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives). In the Yefedereshn Mekir Bet (Council of the Federation), there are 108 seats and members are chosen by regional assemblies to serve five-year terms. The intent of the upper chamber is to represent the ethnic interests of the regional governments. The action, therefore, at the polls would be in the Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives), which has 547 seats and where members are directly elected by popular vote from single-member districts to serve five-year terms.

In the last elections of 2010, the ruling Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) retained its strong control over that lower body in parliament and held onto power.

In 2015, there was little reason to expect a significantly different outcome. Of note was the fact that several opposition parties complained that the National Election Board was implementing complicated procedures for registration, seemingly intended to create roadblocks for them. They have charged that the National Election Board appeared interested in preventing the elections from being a fully participatory process.

As expected, after the votes were counted in May 2015, Ethiopia's ruling party and its allies secured a solid majority in parliament. Preliminary results showed that the (EPRDF) -- in power for 25 years -- and its allied parties won 442 seats out of the 547 at stake. Official results were yet to be announced; however, there was little doubt that the ruling party had secured a landslide victory.

The opposition decried the result, alleging ballot theft and other forms of fraud, and saying that the government has carried out a concerted effort to suppress dissent. Its complaint resonated with the United States Department of State, which in a statement expressed concerns over the Ethiopian government repressive and uncompetitive political landscape. The statement read as follows: "The United States remains deeply concerned by continued restrictions on civil society, media, opposition parties, and independent voices and views." However, the African Union issued a different view, with its observer mission asserting that the Ethiopian election went off in a credible manner. Its statement read as follows: "The African Union Election Observation Mission (AUEOM) concludes that the parliamentary elections were calm, peaceful, and credible as it provided an opportunity for the Ethiopian people to express their choices at the polls." Of note was the fact that Ethiopia did not permit any Western monitors to observe the election.

Editor's Note:

A long-running war between Ethiopia and Eritrea, located in the region of the Horn of Africa, left an estimated 70,000 people dead due to trench warfare, very much akin to battles that took place during World War I in Europe. On Dec. 12, 2000, a peace treaty was signed between both sides but border demarcation issues have contributed to ongoing tensions, clashes, and even the build up of tanks and troops to the border region in 2005. Since 2006, tensions between Ethiopia and Eritrea have focused on Ethiopia's alliance with the fragile Somali government in Mogadishu to fight extremist Islamists in Somalia.

The United Nations in late 2009 levied sanctions against Eritrea in response to allegations by neighboring countries and regional blocs that the east African country has been providing arms to Islamist militants in Somalia. For some time, there have been suspicions that the ongoing hostility between Eritrea and Ethiopia has resulted in Somalia being the venue of a proxy war between the two countries. Ethiopia has backed the weak transitional government of Somalia, and there have been suggestions that, in response, Eritrea has been supporting the militant Islamists hoping to bring down Somalia's regime. The United Nations' move effectively formalized these concerns of the international community over Eritrea's actions, with the Security Council's decision to impose an arms embargo and a travel ban, as well as the freezing of assets of Eritrean officials. In response, Eritrea railed against the moves, denying the allegations that it has been arming Islamist militants in Somalia, calling the sanctions illegal, and warning that it would only exacerbate the geopolitical crisis in the Horn of Africa.

-- June 2015

Written by Dr. Denise Youngblood Coleman, Editor in Chief and Executive Vice President, www.countrywatch.com; see Bibliography for reference sources.

Political Risk Index

Political Risk Index

The **Political Risk Index** is a proprietary index measuring the level of risk posed to governments, corporations, and investors, based on a myriad of political and economic factors. The [Political Risk Index](#) is calculated using an established methodology by CountryWatch's Editor-in-Chief and is

based on varied criteria* including the following consideration: political stability, political representation, democratic accountability, freedom of expression, security and crime, risk of conflict, human development, jurisprudence and regulatory transparency, economic risk, foreign investment considerations, possibility of sovereign default, and corruption. Scores are assigned from 0-10 using the aforementioned criteria. A score of 0 marks the highest political risk, while a score of 10 marks the lowest political risk. Stated differently, countries with the lowest scores pose the greatest political risk. A score of 0 marks the most dire level of political risk and an ultimate nadir, while a score of 10 marks the lowest possible level of political risk, according to this proprietary index. Rarely will there be scores of 0 or 10 due to the reality that countries contain complex landscapes; as such, the index offers a range of possibilities ranging from lesser to greater risk.

Country	Assessment
Afghanistan	2
Albania	4
Algeria	6
Andorra	9
Angola	4
Antigua	8
Argentina	4
Armenia	4-5
Australia	9.5

Austria	9.5
Azerbaijan	4
Bahamas	8.5
Bahrain	6
Bangladesh	3.5
Barbados	8.5-9
Belarus	3
Belgium	9
Belize	8
Benin	5
Bhutan	5
Bolivia	5
Bosnia-Herzegovina	4
Botswana	7
Brazil	7
Brunei	7
Bulgaria	6
Burkina Faso	4

Burma (Myanmar)	4.5
Burundi	3
Cambodia	4
Cameroon	5
Canada	9.5
Cape Verde	6
Central African Republic	3
Chad	4
Chile	9
China	7
China: Hong Kong	8
China: Taiwan	8
Colombia	7
Comoros	5
Congo DRC	3
Congo RC	4
Costa Rica	8
Cote d'Ivoire	4.5

Croatia	7
Cuba	4-4.5
Cyprus	5
Czech Republic	8
Denmark	9.5
Djibouti	4.5
Dominica	7
Dominican Republic	6
East Timor	5
Ecuador	6
Egypt	5
El Salvador	7
Equatorial Guinea	4
Eritrea	3
Estonia	8
Ethiopia	4
Fiji	5
Finland	9

Fr. Yugoslav Rep. Macedonia	5
France	9
Gabon	5
Gambia	4
Georgia	5
Germany	9.5
Ghana	6
Greece	4.5-5
Grenada	8
Guatemala	6
Guinea	3.5
Guinea-Bissau	3.5
Guyana	4.5
Haiti	3.5
Holy See (Vatican)	9
Honduras	4.5-5
Hungary	7
Iceland	8.5-9

India	7.5-8
Indonesia	6
Iran	3.5-4
Iraq	2.5-3
Ireland	8-8.5
Israel	8
Italy	7.5
Jamaica	6.5-7
Japan	9
Jordan	6.5
Kazakhstan	6
Kenya	5
Kiribati	7
Korea, North	1
Korea, South	8
Kosovo	4
Kuwait	7
Kyrgyzstan	4.5

Laos	4.5
Latvia	7
Lebanon	5.5
Lesotho	6
Liberia	3.5
Libya	2
Liechtenstein	9
Lithuania	7.5
Luxembourg	9
Madagascar	4
Malawi	4
Malaysia	8
Maldives	4.5
Mali	4
Malta	8
Marshall Islands	6
Mauritania	4.5-5
Mauritius	7

Mexico	6.5
Micronesia	7
Moldova	5
Monaco	9
Mongolia	5
Montenegro	6
Morocco	6.5
Mozambique	4.5-5
Namibia	6.5-7
Nauru	6
Nepal	4
Netherlands	9.5
New Zealand	9.5
Nicaragua	5
Niger	4
Nigeria	4.5
Norway	9.5
Oman	7

Pakistan	3.5
Palau	7
Panama	7.5
Papua New Guinea	5
Paraguay	6.5-7
Peru	7
Philippines	6
Poland	8
Portugal	7.5
Qatar	7.5
Romania	5.5
Russia	5.5
Rwanda	5
Saint Kitts and Nevis	8
Saint Lucia	8
Saint Vincent and Grenadines	8
Samoa	7
San Marino	9

Sao Tome and Principe	5.5
Saudi Arabia	6
Senegal	6
Serbia	5
Seychelles	7
Sierra Leone	4.5
Singapore	9
Slovak Republic (Slovakia)	8
Slovenia	8
Solomon Islands	6
Somalia	2
South Africa	7
Spain	7.5
Sri Lanka	5
Sudan	3.5
Suriname	5
Swaziland	5
Sweden	9.5

Switzerland	9.5
Syria	2
Tajikistan	4.5
Tanzania	6
Thailand	6.5
Togo	4.5
Tonga	7
Trinidad and Tobago	8
Tunisia	6
Turkey	7
Turkmenistan	4.5
Tuvalu	7
Uganda	6
Ukraine	3.5-4
United Arab Emirates	7
United Kingdom	9
United States	9.5
Uruguay	8

Uzbekistan	4
Vanuatu	7
Venezuela	4
Vietnam	5
Yemen	3
Zambia	4.5
Zimbabwe	3

*Methodology

The [Political Risk Index](#) is calculated by CountryWatch's Editor-in-Chief and is based on the combined scoring of varied criteria as follows --

1. political stability (record of peaceful transitions of power, ability of government to stay in office and carry out policies as a result of productive executive-legislative relationship, perhaps with popular support vis a vis risk of government collapse)
2. political representation (right of suffrage, free and fair elections, multi-party participation, and influence of foreign powers)
3. democratic accountability (record of respect for political rights, human rights, and civil liberties, backed by constitutional protections)
4. freedom of expression (media freedom and freedom of expression, right to dissent or express political opposition, backed by constitutional protections)
5. security and crime (the degree to which a country has security mechanisms that ensures safety of citizens and ensures law and order, without resorting to extra-judicial measures)
6. risk of conflict (the presence of conflict; record of coups or civil disturbances; threat of war; threats posed by internal or external tensions; threat or record of terrorism or insurgencies)

7. human development (quality of life; access to education; socio-economic conditions; systemic concern for the status of women and children)
8. jurisprudence and regulatory transparency (the impartiality of the legal system, the degree of transparency within the regulatory system of a country and the durability of that structure)
9. economic conditions (economic stability, investment climate, degree of nationalization of industries, property rights, labor force development)
10. corruption (the degree of corruption in a country and/or efforts by the government to address graft and other irregularities)

Editor's Note:

As of 2015, the current climate of upheaval internationally -- both politically and economically -- has affected the ratings for several countries across the world.

North Korea, [Afghanistan](#), [Somalia](#), and [Zimbabwe](#) -- retain their low rankings.

Several Middle Eastern and North African countries, such as [Tunisia](#), [Egypt](#), [Libya](#), [Syria](#), [Iraq](#) and [Yemen](#) were downgraded in recent years due to political instability occurring in the "season of unrest" sweeping the region since 2011 and continuing today. The worst downgrades affected [Syria](#) where civil war is at play, along with the rampage of terror being carried out by Islamist terrorists who have also seized control over part of Syrian territory. [Iraq](#) has been further downgraded due to the rampage of Islamist terrorists and their takeover of wide swaths of Iraqi territory. [Libya](#) has also been downgraded further due to its slippage into failed state status; at issue in [Libya](#) have been an ongoing power struggle between rival militias. [Yemen](#) continues to hold steady with a poor ranking due to continued unrest at the hands of Houthi rebels, secessionists, al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula, and Islamic State. Its landscape has been further complicated by the fact that it is now the site of a proxy war between [Iran](#) and [Saudi Arabia](#). Conversely, [Tunisia](#) and [Egypt](#) have seen slight upgrades as these countries stabilize.

In Africa, [Zimbabwe](#) continues to be one of the bleak spots of the world with the Mugabe regime effectively destroying the country's once vibrant economy, and miring [Zimbabwe](#) with an exceedingly high rate of inflation, debilitating unemployment, devolving public services, and critical food shortages; rampant crime and political oppression round out the landscape. [Somalia](#) also sports a poor ranking due to the continuing influence of the terror group, al-Shabab, which was not operating across the border in [Kenya](#). On the upside, [Nigeria](#), which was ineffectively dealing with the threat posed by the terror group, Boko Haram, was making some strides on the national

security front with its new president at the helm. [Mali](#) was slightly upgraded due to its efforts to return to constitutional order following the 2012 coup and to neutralize the threat of separatists and Islamists. But the [Central African Republic](#) was downgraded due to the takeover of the government by Muslim Seleka rebels and a continued state of lawlessness in that country. South [Sudan](#) -- the world's newest nation state -- has not been officially included in this assessment; however, it can be unofficially assessed to be in the vicinity of "3" due to its manifold political and economic challenges. [Burkina Faso](#), [Burundi](#) and [Guinea](#) have been downgraded due to political unrest, with [Guinea](#) also having to deal with the burgeoning Ebola crisis.

In Europe, [Ukraine](#) was downgraded due to the unrest facing that country following its Maidan revolution that triggered a pro-Russian uprising in the eastern part of the country. [Russia](#) was also implicated in the Ukrainian crisis due to its intervention on behalf of pro-Russian separatists, as well as its annexation of the Ukrainian territory of Crimea. Strains on the infrastructure of southern and eastern European countries, such as [Serbia](#), [Croatia](#), and [Hungary](#), due to an influx of refugees was expected to pose social and economic challenges, and slight downgrades were made accordingly. So too, a corruption crisis for the Romanian prime minister has affected the ranking of that country. Meanwhile, the rankings for [Spain](#), [Portugal](#), [Ireland](#), and [Italy](#) were maintained due to debt woes and the concomitant effect on the euro zone. [Greece](#), another euro zone nation, was earlier downgraded due to its sovereign debt crisis; however, no further downgrade was added since the country was able to successfully forge a bailout rescue deal with creditor institutions. Cyprus' exposure to Greek banks yielded a downgrade in its case.

In Asia, [Nepal](#) was downgraded in response to continuous political instability and a constitutional crisis that prevails well after landmark elections were held. Both [India](#) and China retain their rankings; [India](#) holds a slightly higher ranking than [China](#) due to its record of democratic representation and accountability. Increasing violence and political instability in [Pakistan](#) resulted in a downgrade for this country's already low rating. Meanwhile, [Singapore](#) retained its strong rankings due to its continued effective stewardship of the economy and political stability.

In the Americas, ongoing political and economic woes, as well as crime and corruption have affected the rankings for [Mexico](#), [Guatemala](#), and [Brazil](#). [Argentina](#) was downgraded due to its default on debt following the failure of talks with bond holders. [Venezuela](#) was downgraded due to its mix of market unfriendly policies and political oppression. For the moment, the [United States](#) maintains a strong ranking along with [Canada](#), and most of the English-speaking countries of the Caribbean; however, a renewed debt ceiling crisis could cause the [United States](#) to be downgraded in a future edition. Finally, a small but significant upgrade was attributed to [Cuba](#) due to its recent pro-business reforms and its normalization of ties with the United States.

Source:

Dr. Denise Youngblood Coleman, Editor in Chief, CountryWatch Inc. www.countrywatch.com

Updated:

2015

Political Stability

Political Stability

The **Political Stability Index** is a proprietary index measuring a country's level of stability, standard of good governance, record of constitutional order, respect for human rights, and overall strength of democracy. The [Political Stability Index](#) is calculated using an established methodology* by CountryWatch's Editor-in-Chief and is based on a given country's record of peaceful transitions of power, ability of a government to stay in office and carry out its policies vis a vis risk credible risks of government collapse. Threats include coups, domestic violence and instability, terrorism, etc. This index measures the dynamic between the quality of a country's government and the threats that can compromise and undermine stability. Scores are assigned from 0-10 using the aforementioned criteria. A score of 0 marks the lowest level of political stability and an ultimate nadir, while a score of 10 marks the highest level of political stability possible, according to this proprietary index. Rarely will there be scores of 0 or 10 due to the reality that countries contain complex landscapes; as such, the index offers a range of possibilities ranging from lesser to greater stability.

Country	Assessment
Afghanistan	2
Albania	4.5-5
Algeria	5

Andorra	9.5
Angola	4.5-5
Antigua	8.5-9
Argentina	7
Armenia	5.5
Australia	9.5
Austria	9.5
Azerbaijan	5
Bahamas	9
Bahrain	6
Bangladesh	4.5
Barbados	9
Belarus	4
Belgium	9
Belize	8
Benin	5
Bhutan	5
Bolivia	6

Bosnia-Herzegovina	5
Botswana	8.5
Brazil	7
Brunei	8
Bulgaria	7.5
Burkina Faso	4
Burma (Myanmar)	4.5
Burundi	4
Cambodia	4.5-5
Cameroon	6
Canada	9.5
Cape Verde	6
Central African Republic	3
Chad	4.5
Chile	9
China	7
China: Hong Kong	8
China: Taiwan	8

Colombia	7.5
Comoros	5
Congo DRC	3
Congo RC	5
Costa Rica	9.5
Cote d'Ivoire	3.5
Croatia	7.5
Cuba	4.5
Cyprus	8
Czech Republic	8.5
Denmark	9.5
Djibouti	5
Dominica	8.5
Dominican Republic	7
East Timor	5
Ecuador	7
Egypt	4.5-5
El Salvador	7.5-8

Equatorial Guinea	4.5
Eritrea	4
Estonia	9
Ethiopia	4.5
Fiji	5
Finland	9
Fr. Yugoslav Rep. Macedonia	6.5
France	9
Gabon	5
Gambia	4.5
Georgia	5
Germany	9.5
Ghana	7
Greece	6
Grenada	8.5
Guatemala	7
Guinea	3.5-4
Guinea-Bissau	4

Guyana	6
Haiti	3.5-4
Holy See (Vatican)	9.5
Honduras	6
Hungary	7.5
Iceland	9
India	8
Indonesia	7
Iran	3.5
Iraq	2.5
Ireland	9.5
Israel	8
Italy	8.5-9
Jamaica	8
Japan	9
Jordan	6
Kazakhstan	6
Kenya	5

Kiribati	8
Korea, North	2
Korea, South	8.5
Kosovo	5.5
Kuwait	7
Kyrgyzstan	5
Laos	5
Latvia	8.5
Lebanon	5.5
Lesotho	5
Liberia	3.5-4
Libya	2
Liechtenstein	9
Lithuania	9
Luxembourg	9.5
Madagascar	4
Malawi	5
Malaysia	8

Maldives	4.5-5
Mali	4.5-5
Malta	9
Marshall Islands	8
Mauritania	6
Mauritius	8
Mexico	6.5-7
Micronesia	8
Moldova	5.5
Monaco	9.5
Mongolia	6.5-7
Montenegro	8
Morocco	7
Mozambique	5
Namibia	8.5
Nauru	8
Nepal	4.5
Netherlands	9.5

New Zealand	9.5
Nicaragua	6
Niger	4.5
Nigeria	4.5
Norway	9.5
Oman	7
Pakistan	3
Palau	8
Panama	8.5
Papua New Guinea	6
Paraguay	8
Peru	7.5
Philippines	6
Poland	9
Portugal	9
Qatar	7
Romania	7
Russia	6

Rwanda	5
Saint Kitts and Nevis	9
Saint Lucia	9
Saint Vincent and Grenadines	9
Samoa	8
San Marino	9.5
Sao Tome and Principe	7
Saudi Arabia	6
Senegal	7.5
Serbia	6.5
Seychelles	8
Sierra Leone	4.5
Singapore	9.5
Slovak Republic (Slovakia)	8.5
Slovenia	9
Solomon Islands	6.5-7
Somalia	2
South Africa	7.5

Spain	9
Sri Lanka	5
Sudan	3
Suriname	5
Swaziland	5
Sweden	9.5
Switzerland	9.5
Syria	2
Tajikistan	4.5
Tanzania	6
Thailand	6
Togo	5
Tonga	7
Trinidad and Tobago	8
Tunisia	5
Turkey	7.5
Turkmenistan	5
Tuvalu	8.5

Uganda	6
Ukraine	3.5-4
United Arab Emirates	7
United Kingdom	9
United States	9
Uruguay	8.5
Uzbekistan	4
Vanuatu	8.5
Venezuela	4.5-5
Vietnam	4.5
Yemen	2.5
Zambia	5
Zimbabwe	3

*Methodology

The Political Stability Index is calculated by CountryWatch's Editor-in-Chief and is based on the combined scoring of varied criteria as follows --

1. record of peaceful transitions of power (free and fair elections; adherence to political accords)
2. record of democratic representation, presence of instruments of democracy; systemic accountability

3. respect for human rights; respect for civil rights
4. strength of the system of jurisprudence, adherence to constitutional order, and good governance
5. ability of a government to stay in office and carry out its policies vis a vis risk credible risks of government collapse (i.e. government stability versus a country being deemed "ungovernable")
6. threat of coups, insurgencies, and insurrection
7. level of unchecked crime and corruption
8. risk of terrorism and other threats to national security
9. relationship with regional powers and international community; record of bilateral or multilateral cooperation
10. degree of economic strife (i.e. economic and financial challenges)

Editor's Note:

As of 2015, the current climate of upheaval internationally -- both politically and economically -- has affected the ratings for several countries across the world. The usual suspects -- North Korea, [Afghanistan](#), and [Somalia](#) -- retain their low rankings. The reclusive and ultra-dictatorial North Korean regime, which has terrified the world with its nuclear threats, has exhibited internal instability. Of note was a cut-throat purge of hundreds of high ranking officials deemed to be a threat to Kim Jung-un. Despite their attempts to recover from years of lawlessness, war, and warlordism, both [Afghanistan](#) and [Somalia](#) continue to be beset by terrorism and turmoil. In [Afghanistan](#), while international forces have seen success in the effort against the terror group, al-Qaida, the other Islamist extremist group, the Taliban, continues to carry out a vicious insurgency using terrorism. In [Somalia](#), while the government attempts to do the nation's business, the terror group, al-Shabab continues to make its presence known not only in [Somalia](#), but across the border into [Kenya](#) with devastating results/ Also in this category is [Iraq](#), which continues to be rocked by horrific violence and terrorism at the hands of Islamic State, which has taken over wide swaths of Iraqi territory.

Syria, [Libya](#), and [Yemen](#) have been added to this unfortunate echelon of the world's most politically unstable countries. [Syria](#) has been mired by the twin hazards of 1. a civil war as rebels oppose the Assad regime; and 2. the rampage of terror being carried out by Islamic State, which also seized control over vast portions of Syrian territory. Meanwhile, the post-Qaddhafi landscape of [Libya](#) has devolved into chaos as rival militias battle for control -- the elected government of the

country notwithstanding. Rounding out this grim triad is [Yemen](#), which was dealing with a Houthi rebellion, secessionists in the south, as well as the threat of terrorism from al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula as well as Islamic State, while also being the site of a proxy war between Shi'a [Iran](#) and Sunni [Saudi Arabia](#).

Meanwhile, several Middle Eastern and North African countries, such as [Tunisia](#), [Egypt](#), and [Bahrain](#) were downgraded in recent years due to political instability occurring in the "season of unrest" sweeping the region since 2011 and continuing today. All three of these countries have stabilized in recent years and have been upgraded accordingly. In [Bahrain](#), the landscape had calmed. In [Egypt](#), the secular military-backed government has generated criticism for its crackdown on the Muslim Brotherhood; however, the country had ratified the presidency via democratic elections and were on track to hold parliamentary elections as the country moved along the path of democratization. Perhaps the most impressive story was coming out of [Tunisia](#) -- the country whose Jasmine Revolution sparked the entire Arab Spring -- and where after a few years of strife, a new progressive constitution was passed into law and a secular government had been elected to power. [Tunisia](#), [Egypt](#), and [Bahrain](#) have seen slight upgrades as these countries stabilize.

In Africa, the [Central African Republic](#) was downgraded the previous year due to the takeover of the government by Muslim Seleka rebels. Although the country has been trying to emerge from this crisis, the fact of the matter was that it was difficult to halt the precipitous decline into lawlessness in that country. [Zimbabwe](#) has maintained its consistently poor ranking due to the dictatorial regime of Mugabe, who continues to hold a tight grip on power, intimidates the opposition, squashes dissent, and oppresses the white farmer population of the country. Moving in a slightly improved direction is [Nigeria](#), which has sported abysmal ratings due to the government's fecklessness in dealing with the threat posed by the Islamist terror group, Boko Haram. Under its newly-elected government, there appears to be more of a concerted effort to make national security a priority action item. [Mali](#) was also slightly upgraded due to its efforts to return to constitutional order following the 2012 coup and to neutralize the threat of separatists and Islamists. Political instability has visited [Burkina Faso](#) and [Burundi](#) as the leaders of those countries attempted to side-step constitutional limits to hold onto power. In [Burundi](#), an attempted coup ensued but quelled, and the president won a (questionable) new term in office; unrest has since punctuated the landscape. In [Burkina Faso](#), the political climate has turned stormy as a result of a successful coup that ended the rule of the president, and then a putsch against the transitional government. These two African countries have been downgraded as a result.

It should be noted that the African country of South [Sudan](#) -- the world's newest nation state -- has not been officially included in this assessment; however, it can be unofficially assessed to be in the vicinity of "3" due to its manifold political and economic challenges. [Guinea](#) has endured poor rankings throughout, but was slightly downgraded further over fears of social unrest and the Ebola health crisis.

In Europe, [Ukraine](#) was downgraded due to the unrest facing that country following its Maidan revolution that triggered a pro-Russian uprising in the eastern part of the country. [Russia](#) was also implicated in the Ukrainian crisis due to its intervention on behalf of pro-Russian separatists, as well as its annexation of the Ukrainian territory of Crimea. [Serbia](#) and [Albania](#) were slightly downgraded due to eruptions of unrest, while [Romania](#) was slightly downgraded on the basis of corruption charges against the prime minister. [Spain](#), [Portugal](#), [Ireland](#), and [Italy](#) were downgraded due to debt woes and the concomitant effect on the euro zone. [Greece](#), another euro zone nation, was downgraded the previous year due to its sovereign debt crisis; however, the country successfully forged a rescue deal with international creditors and stayed within the Euro zone. Greek voters rewarded the hitherto unknown upstart party at the polls for these efforts. As a result, [Greece](#) was actually upgraded slightly as it proved to the world that it could endure the political and economic storms. Meanwhile, [Germany](#), [France](#), [Switzerland](#), the [United Kingdom](#), the [Netherlands](#), and the Scandinavian countries continue to post impressive ranking consistent with these countries' strong records of democracy, freedom, and peaceful transfers of power.

In Asia, [Nepal](#) was downgraded in response to continuous political instability well after landmark elections that prevails today. [Cambodia](#) was very slightly downgraded due to post-election instability that has resulted in occasional flares of violence. Despite the "trifecta of tragedy" in [Japan](#) in 2011 -- the earthquake, the ensuing tsunami, and the resulting nuclear crisis -- and the appreciable destabilization of the economic and political terrain therein, this country has only slightly been downgraded. Japan's challenges have been assessed to be transient, the government remains accountable, and there is little risk of default. Both [India](#) and China retain their rankings; [India](#) holds a slightly higher ranking than [China](#) due to its record of democratic representation and accountability. Increasing violence and political instability in [Pakistan](#) resulted in a downgrade for this country's already low rating.

In the Americas, [Haiti](#) retained its downgraded status due to ongoing political and economic woes. [Mexico](#) was downgraded due to its alarming rate of crime. [Guatemala](#) was downgraded due to charges of corruption, the arrest of the president, and uncertainty over the outcome of elections. [Brazil](#) was downgraded due to the corruption charges erupting on the political landscape, the stalling of the economy, and the increasingly loud calls for the impeachment of President Rousseff. [Argentina](#) was downgraded due to its default on debt following the failure of talks with bond holders. [Venezuela](#) was downgraded due to the fact that the country's post-Chavez government is every bit as autocratic and nationalistic, but even more inclined to oppress its political opponents. [Colombia](#) was upgraded slightly due to efforts aimed at securing a peace deal with the FARC insurgents. A small but significant upgrade was attributed to [Cuba](#) due to its recent pro-business reforms and its normalization of ties with the United States. Meanwhile, the [United States](#), [Canada](#), [Costa Rica](#), [Panama](#), and most of the English-speaking countries of the Caribbean retain their strong rankings due to their records of stability and peaceful transfers of power.

In the Pacific, [Fiji](#) was upgraded due to its return to constitutional order and democracy with the holding of the first elections in eight years.

In Oceania, [Maldives](#) has been slightly downgraded due to the government's continued and rather relentless persecution of the country's former pro-democracy leader - former President Nasheed.

Source:

Dr. Denise Youngblood Coleman, Editor in Chief, CountryWatch Inc. www.countrywatch.com

Updated:

2015

Freedom Rankings

Freedom Rankings

Freedom in the World

Editor's Note: This ranking by Freedom House quantifies political freedom and civil liberties into a single combined index on each sovereign country's level of freedom and liberty. The initials "PR" and "CL" stand for Political Rights and Civil Liberties, respectively. The number 1 represents the most free countries and the number 7 represents the least free. Several countries fall in the continuum in between. The freedom ratings reflect an overall judgment based on survey results.

Country	PR	CL	Freedom Status	Trend Arrow
Afghanistan	6 ?	6	Not Free	

Albania*	3	3	Partly Free	
Algeria	6	5	Not Free	
Andorra*	1	1	Free	
Angola	6	5	Not Free	
Antigua and Barbuda*	3 ?	2	Free	
Argentina*	2	2	Free	
Armenia	6	4	Partly Free	
Australia*	1	1	Free	
Austria*	1	1	Free	
Azerbaijan	6	5	Not Free	
Bahamas*	1	1	Free	
Bahrain	6 ?	5	Not Free ?	
Bangladesh*	3 ?	4	Partly Free	
Barbados*	1	1	Free	
Belarus	7	6	Not Free	
Belgium*	1	1	Free	
Belize*	1	2	Free	
Benin*	2	2	Free	

Bhutan	4	5	Partly Free	
Bolivia*	3	3	Partly Free	
Bosnia-Herzegovina*	4	3	Partly Free	
Botswana*	3 ?	2	Free	
Brazil*	2	2	Free	
Brunei	6	5	Not Free	
Bulgaria*	2	2	Free	
Burkina Faso	5	3	Partly Free	
Burma	7	7	Not Free	
Burundi*	4	5	Partly Free	↑
Cambodia	6	5	Not Free	↓
Cameroon	6	6	Not Free	
Canada*	1	1	Free	
Cape Verde*	1	1	Free	
Central African Republic	5	5	Partly Free	
Chad	7	6	Not Free	
Chile*	1	1	Free	
China	7	6	Not Free	

Colombia*	3	4	Partly Free	
Comoros*	3	4	Partly Free	
Congo (Brazzaville)	6	5	Not Free	↓
Congo (Kinshasa)	6	6	Not Free	↓
Costa Rica*	1	1	Free	
Cote d'Ivoire	6	5	Not Free	
Croatia*	1 ?	2	Free	
Cuba	7	6	Not Free	
Cyprus*	1	1	Free	
Czech Republic*	1	1	Free	
Denmark*	1	1	Free	
Djibouti	5	5	Partly Free	
Dominica*	1	1	Free	
Dominican Republic*	2	2	Free	↓
East Timor*	3	4	Partly Free	
Ecuador*	3	3	Partly Free	
Egypt	6	5	Not Free	
El Salvador*	2	3	Free	

Equatorial Guinea	7	7	Not Free	
Eritrea	7	7 ?	Not Free	
Estonia*	1	1	Free	
Ethiopia	5	5	Partly Free	↓
Fiji	6	4	Partly Free	
Finland*	1	1	Free	
France*	1	1	Free	
Gabon	6	5 ?	Not Free ?	
The Gambia	5	5 ?	Partly Free	
Georgia	4	4	Partly Free	
Germany*	1	1	Free	
Ghana*	1	2	Free	
Greece*	1	2	Free	
Grenada*	1	2	Free	
Guatemala*	4 ?	4	Partly Free	
Guinea	7	6 ?	Not Free	
Guinea-Bissau*	4	4	Partly Free	
Guyana*	2	3	Free	

Haiti*	4	5	Partly Free	
Honduras	4 ?	4 ?	Partly Free	
Hungary*	1	1	Free	
Iceland*	1	1	Free	
India*	2	3	Free	
Indonesia*	2	3	Free	
Iran	6	6	Not Free	↓
Iraq	5 ?	6	Not Free	
Ireland*	1	1	Free	
Israel*	1	2	Free	
Italy*	1	2	Free	
Jamaica*	2	3	Free	
Japan*	1	2	Free	
Jordan	6 ?	5	Not Free ?	
Kazakhstan	6	5	Not Free	↓
Kenya	4	4 ?	Partly Free	
Kiribati*	1	1	Free	
Kosovo	5 ?	4 ?	Partly Free ?	

Kuwait	4	4	Partly Free	
Kyrgyzstan	6 ?	5 ?	Not Free ?	
Laos	7	6	Not Free	
Latvia*	2	1	Free	
Lebanon	5	3 ?	Partly Free	
Lesotho*	3 ?	3	Partly Free ?	
Liberia*	3	4	Partly Free	
Libya	7	7	Not Free	
Liechtenstein*	1	1	Free	
Lithuania*	1	1	Free	
Luxembourg*	1	1	Free	
Macedonia*	3	3	Partly Free	↑
Madagascar	6 ?	4 ?	Partly Free	
Malawi*	3 ?	4	Partly Free	
Malaysia	4	4	Partly Free	
Maldives*	3 ?	4	Partly Free	
Mali*	2	3	Free	
Malta*	1	1	Free	↓

Marshall Islands*	1	1	Free	
Mauritania	6	5	Not Free	
Mauritius*	1	2	Free	
Mexico*	2	3	Free	
Micronesia*	1	1	Free	
Moldova*	3 ?	4	Partly Free	
Monaco*	2	1	Free	
Mongolia*	2	2	Free	↑
Montenegro*	3	2 ?	Free ?	
Morocco	5	4	Partly Free	↓
Mozambique	4 ?	3	Partly Free	
Namibia*	2	2	Free	
Nauru*	1	1	Free	
Nepal	4	4	Partly Free	
Netherlands*	1	1	Free	
New Zealand*	1	1	Free	
Nicaragua*	4	4 ?	Partly Free	
Niger	5 ?	4	Partly Free	

Nigeria	5	4	Partly Free	↓
North Korea	7	7	Not Free	↓
Norway*	1	1	Free	
Oman	6	5	Not Free	
Pakistan	4	5	Partly Free	
Palau*	1	1	Free	
Panama*	1	2	Free	
Papua New Guinea*	4	3	Partly Free	
Paraguay*	3	3	Partly Free	
Peru*	2	3	Free	
Philippines	4	3	Partly Free	↓
Poland*	1	1	Free	
Portugal*	1	1	Free	
Qatar	6	5	Not Free	
Romania*	2	2	Free	
Russia	6	5	Not Free	↓
Rwanda	6	5	Not Free	
Saint Kitts and Nevis*	1	1	Free	

Saint Lucia*	1	1	Free	
Saint Vincent and Grenadines*	2	1	Free	
Samoa*	2	2	Free	
San Marino*	1	1	Free	
Sao Tome and Principe*	2	2	Free	
Saudi Arabia	7	6	Not Free	
Senegal*	3	3	Partly Free	
Serbia*	2 ?	2	Free	
Seychelles*	3	3	Partly Free	
Sierra Leone*	3	3	Partly Free	
Singapore	5	4	Partly Free	
Slovakia*	1	1	Free	↓
Slovenia*	1	1	Free	
Solomon Islands	4	3	Partly Free	
Somalia	7	7	Not Free	
South Africa*	2	2	Free	
South Korea*	1	2	Free	
Spain*	1	1	Free	

Sri Lanka*	4	4	Partly Free	
Sudan	7	7	Not Free	
Suriname*	2	2	Free	
Swaziland	7	5	Not Free	
Sweden*	1	1	Free	
Switzerland*	1	1	Free	↓
Syria	7	6	Not Free	
Taiwan*	1 ?	2 ?	Free	
Tajikistan	6	5	Not Free	
Tanzania	4	3	Partly Free	
Thailand	5	4	Partly Free	
Togo	5	4 ?	Partly Free	
Tonga	5	3	Partly Free	
Trinidad and Tobago*	2	2	Free	
Tunisia	7	5	Not Free	
Turkey*	3	3	Partly Free	↓
Turkmenistan	7	7	Not Free	
Tuvalu*	1	1	Free	

Uganda	5	4	Partly Free	
Ukraine*	3	2	Free	
United Arab Emirates	6	5	Not Free	
United Kingdom*	1	1	Free	
United States*	1	1	Free	
Uruguay*	1	1	Free	
Uzbekistan	7	7	Not Free	
Vanuatu*	2	2	Free	
Venezuela	5 ?	4	Partly Free	
Vietnam	7	5	Not Free	↓
Yemen	6 ?	5	Not Free ?	
Zambia*	3	4 ?	Partly Free	
Zimbabwe	6 ?	6	Not Free	

Methodology:

PR and CL stand for political rights and civil liberties, respectively; 1 represents the most free and 7 the least free rating. The ratings reflect an overall judgment based on survey results.

? ? up or down indicates a change in political rights, civil liberties, or status since the last survey.

↑ ↓ up or down indicates a trend of positive or negative changes that took place but that were not sufficient to result in a change in political rights or civil liberties ratings of 1-7.

* indicates a country's status as an electoral democracy.

Source:

This data is derived from the latest edition of Freedom House's Freedom in the World 2010 edition.

Available at URL: <http://www.freedomhouse.org>

Updated:

Reviewed in 2015

Human Rights

Overview of Human Rights in Ethiopia

Recent elections (in 2005) resulted in accusations of irregularities and subsequent riots, which led to many serious human rights abuses. While Ethiopia did not have a good record before the elections, it has only worsened in the aftermath.

Background Note: After the elections, opposition parties chose not to accept the results and called for civil disobedience from the populace. Widespread riots and protests broke out months later. The police and military responded with excessive force, killing at least 80, wounding more than 100, and arresting more than 4000 in Addis Ababa and other towns. Among those arrested were regular citizens, journalists, opposition politicians, and civil society activists. The government has indicated that several of those still being held will face charges of treason. This meant sentences of death for those found guilty.

The government of Ethiopia uses several forms of human rights abuses to deter and punish those who oppose its authority. Torture, prolonged imprisonment, harassment, and sometimes even death are some of the tactics used. The government also infringes on the right to privacy as well as the freedoms of press, assembly, association, and movement.

Societal discrimination against children, disabled people, and religious and ethnic minorities are other human rights abuses that are frequently reported.

The Ethiopian Human Rights Council (EHRCO) is the only nationwide human rights organization that functions on a full time basis in Ethiopia. Those who work for this organization often face

harassment and intimidation by the authorities. In June 2005, three EHRCO workers were arrested and taken to military detention camps because they were trying to document on the aftermath of the May 2005 elections. Though they were later released, they still have to face criminal charges.

Human Development Index (HDI) Rank:

See full listing of the Human Development Index located in the Social Overview of this report for this country's current rank.

Human Poverty Index Rank:

99th out of 103

Gini Index:

57.2

Life Expectancy at Birth (years):

56.19 years

Unemployment Rate:

N/A

Population living on \$1 a day (%):

26.3%

Population living on \$2 a day (%):

80.7%

Population living beneath the Poverty Line (%):

50%

Internally Displaced People:

132,000

Note-130,000 refugees are currently seeking asylum in Ethiopia

Total Crime Rate (%):

N/A

Health Expenditure (% of GDP):

Public: 2.6%

% of GDP Spent on Education:

4.6%

Human Rights Conventions Party to:

- International Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide
- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
- Conventions on the Rights of the Child
- Convention relating to the Status of Refugees

*Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite index that measures the level of well-being in 177 nations in the world. It uses factors such as poverty, literacy, life-expectancy, education, gross domestic product, and purchasing power parity to assess the average achievements in each nation. It has been used in the United Nation's Human Development Report since 1993.

*Human Poverty Index Ranking is based on certain indicators used to calculate the Human Poverty Index. Probability at birth of not surviving to age 40, adult literacy rate, population without sustainable access to an improved water source, and population below income poverty line are the indicators assessed in this measure.

*The Gini Index measures inequality based on the distribution of family income or consumption. A value of 0 represents perfect equality (income being distributed equally), and a value of 100 perfect inequality (income all going to one individual).

*The calculation of the total crime rate is the % of the total population which has been effected by property crime, robbery, sexual assault, assault, or bribery (corruption) related occurrences.

Government Functions

Constitution

In 1994, a new constitution was written which established a bicameral legislative branch as well as a new judicial system, and which guaranteed equal rights and freedom of expression to all citizens of Ethiopia. The constitution established a new federal structure which shared power between the central and state governments, with each having autonomy and jurisdiction in certain clearly defined areas - an arrangement well suited for a vast country with a high degree of religious, cultural, ethnic, linguistic and economic diversity. There is a constitutionally defined distribution of responsibilities so that overlapping of jurisdictions does not occur. There is also a multi-party electoral system with a bicameral Parliament.

Executive Authority

The executive level of government includes a president elected by the House of People's Representatives for a six-year term (eligible for a second term), a prime minister designated by the party in power following legislative election, and a Council of Ministers as provided for in the December 1994 constitution. Ministers are selected by the prime minister and approved by the House of People's Representatives.

Legislative Authority

The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, adopted in December of 1994 and effective as of 1995, established two representative bodies for the Federal government namely the House of People's Representatives and the House of Federation. However, the Ethiopian Parliament is not bicameral in the traditional sense. The House of Peoples' Representatives has legislative and oversight functions. This body passes legislation, which defines the scope of government as well as controlling important sources of revenue. The House of Federation represents the states and ethnic groups and possesses both quasi-judicial and legislative obligations in determining the use of joint revenue sources (shared by the federal government and states) and in determining the apportionment of revenue sharing monies.

Note

The constitution makes the House of Peoples' Representatives accountable in several ways. Individual members, elected for a term of five years, may be recalled or removed by their constituencies. Although substantial power is invested in the Prime Minister and Council of Ministers, these officials are regularly called before the House to report on their activities. The government as a whole - including Parliament - is obliged to conduct its business in a "public and transparent" manner.

Judicial Authority

A notable feature of the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia is that it accords a crucial position to the Judiciary. A well-defined judicial structure has been introduced in Ethiopia with the adoption of the new constitution and the Supreme Court is at the apex of this structure.

Because the Ethiopian government is federal in nature, Ethiopia has a dual system of courts - a Federal Judiciary with the Supreme Court at the top along with a separate and parallel judicial system in each Regional State. The Federal Supreme Court, the Federal High Court, and the Federal First Instance Court constitute a single Federal Judiciary, having jurisdiction over all cases arising under federal matters. Likewise, there is a similar court structure in each Regional State that has jurisdiction over all regional matters.

Government Structure

Names:

conventional long form:

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

conventional short form:

Ethiopia

local long form:

Ityop'iya Federalawi Demokrasiyawi Ripeblik

local short form:

Ityop'iya

former:

Abyssinia, Italian East Africa

Type:

Federal parliamentary republic

Executive Branch:

Chief of state:

President Mulatu Teshome (since 2013); elected by a joint session of parliament for a six-year term; next election to be held in 2019

Elections:

The president elected by the House of People's Representatives for a six-year term (eligible for a second term), typically after legislative elections result in formation of new parliament

Primer on Presidential Election in Ethiopia:

Oct. 7, 2013 --

A presidential election was set to be held in Ethiopia in October 2013. In Ethiopia, the president is elected in an internal vote by the bicameral parliament to a six-year term. Incumbent President Girma Wolde-Giorgis could not contest this election due to term limits.

Several individuals have been discussed as possible contenders for the presidency. These possible candidates include: Abadula Gemedo, the speaker of the House of People's Representatives and a former cabinet minister; Ashebir Woldegiorgis, an independent member of parliament and former president of the Ethiopian Football Federation; Eleni Gabre-Madhin, the founder of the Ethiopia Commodity Exchange and a businessman; Hailu Shawul, the former chairman of the Coalition for Unity and Democracy; and Haile Gebreselassie, a well-known Olympic long-distance runner and a businessman.

Because the ruling Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) has overwhelming control over the parliament, its membership would be the major decision maker in determining who would become the next president.

Ultimately, the internal election in Ethiopia's parliament went forward on Oct. 7, 2013, and it was Mulatu Teshome who was elected as president to a six-year term. Clearly, the election of Mulatu Teshome was something of a surprise since his name was not among the likely successors being discussed in the public purview as the next head of state. Mulatu Teshome -- often referred to as

simply "Mulatu" in Ethiopia -- was an Oromo people, the country's largest ethnic group. He had a record in public service as Ethiopia's ambassador to Turkey, and having served as Ethiopia's ambassador to China and Japan, as well as Ethiopia's Minister of Agriculture.

Note on head of government:

It was reported on Aug. 21, 2012 that Ethiopian Prime Minister Meles Zenawi died while seeking medical treatment out of the country. The Ethiopian Council of Ministers, which announced the death of Meles Zenawi in Belgium, designated Deputy Prime Minister Haile Mariam Desalegn to be the acting head of government, in keeping with constitutional provisions.

After the death of Ethiopia's prime minister, the parliament's failure to inaugurate a successor left the country in some degree of political limbo. At issue was the fact that the appointment of Desalegn as prime minister was to be ratified by parliament. However, there was a brewing debate over whether Desalegn's post as deputy prime minister was a delegation of responsibility that did not facilitate automatic succession. It should be noted that despite the claim by the Ethiopian Council of Ministers that the deputy would succeed the prime minister in keeping with constitutional provisions, the Ethiopia's constitution does not actually specify succession details in case of incapacitation or death of a sitting head of government.

In late August 2012, Ethiopian authorities made clear that despite the fracas over succession, the country was stable. That claim was put to the test in the first week of September 2012 when the ruling Ethiopian People's Democratic Front in parliament chose to delay the appointment, effectively plunging the country into a state of political uncertainty. Nevertheless, later in September 2012, Haile Mariam Desalegn officially became the country's new prime minister succeeding the late long-time ruler, Meles Zenawi.

Cabinet:

Council of Ministers as provided in the constitution; ministers are selected by the Prime Minister and approved by the Council of People's Representatives

Legislative Branch:

Bicameral Federal Parliamentary Assembly:

Consists of an upper chamber, the Yefedereshn Mekir Bet (Council of the Federation) and a lower chamber, the Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives)

Yefedereshn Mekir Bet (Council of the Federation):

108 seats; members are chosen by regional assemblies to serve five-year terms

Note:

The upper chamber represents the ethnic interests of the regional governments.

Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives):

547 members; directly elected by popular vote from single-member districts to serve five-year terms

Primer on parliamentary elections in Ethiopia

May 24, 2015 --

Parliamentary elections were expected to be held in Ethiopia on May 24, 2015.

In Ethiopia, the legislative branch of government is a bicameral Federal Parliamentary Assembly, consisting of an upper chamber, the Yefedereshn Mekir Bet (Council of the Federation), and a lower chamber, the Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives). In the Yefedereshn Mekir Bet (Council of the Federation), there are 108 seats and members are chosen by regional assemblies to serve five-year terms. The intent of the upper chamber is to represent the ethnic interests of the regional governments. The action, therefore, at the polls would be in the Yehizbtewekayoch Mekir Bet (Council of People's Representatives), which has 547 seats and where members are directly elected by popular vote from single-member districts to serve five-year terms.

In the last elections of 2010, the ruling Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) retained its strong control over that lower body in parliament and held onto power.

In 2015, there was little reason to expect a significantly different outcome. Of note was the fact that several opposition parties complained that the National Election Board was implementing complicated procedures for registration, seemingly intended to create roadblocks for them. They have charged that the National Election Board appeared interested in preventing the elections from being a fully participatory process.

As expected, after the votes were counted in May 2015, Ethiopia's ruling party and its allies secured a solid majority in parliament. Preliminary results showed that the (EPRDF) -- in power for 25 years -- and its allied parties won 442 seats out of the 547 at stake. Official results were yet to be announced; however, there was little doubt that the ruling party had secured a landslide victory.

The opposition decried the result, alleging ballot theft and other forms of fraud, and saying that the government has carried out a concerted effort to suppress dissent. Its complaint resonated with the United States Department of State, which in a statement expressed concerns over the Ethiopian government repressive and uncompetitive political landscape. The statement read as follows: "The United States remains deeply concerned by continued restrictions on civil society, media, opposition parties, and independent voices and views." However, the African Union issued a

different view, with its observer mission asserting that the Ethiopian election went off in a credible manner. Its statement read as follows: "The African Union Election Observation Mission (AUEOM) concludes that the parliamentary elections were calm, peaceful, and credible as it provided an opportunity for the Ethiopian people to express their choices at the polls." Of note was the fact that Ethiopia did not permit any Western monitors to observe the election.

Judicial Branch:

Federal Supreme Court (the president and vice president of the Federal Supreme Court are recommended by the prime minister and appointed by the House of People's Representatives; for other federal judges, the prime minister submits to the House of People's Representatives for appointment candidates selected by the Federal Judicial Administrative Council)

Constitution:

December 1994; effective as of 1995

Legal System:

Hybrid of European common law tradition, and customary law. Inalienable rights of citizens enumerated in constitution. Traditional and Religious courts retain authority in limited spheres under the supremacy of the constitutionally mandated state and federal court system.

Administrative Divisions:

Nine ethnically-based states (kililoch, singular - kilil) and two self-governing administrations* (astedaderoch, singular - astedader); Adis Abeba* (Addis Ababa), Afar, Amara (Amhara), Binshangul Gumuz, Dire Dawa*, Gambela Hizboch (Gambela Peoples), Hareri Hizb (Harari People), Oromiya (Oromia), Sumale (Somali), Tigray, Ye Debub Biheroch Bihereseboch na Hizboch (Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples)

Political Parties and Leaders:

Afar National Democratic Party or ANDP [Mohammed KEDIR]

All Ethiopian Unity Organization or AEUO [Hailu SHAWEL]

Arena Tigray [GEBRU Asrat]

Argoba People's Democratic Organization or APDO [Abdulkader MOHAMMED]

Benishangul Gumuz People's Democratic Party or BGPDP [Muluaem BESSE]

Blue Party (Semayawi Party) [Yanatan TESHAYE, spokesman]

Coalition for Unity and Democratic Party or CUDP [AYELE Chamiso]

Ethiopian Democratic Party or EDP [MUSHE Semu]

Ethiopian Federal Democratic Forum or FORUM [Dr. Moga FRISSA] (a UDJ-led 6-party alliance established for the 2010 parliamentary elections)

Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front or EPRDF (including the following organizations: Amhara National Democratic Movement or ANDM; Oromo People's Democratic Organization or OPDO; Southern Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement or SEPDM; and Tigray People's Liberation Front or TPLF)

Gambella Peoples Unity Democratic Movement or GPUDM

Gurage Peoples Democratic Front [GIRMA Bogale]

Harari National League or HNL [YASIN Husein]

Oromo Federalist Democratic Movement or OFDM

Oromo People's Congress or OPC [IMERERA Gudina]

Somali Democratic Alliance Forces or SODAF [BUH Hussien]

Somali People's Democratic Party or SPDP [Abulfetah Sheck ABDULAHI]

South Ethiopian People's Democratic Union or SEPDU [TILAHUN Endeshaw]

United Ethiopian Democratic Forces or UEDF [BEYENE Petros]

Unity for Democracy and Justice or UDJ [Dr. NEGASSO Gidada]

Suffrage:

18 years of age; universal

Principal Government Officials

Government of Ethiopia

Pres. MULATU Teshome

Prime Min. HAILEMARIAM Desalegn

Dep. Prime Min. ASTER Mamo

Dep. Prime Min. DEBRETSION Gebre-Michael

Dep. Prime Min. DEMEKE Mekonnen Hassen

Min. of Agriculture TEFERA Deribew

Min. of Cabinet Affairs DEMISSE Shito

Min. of Civil Service ASTER Mamo

Min. of Communication & Information Technology DEBRETSION Gebre-Michael

Min. of Culture & Tourism AMIN Abdulkadir

Min. of Defense SIRAJ Fegessa Shereffa

Min. of Education SHIFERAW Shigute
Min. of Environmental Protection & Forestry BELETE Tafese
Min. of Federal Affairs SHIFERAW Tekle-Mariam
Min. of Finance & Economic Development SUFIAN Ahmed
Min. of Foreign Affairs TEWODROS Adhanom Ghebreyesus
Min. of Govt. Communications Affairs Office REDWAN Hussein
Min. of Health KESETE-BERHAN Admasu
Min. of Industry AHMED Abetew
Min. of Justice GETACHEW Ambaye
Min. of Labor & Social Affairs ABDULFETAH Abdulahi Hassen
Min. of Mines TOLESA Shagi
Min. of Revenue & Customs Authority BEKIR Shale
Min. of Science & Technology DEMITU Hambessa
Min. of Trade KEBEDE Chane
Min. of Transport WORKNEH Gebeyehu
Min. of Urban Development & Construction MEKURIA Haile
Min. of Water & Energy ALEMAYEHU Tegenu
Min. of Women, Children, & Youth Affairs ZENEBU Tadesse
Governor, National Bank of Ethiopia TEKLEWOLD Atnafu
Ambassador to the US GIRMA Birru Geda
Permanent Representative to the UN, New York TEKEDA Alemu Wolde Mariam

-- as of 2015

Leader Biography

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Foreign Relations

General Relations

Ethiopia was isolated from major movements of world politics until the 1885 and 1935 Italian invasions. Since World War II, it has played an active role in world and African affairs. Ethiopia was a charter member of the United Nations, and took part in UN operations in Korea in 1951 and the Congo in 1960. Former Emperor Haile Selassie was a founder of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in 1963. Addis Ababa is the host capital for the headquarters of the UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) and the OAU and is also a member of the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD).

Although nominally a member of the Non-Aligned Movement, after the 1974 revolution Ethiopia established a close relationship with the Soviet Union and its allies and supported their international policies and positions until the change of government in 1991.

Regional Relations

Although Ethiopia has enjoyed relative peace, the country remains in many ways on a war footing. While border tensions resulted in the major conflagration recently with Eritrea, memories of the abortive Somali invasion in the 1970s and fears of Islamic activism descending from Sudan, as well as Somalia more recently, also sustain a high level of tension within Ethiopia's government concerning its neighbors. Attempts to mediate some of these disputes have been frustrated by the lack of a discernable central government in Mogadishu, the ongoing civil war in Sudan, and Addis Ababa's mistreatment of dissident ethnic groups such as the Oromo Liberation Front fighting for more autonomy.

Eritrea

The war between Ethiopia and Eritrea, located in the region of the Horn of Africa, was sparked by a border dispute, and left an estimated 70,000 people dead due to trench warfare, very much akin to battles that took place during World War I in Europe.

On Dec. 12, 2000, a peace treaty was signed by President Isaias Afwerki and Prime Minister Meles Zenawi in the presence of President Abdelaziz Bouteflika of Algeria, United Nations (U.N.) Secretary General Kofi Annan, former United States (U.S.) Secretary of State Madeleine Albright, Organization of African Unity (OAU) Secretary General Salim Ahmed Salim provides for among

other things, delineation of Ethiopian and Eritrean borders, payment of compensation claims by nationals and facilitate the deployment of some 4,200 U.N. peacekeepers along the countries' common border.

Throughout 2001 and 2002 the peace process begun in the December 2000 agreement continued to unfold. The U.N. peacekeeping force was able to foster a pullback of forces and a continued cessation of hostilities. Prisoner exchanges were conducted and the tedious process of clearing land mines was initiated with offers of help from international sources.

The peace accord signed in December 2000 established The Boundary Commission, a neutral body of the International Court of Justice in The Hague, to draw a permanent boundary through a disputed region covering large areas of fertile farmland. The dispute over the farmland was one of the principal irritants which caused the war.

In April 2002, The Boundary Commission handed down its decision on the boundary between Eritrea and Ethiopia. Work to finalize The Boundary Commission's decision continues but will require the de-mining activities be completed before finalizing the border area.

In September 2002 the U.N. Security Council approved a six-month extension of the peacekeeping force, until March 2003, to continue the efforts on demarcation of the boundary and preservation of the cessation of hostilities.

Then, in April 2003, the Boundary Commission ruled that the disputed town of Badme - which is on the board of Ethiopia and Eritrea - officially lies in Eritrea. The decision infuriated Ethiopian officials, although the country had previously stated it would accept any ruling by the commission as final -- thus evoking criticism from Commission officials.

Ethiopian officials opposed the border commission ruling and Eritrea warned of "grave consequences" if Ethiopia rejected the ruling. The long-awaited physical demarcation of the border was scheduled to take place in May, but could not take place without the co-operation of both nations.

Ethiopia claimed that the boundary commission did not stick to its mandate as defined in Algiers. The commission, however, said its decision was based on treaties, maps and historical reality and threw out Ethiopia's evidence as "inadequate" and "inconsistent."

On July 17, 2003, the United Nations Security Council encouraged the two countries to accept as final and binding the agreement on the delimitation of the border between the two countries. The council also urged both Eritrea and Ethiopia to cooperate fully with the commission responsible for demarcating the boundary, while expressing its concerns at delays in the demarcation process up until that point.

By mid-2004, the dialogue on the border demarcation between Eritrea and Ethiopia was at a stalemate. Demarcation was delayed at least three times due to Ethiopia's refusal to allow Eritrea to claim the village of Badme. With allegations of cattle theft and exchanges of gunfire in late 2003 and early 2004, tensions seemed to be easing by August 2004. However, the stalemate resulted in the extension of the U.N. peacekeeping mission twice - until 2005.

In October 2005, the U.N. reported that Ethiopia and Eritrea both moved troops and tanks towards their shared border. The U.N. statement said that its peacekeepers on the ground had changed their assessment of the situation from "stable" to "tense." It was also reported that troops had entered the Temporary Security Zone (TSZ) that had functioned as a buffer zone between the two countries. Eritrea responded by dismissing the report. Nevertheless, tensions were on the rise as Eritrea became increasingly frustrated by the failure to implement the December 2000 peace agreement, which demarcated the border and attributed the contested town of Badme to that country despite rejection of the decision by Ethiopia. To date, the Ethiopian presence in Badme has prevailed. A letter from Eritrean President Isaias Afewerki to the United Nations Security Council dated Oct. 28, 2005, drew attention to this matter and criticized the international body for failing to enforce the decision on territory.

In 2006, the relationship between Ethiopia and Eritrea was in the international purview when attention focused on the advancement of the Union of Islamic Courts in Somalia. The ascendancy of these Islamists militias sidelined the warlords who had, until then, controlled Mogadishu, and threatened to weaken the transitional government of Somalia, which was aligned with Ethiopia. It was that linkage -- the alignment of Ethiopia and Somalia -- that reinvigorated tensions between Eritrea and Ethiopia. Most notably, Ethiopia accused Eritrea of supporting the Islamist militias that increasingly held sway in Somalia. Some experts intimated that the weapons from Iran and some Arab countries were entering Somalia via Eritrea. The involvement of Eritrea, as well as arms suppliers from other countries, augured negatively for the prospects of stable governance in the region.

In late 2006, the issue of Eritrea's stance regarding Ethiopia and Somalia continued to be at the forefront of the political scene when the United Nations released a report noting that several countries were responsible for the provision of arms and supplies to the Islamists in Somalia. Included in the list of countries was Eritrea. For its part, the government of Eritrea dismissed the claim. The report also noted that Ethiopia was providing arms to the interim government of Somalia -- a matter that may well have been true given Ethiopia's decision to send troops to Somalia to rid the country of the Islamists and to bolster the interim government there.

The state of tense relations between Eritrea and Ethiopia was not helped when both countries opted to reject a proposal put forward by an independent boundary commission, which was intended to resolve the ongoing dispute over their shared border.

On March 15, 2012, Ethiopian National Defense Forces attacked military posts used by anti-Ethiopia groups. These military posts were located about 16 kilometers from the Ethiopian border and were actually across the border into Eritrean territory. The government of Ethiopia quickly dispatched a statement confirming the operation in the interests of national security and announcing its success. Ethiopia has accused neighboring Eritrea of supporting, financing, and training these subversive anti-Ethiopian groups, which Ethiopia claims carry out terrorist actions against the state. Indeed, the area of Afar in the northern part of Ethiopia was recently subject to attacks when subversive armed groups killed five European tourists and abducted two others along with two Ethiopians. Ethiopia has placed the blame for these attacks on Eritrea. For its part, the government of Eritrea said on March 16, 2012, that it would not be dragged into another war with Ethiopia. Instead, Eritrea said that it would call on the United Nations Security Council to take punitive measures against Ethiopia.

Editor's Note:

A long-running war between Ethiopia and Eritrea, located in the region of the Horn of Africa, left an estimated 70,000 people dead due to trench warfare, very much akin to battles that took place during World War I in Europe. On Dec. 12, 2000, a peace treaty was signed between both sides but border demarcation issues have contributed to ongoing tensions, clashes, and even the build up of tanks and troops to the border region in 2005. Since 2006, tensions between Ethiopia and Eritrea have focused on Ethiopia's alliance with the fragile Somali government in Mogadishu to fight extremist Islamists in Somalia.

The United Nations in late 2009 levied sanctions against Eritrea in response to allegations by neighboring countries and regional blocs that the east African country has been providing arms to Islamist militants in Somalia. For some time, there have been suspicions that the ongoing hostility between Eritrea and Ethiopia has resulted in Somalia being the venue of a proxy war between the two countries. Ethiopia has backed the weak transitional government of Somalia, and there have been suggestions that, in response, Eritrea has been supporting the militant Islamists hoping to bring down Somalia's regime. The United Nations' move effectively formalized these concerns of the international community over Eritrea's actions, with the Security Council's decision to impose an arms embargo and a travel ban, as well as the freezing of assets of Eritrean officials. In response, Eritrea railed against the moves, denying the allegations that it has been arming Islamist militants in Somalia, calling the sanctions illegal, and warning that it would only exacerbate the geopolitical crisis in the Horn of Africa.

Somalia

The 1977-78 Ogaden War with Somalia created a continuing strain in Somali-Ethiopian relations. For 10 years after the Ogaden War, the Siad Barre government of Somalia refused to renounce its public support of the Ethiopian guerrilla organization, the Western Somali Liberation Front, and

provided it with clandestine military assistance to carry out raids inside Ethiopia. Ethiopia's Mengistu government responded in kind by providing bases, sanctuary, and military assistance to the SSDF and the SNM. The situation resulted in strained relations for years.

Beginning in 1982, both Kenya and Djibouti, apparently encouraged by Siad Barre's stated willingness to hold direct talks with Mengistu, made diplomatic efforts to mediate between Somalia and Ethiopia. It was not until 1986, however, that Siad Barre and Mengistu finally agreed to meet. This first meeting since before the Ogaden War took place in the city of Djibouti and marked the beginning of a gradual rapprochement. Siad Barre's willingness to defuse the situation along the Somali-Ethiopian border stemmed from the combined pressures of escalating guerrilla activity, overt Ethiopian military threats, drought and the destabilizing presence of hundreds of thousands of Ethiopian refugees. Siad Barre and Mengistu held a second meeting in April 1988, at which they signed a peace agreement and formally reestablished diplomatic relations. Both leaders agreed to withdraw their troops from their mutual borders and to cease support for armed dissident groups trying to overthrow the respective governments in Addis Ababa and Mogadishu.

In 1991, Mengistu in Ethiopia was toppled by Meles Zenawi around the same time that the government of Siad Barre in Somalia collapsed. President Abdulkassim Salat Hassan's interim government of Somalia eventually came to power.

In March 2001 Ethiopia hosted a new convened Somalia Reconciliation and Restoration Council, or SRRC, comprising southern Somalia faction leaders opposed to Somalia's Transitional National Government (TNG) under the chairmanship of Mogadishu faction leader Hussein Aideed. The hosting of this conference led to the TNG accusing Ethiopia of assisting the activities of warlords and prolonging the conflict in Somalia.

In mid-July 2003, the leader of the transitional government in Somalia verbally attacked the Ethiopian government. Speaking at the African Union summit in Mozambique, President Abdulkassim Salat Hassan accused Ethiopia of destabilizing Somalia. Specifically, he alleged that his government in Mogadishu could have done much more in the three years of its existence had it not been for the daily interference of Ethiopia in Somalia's internal affairs. The Somali president accused Ethiopia of continuing to violate the arms embargo on Somalia by supplying large quantities of weapons to warlords opposed to the transitional government. He also claimed that Ethiopia's policy was to undermine the emergence of a strong, united Somalia -- a country that has been without an internationally-recognized government for more than 12 years.

Following new elections in the transitional government, new Somalian leadership came to power, led by Abdullahi Yusuf in 2004. Overall, the situation with Ethiopia continued to be somewhat problematic despite the fact that Ethiopia, under Prime Minister Meles Zenawi, has publicly supported the peace process and several years later, became something of an ally to Somalia's new interim government, led Abdullahi Yusuf. Indeed, anyone threatening to overthrow the Somalian

government would also be dealt with as an aggressor to Ethiopia.

The first part of 2006 saw the increasing ascendancy of Islamist militias in Somalia, to the detriment of the transitional government in that country. By mid-2006, the Union of Islamic Courts had taken control of Somalia's capital city of Mogadishu. The city, which had once been in the hands of warlords, was never safe enough for the country's weak transitional government to be seated there. Instead, the government had been forced to operate from the city of Baidoa. The fact that control of Mogadishu had shifted hands from warlords to these Islamist militias was a source of consternation for the government. Moreover, the ascendancy of the Union of Islamic Courts was also becoming a matter of concern for the government of Ethiopia, which was opposed to the Islamist militias and allied with the interim government of Somalia. In fact, the governments of Ethiopia and Somalia shared strong ties dating back to the 1990s when Ethiopia aided Somalia in defeating an Islamist militia.

When the news emerged that the Islamists were making further progress past the capital city, there were warnings from Ethiopia that it would send its troops into Somalia to protect the interim government. Ethiopia's threat to intervene on behalf of the Somali government served to raise the ire of the Islamists. The situation was not helped by reports in August 2006 of sightings of Ethiopian troops on the ground in Somalia -- a scenario that spurred threats of a "holy war" by the Islamist leadership against the Ethiopians. But complaints about foreign intervention were also being levied by the Somali government. At the other end of the equation, there were increasing suggestions that arms were flowing to the Islamist militias via Eritrea. Although the Eritrean government denied the charges that it was supplying arms to Islamist militias, the transitional government of Somalia reacted by declaring its support for an Eritrean rebel group.

As the interest groups entrenched themselves into opposing enclaves, anxieties increased about regional conflict in the region. Notably, observers began to speculate that Ethiopia and Eritrea were resuming their hostilities and using Somali terrain as the proxy for a return to war. The presence of Ethiopian and Eritrean military interests in Somalia served only to magnify the depth of the problem. In fact, according to the United Nations, there were more than 8,000 Ethiopian troops operating in Somalia as allies of the weak transitional government. Meanwhile, approximately 2,000 Eritrean troops were said to have been earlier deployed to Somalia to assist the Islamic Courts.

By December 2006, the Union of Islamic Courts issued a seven-day deadline to Ethiopia, warning that if Ethiopian troops were not withdrawn from Somalia, they would face imminent attack. Ethiopia responded by denying that its soldiers were fighting in Somalia, saying instead that hundreds of its forces were simply assisting the transitional government. In fact, Islamists and government forces -- apparently aided by Ethiopian troops -- were ensconced in fierce clashes in mid-December 2006. Ethiopia's head of government, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi dismissed the deadline and the possibility of attack, noting that such threats were nothing new.

On December 24, 2006, Ethiopia openly admitted that it was carrying out an offensive in Somalia. The government of Ethiopia acknowledged that its troops were battling militias from the Islamic Courts. Berhan Hailu, Ethiopia's Information Minister, said in an official statement that his country's military had been deployed into Somali territory for the purpose of "self-defensive measures." To this end, Hailu noted, "The Ethiopian government has taken self-defensive measures and started counter-attacking the aggressive extremist forces of the Islamic Courts and foreign terrorist groups." His remarks were regarded as a significant break from previous statements by Ethiopia, which mostly consisted of a variety of denials about its activities in Somalia.

Now, the reality on the ground in the border areas between Somalia and Ethiopia was characterized by heavy fighting. In addition to the fierce battles apparently taking place between the Islamists and the government forces, there were also reports of massive air strikes and shelling by Ethiopian fighters upon Islamist-held towns. In an interview with Agence France Presse, Sheikh Hassan Derrow of the Union of Islamic Courts reacted to these developments in saying, "The enemy of Allah has started bombing our civilians." He and his Islamist cohorts promised to push back the advancing Ethiopian troops.

Despite the Islamic Courts' calls to foreign fighters to join in the "holy war" in Somalia against Ethiopia, the situation on the ground was intensifying. Days later, the conflict was spreading past the border regions and deeper into Somali territory. There were conflicting reports about the number of people apparently killed in the fighting.

By December 28, 2006, Ethiopian forces had advanced deep into Somali territory and were now approaching the capital city of Mogadishu. With imminent attacks upon them, Islamist forces abandoned Mogadishu after holding control over the city for several months. Reports issued by the Associated Press indicated that some members of the Islamist militias were abandoning their duties and pledging their allegiance to elders in the city. There were also reports of gunfire throughout the city and looting of buildings that had been used by officials of the Union of Islamic Courts.

At the close of 2006, the transitional government of Somalia, aided by Ethiopian forces, had control of Mogadishu. Islamist militias had fled the city, with many of their ranks heading toward the southern city of Kismayo -- one of their few remaining strongholds. Ethiopian troops were following the Islamists and moving toward Kismayo as well. Islamists then quickly retreated from Kismayo, even as thousands of civilians fled the port city amidst fears of violence. Such anxieties had been heightened when news spread that there had been violent clashes between Ethiopian troops and Islamists in the area of Jilib, to the north of Kismayo.

At the start of 2007, members of the Islamist militias were moving toward the border with Kenya. The transitional government of Somalia called on Kenya to close its borders. The Kenyan government responded by saying that it would convene a summit of East African countries to

consider how to deal with the emerging crisis.

Meanwhile, even with the Islamists on the run and with the transitional government now retrieving some of its power, thanks to Ethiopian military support, the situation in Somalia promised to be challenging. The government was still faced with the prospect of reaching some sort of agreement with the Islamists, or risk continued destabilization in a country that had not seen peace and security for years. While the transitional government called for talks with the Union of Islamic Courts, the Islamists said that no dialogue was possible until Ethiopian forces exited Somalia.

Also in early 2007, the presence of Ethiopian troops in Somalia was a matter of controversy among Somali locals with divided loyalties. As a result, Ethiopia promised to depart quickly from Somalia. In an interview with the British media in mid-January 2007, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi of Ethiopia said that his country's forces were set to begin its withdrawal from Somalia. The Ethiopian leader said, "We want to withdraw at the earliest possible opportunity but we want to do it in a responsible manner."

According to Ethiopia's Information Ministry, by the start of 2009, about 3,000 Ethiopian troops completed their withdrawal from Somalia two years after crossing the border to help the embattled Somali government fight against Islamist insurgents. While Ethiopian troops appeared to have left Mogadishu, surrounding areas, and the southern part of the country, locals in the town of Baidoa - the seat of the transitional government -- said that Ethiopian troops remained there.

By mid-2009, Ethiopia made clear that it would not provide Somalia with future military support in the fight against extremist Islamist insurgents, explaining that any military intervention would require some sort of international mandate.

On Nov. 19, 2011, reports emerged about convoys of vehicles carrying Ethiopians troops across the border into Somalia. Eyewitness accounts confirmed the presence of Ethiopian soldiers in various Somali towns. It should be noted that Ethiopian soldiers had operated in Somalia, with the purpose of backing the fragile government of Somalia against the militant Islamist group, al-Shabab, for about three years, before finally withdrawing in 2009.

For their part, Ethiopian authorities denied that their forces were involved in any incursion into Somalia in November 2011, maintaining that their soldiers have not been in Somalia in significant numbers since 2009. Of course, the characterization "in significant numbers" lent some confusion to the situation. That confusion was not helped by the statement made by a Somali member of parliament that the the presence of Ethiopian troops was necessary in the fight against al-Shabab.

In the background of the news that Ethiopian troops might be in Somalia was the fact that Kenyan troops were now in Somalia to fight against the threat posed by al-Shabab. Indeed, since October 2011, Kenyan military forces along with allied Somali troops have been carrying out an offensive

against al-Shabab, the Islamist extremist enclave based in Somalia, which has increasingly operated as a proxy terror group for al-Qaida. The action was in reaction to the violence and terrorism carried out by militant terror group not only in Somalia but in other countries. Indeed, al-Shabab was suspected of being behind a number of violent attacks, killings, and kidnappings in Kenya in recent times, seemingly in retaliation for Kenya's involvement in the African Union mission in Somalia aimed at stabilizing the failed state. Now though, Kenya had joined forces with Somalia to go after al-Shabab.

Should the claims prove to be true about Ethiopian troops in Somalia, and given the presence of Kenyan troops along the border zone, al-Shabab would certainly be under pressure. That being said, the presence of foreign troops in Somalia could prove to be a controversial matter, even contributing to further instability in a country that can only be classified as a failed state.

At the close of 2011, it was reported that Ethiopian forces had captured the central Somali town of Beledweyne from al-Shabab Islamist militants. Eyewitnesses on the ground observed that both armored vehicles and heavy artillery were used in the assault on al-Shabab militants in Beledweyne. A lengthy battle between about 3,000 Ethiopian troops and al-Shabab fighters followed, ultimately ending in the withdrawal of the Islamic militants from the strategically-located town along the road to Somalia's capital of Mogadishu.

Somali Prime Minister Abdiweli Mohamed Ali confirmed the news of Beledweyne's capture, saying, "Early this morning, the Somali National Army recaptured some al-Shabab-occupied territories engaging the enemies in Hiiraan and other regions of the country." He said that the operation was aimed at liberating the country from "the tyranny of al-Shabab." Meanwhile, Ethiopian authorities confirmed the involvement of its country's troops, saying that the assault was carried out at the behest of the Somali government. This confirmation reinforced reports a month earlier that convoys of vehicles carrying Ethiopian troops had moved across the border into Somalia.

It should be noted that Ethiopian soldiers had operated in Somalia, with the purpose of backing the fragile government of Somalia against the militant Islamist group, al-Shabab, for about three years, before finally withdrawing in 2009. Now, in late 2011, it was apparent that there was the resumption of some military engagement by Ethiopian troops in Somalia once again, with an eye on repelling al-Shabab.

Editor's Note:

The United Nations in late 2009 levied sanctions against Eritrea in response to allegations by neighboring countries and regional blocs that the east African country has been providing arms to Islamist militants in Somalia. For some time, there have been suspicions that the ongoing hostility between Eritrea and Ethiopia has resulted in Somalia being the venue of a proxy war between the

two countries. Ethiopia has backed the weak transitional government of Somalia, and there have been suggestions that, in response, Eritrea has been supporting the militant Islamists hoping to bring down Somalia's regime. The United Nation's move effectively formalized these concerns of the international community over Eritrea's actions, with the Security Council's decision to impose an arms embargo and a travel ban, as well as the freezing of assets of Eritrean officials. In response, Eritrea railed against the moves, denying the allegations that it has been arming Islamist militants in Somalia, calling the sanctions illegal, and warning that it would only exacerbate the geopolitical crisis in the Horn of Africa.

Organization of African Unity

At its July 2-11, 2001, meeting in Lusaka, Zambia, the Organization of African Unity (OAU) officially approved the transformation of the Organization of African Unity into the new African Union. Former foreign minister of Cote d'Ivoire, Amara Essy, was elected the first Secretary-General of the Africa Union. United Nations Secretary General Kofi Annan, reacted with the statement that "This historic effort will require leadership, courage and willingness to depart from the ways of the past, if it is to do for Africa what the European Union has done for Europe."

The goal of the African Union is to be a continental body that will pave the way to a better life for all Africans. Where the OAU was criticized for its lack of action on economic and social fronts, the African Union is charged with development as its primary task. Following a model based on the European Union, the African Union is intended to bridge the economic gaps between African countries and thrust the continent onto the world economic stage as a single entity. The African Union Bill was based on a convergence of South African president Thabo Mbeki's African development plan, and the Plan Omega proposed by Senegalese president Abdoulaye Wade. It therefore adds to its economic mandate the political mandate that all of Africa should seek democratic consolidation.

There are significant criticisms to the new African Union, though. Some fear that too much faith is being placed in a document that makes more sense in theory than in practice. The strongest criticism, however, is that the Africa Union's largest force has been Libyan President Muammar al-Qadhafi.

The United States (U.S.) has made its objections to the Union clear no doubt due to a lack of trust in Qadhafi's motives. Many African leaders backed the Union even though they also demonstrated suspicion of Qadhafi's intentions. At the opening of the meeting of the OAU leaders noted that Qadhafi failed to mention Africa's founding fathers although it was Ghana's Kwame Nkrumah who was the founder of pan-Africanism some forty years ago. Indeed, Qadhafi has backed groups that are markedly anti-pan-Africanist in his own country. Other comments challenged the controversial role Libyan nationals often play in sub-Saharan African countries. Yet the most controversial

position of Qadhafi no doubt was his statement that "We cannot be neutral here. We are here for the Africans, not the Europeans. We are here for the blacks, not for the whites." With Louis Farrakhan, leader of the U.S.-based Nation of Islam movement, standing behind him, this statement was taken as an affront to increased western relations as opposed to the Union's goal of increasing economic ties with wealthier countries.

Other Significant Relations

Relations with the United States

Ethiopian-U.S. relations were established in 1903 and were good throughout the period prior to the Italian occupation. After World War II, these ties strengthened on the basis of a September 1951 treaty of amity and economic relations. In 1953, two agreements were signed, a mutual defense assistance agreement, under which the United States agreed to furnish military equipment and training, and an accord regularizing the operations of a U.S. communication facility at Asmara. Through fiscal year 1978, the United States provided Ethiopia \$282 million in military assistance and \$366 million in economic assistance in agriculture, education, public health, and transportation. A Peace Corps program emphasized education, and educational and cultural exchanges were numerous.

After the fall of Emperor Selassie in 1974, the bilateral relationship began to cool as a result of differences over human rights, the negative U.S. response to Ethiopia's request for increased military assistance to intensify its fight against the Eritrean secessionist movement and the Somali invasion. The signing of a military assistance agreement with the Soviet Union in 1976 and as well as growing radicalism within the Ethiopian government, which led to the creation of a one-party state and promulgation of Soviet political apparatus with Marxism as the guiding ideology, created more tension with the U.S. The Mutual Assistance Treaty was abrogated in early 1977 and subsequent U.S. legislation (The International Security and Development Act of 1985) prohibited all U.S. economic assistance to Ethiopia with the exception of humanitarian disaster and emergency relief. In July 1980, the U.S. Ambassador to Ethiopia was recalled at the request of the Ethiopian government, and Charges d'Affaires headed the U.S. Embassy in Ethiopia and the Ethiopian Embassy in the United States.

The downfall of the Mengistu regime in 1991, led to Ethiopian-U.S. relations improving dramatically. Legislative restrictions on assistance to Ethiopia other than humanitarian assistance were lifted as well. In 1992, diplomatic relations were upgraded to the ambassadorial level. Former U.S. Secretary of State Madeline Albright was actively involved in getting Ethiopia and Eritrea to commence a dialogue, which resulted in the peace treaty signed in December 2000.

Events as of 2006 in the region involving Ethiopia, Eritrea, Somalia and Sudan suggest that

relations between Ethiopia and the U.S. will continue to factor highly on the foreign relations agenda. This was especially true as regards the rise of militant Islam in the region and across the world.

Switzerland

In January 2003, the Swiss food giant Nestle came to an agreement with the Ethiopian government over a long-standing claim for damages. The company had created a public relations disaster for itself when it claimed \$6 million from Ethiopia, during a time when the African country was facing widespread famine.

Nestle ultimately agreed to a settlement of \$1.5 million, all of which would go directly to famine relief. In addition, Nestle said it planned to explore ways of helping Ethiopia create longer-term food security and better access to water.

Written by Dr. Denise Youngblood Coleman, Editor in Chief, www.countrywatch.com; see Bibliography for list of research sources.

National Security

External Threats

Strained relations with Eritrea and tumultuous conditions in Somalia and Sudan continue to threaten Ethiopia's security. Hostilities between Ethiopia and Eritrea are rooted in the decolonization of the region. Eritrea was under European rule for nearly seven decades. The British Military Authority ceded it to Ethiopia in 1952, despite the objections of many of its inhabitants who held aspirations of self-rule. Eritrea managed to maintain a semi-autonomous status within an Ethiopian-dominated federation for nearly a decade. Ethiopia's leader, Emperor Haile Selassie, robbed it of any semblance of independence in 1961, however, when he unilaterally dissolved Eritrea's parliament and converted the region into a national territory, sparking a fierce resistance movement. After three decades of fighting, Eritrean rebels succeeded in driving Ethiopian forces from their homeland. Eritrea officially became an independent state in April 1993.

Tension between Ethiopia and Eritrea resurfaced five years later, however. Disagreement over their shared boundary sparked a renewal of armed hostilities. The two-year war produced a total of over

100,000 casualties. Both sides agreed to a ceasefire in June 2000 and signed a peace accord that December. Under the auspices of the United Nations Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea (UNMEE), a multinational peacekeeping force monitors a roughly 15-mile wide demilitarized zone between the two countries. While both countries agreed to adhere to a 2002 Ethiopia-Eritrea Border Commission's (EEBC) ruling on the delimitation of their border, disputes stalled actual demarcation.

Then, in April 2003, the Boundary Commission ruled that the disputed town of Badme - which is on the board of Ethiopia and Eritrea - officially lies in Eritrea. The decision infuriated Ethiopian officials, although the country had previously stated it would accept any ruling by the commission as final -- thus evoking criticism from Commission officials. Ethiopian officials opposed the border commission ruling and Eritrea warned of "grave consequences" if Ethiopia rejected the ruling. The long-awaited physical demarcation of the border was scheduled to take place in May, but could not take place without the co-operation of both nations. Ethiopia claimed that the boundary commission did not stick to its mandate as defined in Algiers. The commission, however, said its decision was based on treaties, maps and historical reality and threw out Ethiopia's evidence as "inadequate" and "inconsistent."

On July 17, 2003, the United Nations Security Council encouraged the two countries to accept as final and binding the agreement on the delimitation of the border between the two countries. The council also urged both Eritrea and Ethiopia to cooperate fully with the commission responsible for demarcating the boundary, while expressing its concerns at delays in the demarcation process up until that point.

By mid-2004, the dialogue on the border demarcation between Eritrea and Ethiopia was at a stalemate. Demarcation was delayed at least three times due to Ethiopia's refusal to allow Eritrea to claim the village of Badme. With allegations of cattle theft and exchanges of gunfire in late 2003 and early 2004, tensions seemed to be easing by August 2004. However, the stalemate resulted in the extension of the U.N. peacekeeping mission twice - until 2005.

In October 2005, the U.N. reported that Ethiopia and Eritrea both moved troops and tanks towards their shared border. The U.N. statement said that its peacekeepers on the ground had changed their assessment of the situation from "stable" to "tense." It was also reported that troops had entered the Temporary Security Zone (TSZ) that had functioned as a buffer zone between the two countries. Eritrea responded by dismissing the report. Nevertheless, tensions were on the rise as Eritrea became increasingly frustrated by the failure to implement the December 2000 peace agreement, which demarcated the border and attributed the contested town of Badme to that country despite rejection of the decision by Ethiopia. To date, the Ethiopian presence in Badme has prevailed. A letter from Eritrean President Isaias Afewerki to the United Nations Security Council dated Oct. 28, 2005, drew attention to this matter and criticized the international body for failing to enforce the decision on territory.

In addition to ongoing tension with Eritrea, rampant instability in Somalia poses a danger to Ethiopia. Infighting has plagued Somalia since the 1991 ousting of the Siad Barre regime, essentially the last permanent government to hold sway there. Elements within Somalia have managed to carve out two semi-autonomous regions in the north, the Republic of Somaliland and Puntland. An ongoing power struggle has engulfed most of the rest of the country, however. The three-year mandate of Somalia's Transitional National Government expired in August 2003, again leaving the country without a central government. In August 2004, various factions continued to fight for control of Mogadishu and southern regions of the country. Ethiopia faces the ongoing risk that violence in Somalia will transverse the porous boundary between the two countries. Furthermore, in the absence of a strong central authority, Somalia has become a haven for terrorist organizations, one of which, Al-Ittihad al-Islami (AIAI), has perpetrated attacks in Ethiopia (see below section on terrorism). Likewise, criminal organizations have also been allowed to flourish in Somalia, further undermining the security of the greater region.

One factor that has perhaps served to exacerbate the threat that elements within Somalia pose to Ethiopia's security (and vice versa) is the history between the two countries. The belief that ethnic affiliations entitled Somalia to sovereignty over Ethiopian-held lands and the opportunity that Ethiopia's state of internal disarray presented prompted Somali forces to invade in 1977. Within a year they had been repelled and the war ended. Enmity on both sides of the border clearly lingers, however. One of the AIAI's original mandates was to foster the secession of the Ogaden region of Ethiopia. Likewise, Ethiopia defiantly moved to establish alliances with Somali clans that opposed the authority of the Transitional National Government, as well as with the government of the breakaway Republic of Somaliland.

In mid-2006, the relationship between Somalia, Ethiopia and Eritrea was in the international purview when attention focused on the advancement of the Union of Islamic Courts in Somalia. The ascendancy of these Islamists militias sidelined the warlords who had, until then, controlled Mogadishu, and threatened to weaken the transitional government of Somalia, which was aligned with Ethiopia. It was that linkage -- the alignment of Ethiopia and Somalia -- that reinvigorated tensions between Eritrea and Ethiopia. Most notably, Ethiopia accused Eritrea of supporting the Islamist militias that increasingly held sway in Somalia. Some experts intimated that the weapons from Iran and some Arab countries were entering Somalia via Eritrea. The involvement of Eritrea, as well as arms suppliers from other countries, augured negatively for the prospects of stable governance in the region.

In late 2006, the issue of Eritrea's stance regarding Ethiopia and Somalia continued to be at the forefront of the political scene when the United Nations released a report noting that several countries were responsible for the provision of arms and supplies to the Islamists in Somalia. Included in the list of countries was Eritrea. For its part, the government of Eritrea dismissed the claim. The report also noted that Ethiopia was providing arms to the interim government of

Somalia.

The state of tense relations between Eritrea and Ethiopia was not helped when both countries opted to reject a proposal put forward by an independent boundary commission, which was intended to resolve the ongoing dispute over their shared border.

In late 2006, the transitional government of Somalia, aided by Ethiopian forces, drove Islamic militias out of the capital city of Mogadishu, and then out of the country. The move helped to bolster the transitional Somali government, which had been weakened by the advance of Islamic militias in a country that had earlier been controlled by rival warlords. Ethiopian troops were also instrumental in the process of disarming several of the warlords who had undermined the authority of the transitional government of Somalia. Nevertheless, the presence of foreign troops in Somalia was a matter of controversy among locals with divided loyalties. As a result, Ethiopia promised to depart quickly from Somalia.

In early 2007, the presence of Ethiopian troops in Somalia was a matter of controversy among Somali locals with divided loyalties. As a result, Ethiopia promised to depart quickly from Somalia. In an interview with the British media in mid-January 2007, Prime Minister Meles Zenawi of Ethiopia said that his country's forces were set to begin its withdrawal from Somalia. The Ethiopian leader said, "We want to withdraw at the earliest possible opportunity but we want to do it in a responsible manner."

According to Ethiopia's Information Ministry, by the start of 2009, about 3,000 Ethiopian troops completed their withdrawal from Somalia two years after crossing the border to help the embattled Somali government fight against Islamist insurgents. While Ethiopian troops appeared to have left Mogadishu, surrounding areas, and the southern part of the country, locals in the town of Baidoa - the seat of the transitional government -- said that Ethiopian troops remained there.

By mid-2009, Ethiopia made clear that it would not provide Somalia with future military support in the fight against extremist Islamist insurgents, explaining that any military intervention would require some sort of international mandate.

Like the turmoil in Somalia, a longstanding conflict in Sudan also threatens Ethiopia. Sudan's northern-based, predominately Muslim central government has been fighting against non-Muslim, non-Arab insurgents in the south since Sudan attained independence in 1956, with the exception of a decade long respite between 1972-82. The conflict has claimed over two million lives. Despite signs throughout 2002 and 2003 that a permanent cessation of hostilities in the Sudan was forthcoming, the fighting intensified, garnering worldwide attention. To date, the situation remained critical. As in the case of Somalia, there is a perpetual risk that the violence in Sudan will spill across the unclearly defined border into Ethiopia. Ongoing tension between Ethiopia and the Eritrea, factional fighting in Somalia, and a longstanding civil war in Sudan make the Horn of

Africa a tough neighborhood. Situated in the center of it, Ethiopia is highly exposed to the rampant instability of the region.

Crime

Ethiopia has a moderately high crime rate. The United States Department of State warns that theft and armed robbery are prevalent. Also, Ethiopia is a hub of narcotics trafficking activity. It serves as an interim destination for Southeast and Southwest Asian heroin destined for cities in Europe and North America, as well as cocaine bound for markets in southern Africa. Khat, a local narcotic, is produced for domestic use, as well as export to Djibouti and Somalia. It is legal in all three countries.

Insurgencies

Ethiopia has both fractured and unified along ethnic lines. Part of Ethiopia for over four decades, Eritrea fought for, and ultimately achieved, its independence in 1993. Rather than follow suit, other ethnically-based insurgent movements consolidated their efforts to oust an oppressive regime and form the modern state of Ethiopia, which is comprised of eleven semi-autonomous regions generally organized along ethnic lines.

The British Military Authority ceded Eritrea to Ethiopia in 1952, despite the objections of many of its inhabitants who held aspirations of self-rule. Eritrea managed to maintain a semi-autonomous status within an Ethiopian-dominated federation for nearly a decade. Ethiopia's leader, Emperor Haile Selassie, robbed it of any semblance of independence in 1961, however, when he unilaterally dissolved Eritrea's parliament and converted the region into a national territory, sparking a fierce resistance movement. After three decades of fighting, Eritrean rebels succeeded in driving Ethiopian forces from their homeland. Eritrea officially became an independent state in April 1993. The two countries fought a costly war five years later and now maintain a fragile peace (see above section on external threats).

Outside of Eritrea, insurgents within Ethiopia's various regions coalesced into a united front against a common enemy and forged the modern state of Ethiopia. In September 1974, elements of Ethiopia's military seized power from the country's longstanding ruler, Emperor Haile Selassie, who was assassinated the following year. An authoritarian, Soviet-backed, military government known as the Derg ruled Ethiopia throughout the 1970s and 80s. In the late 80s, various insurgent movements, many of them ethnically based, began to consolidate their efforts to oust the Derg. In 1989, the Tigrayan People's Liberation Front (TPLF) and other opposition groups united to form the Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). In May 1991, EPRDF forces entered the capital, ultimately fostering the overthrow of the Derg. In July 1991, the EPRDF, the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), and other organizations established the Transitional Government

of Ethiopia (TGE).

Ethiopia has continued to evolve along democratic lines. In 2004, it was home to more than fifty registered political parties. Current Prime Minister Meles Zenawi has pursued a policy of empowering regional, ethnically-based administrative authorities. According to the U.S. Department of State, Ethiopians enjoy more political freedom than ever before in the country's history. Though Ethiopia remains considerably more cohesive than its neighbors Somalia and Sudan, there was an outbreak of ethnic violence in 2003-2004 in the Gambella region of the country. Likewise, inter-ethnic hostilities have occasionally flared up along Ethiopia's border with Kenya.

Terrorism

Terrorism represents a credible threat to Ethiopia's national security. Based in Somalia, Al-Ittihad al-Islami (AIAI) is a terrorist organization that emerged in the early 1990s with the twin objectives of creating an Islamic state there and fostering the secession of the Ogaden region of Ethiopia. AIAI is allegedly responsible for a series of bombings that took place in 1996 and 1997 in Ethiopia's capital, Addis Ababa, as well as the 1998 kidnapping of several relief workers. The Ethiopian military has significantly diminished AIAI's operational capacity. As of the end of 2003, the organization's membership was estimated to be 2,000, only a small percentage of which was militant. AIAI continues to pose a danger to Ethiopia, however, particularly in light of its reported ties to the al-Qaida network. Al-Qaida itself is believed to be responsible for several terrorist attacks in nearby Kenya and Tanzania, including the coordinated bombings of U.S. embassies in Nairobi and Dar-Es-Salaam that occurred on Aug. 7, 1998, underscoring the potential threat it poses to other countries in the region. In order to defend against the possible infiltration of AIAI members, the Ethiopian military continues to patrol the nation's porous border with Somalia. Ethiopia is party to seven of the twelve international protocols and conventions pertaining to terrorism.

Update

The United Nations in late 2009 levied sanctions against Eritrea in response to allegations by neighboring countries and regional blocs that the east African country has been providing arms to Islamist militants in Somalia. For some time, there have been suspicions that the ongoing hostility between Eritrea and Ethiopia has resulted in Somalia being the venue of a proxy war between the two countries. Ethiopia has backed the weak transitional government of Somalia, and there have been suggestions that, in response, Eritrea has been supporting the militant Islamists hoping to bring down Somalia's regime. The United Nation's move effectively formalized these concerns of the international community over Eritrea's actions, with the Security Council's decision to impose an

arms embargo and a travel ban, as well as the freezing of assets of Eritrean officials. In response, Eritrea railed against the moves, denying the allegations that it has been arming Islamist militants in Somalia, calling the sanctions illegal, and warning that it would only exacerbate the geopolitical crisis in the Horn of Africa.

Supplementary source: Federation of American Scientists, available at URL: <http://www.fas.org/irp/world/para/ogadin.htm>

Defense Forces

Military Data

Military Branches:

Ethiopian National Defense Force (ENDF): Ground Forces, Air Force

Eligible age to enter service:

18

Mandatory Service Terms:

N/A

Manpower in general population-fit for military service:

males age 16-49: 11,868,084

females age 16-49: 12,889,260

Manpower reaching eligible age annually:

males: 967,411

females: 981,714

Military Expenditures-Percent of GDP:

0.91%

Chapter 3

Economic Overview

Economic Overview

Overview

Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Sub-Saharan Africa, and one of the poorest in the world. The Ethiopian economy is based on agriculture, which accounts for half of GDP and about 60 percent of export earnings. The major agricultural export crop is coffee, but the slump in the world's coffee prices since the mid-1990s has resulted in a decline in coffee exports. Other important agricultural products for exports include hides and skins, pulses, and oilseeds. The largely agricultural economy remains vulnerable to climatic shocks, particularly droughts, and to world commodity price fluctuations. The war with Eritrea from 1998 to 2000 also had a devastating economic impact.

Following the cessation of hostilities with Eritrea in 2000, Ethiopia embarked on an IMF-supported PRGF (Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility) program which helped restore macroeconomic stability. Donor assistance rose rapidly, and Ethiopia reached the completion point under the enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative in April 2004. It then qualified for debt relief under the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) in December 2005. Since 2004, Ethiopia has enjoyed strong economic growth, largely due to government-led development policies with an emphasis on public investment, commercialization of agriculture, and non-farm private sector development. After a significant drought-related contraction in 2002 and 2003, economic growth rebounded strongly with real GDP expanding at an annual average rate of 11 percent from 2004 to 2009. Although initially led by agriculture, growth has been broad-based, with rising contribution from the services and industry sectors, resulting in export diversification. During this period, however, high domestic demand, which exceeded the supply capacity of the economy, combined with external shocks and surging world food and fuel prices in 2008. This contributed to high inflation and a sharp decline in foreign exchange reserves. Since late 2008, against a difficult external environment, the Ethiopian government has forcefully implemented macroeconomic adjustment measures, including tightening fiscal and monetary policies and enhancing exchange rate flexibility. These policies have reduced inflationary pressures and rebuilt international reserves. Although the global recession constrained export growth, the impact on aggregate output has been modest given the central role of subsistence agriculture. Also, remittances have remained stable, FDI has increased, and imports are lower. As a result, real GDP growth has remained relatively strong, underpinned by the government's investment spending on social and physical infrastructure. The global economic downturn did lead to balance of payments pressures that were somewhat alleviated by emergency funding from the IMF.

Strong growth continued in 2010 and 2011 but the country's biggest challenge in 2011 was rising inflation, which reached 30 percent in April. Excessive monetary growth has been largely to blame for the surge. High inflation combined with restrictions on private bank lending and more difficult business environment was expected to lead to lower growth in 2011 and 2012. The government recently implemented a five-year growth and transformation plan. Success of the plan will depend on giving room for the private sector to flourish and the ability to maintain a low risk of debt distress. In late November 2011, Ethiopian news sources reported that the country had secured \$1.3 billion in grants and loans from multilateral and bilateral sources during the nation's fiscal first quarter. In mid-2012, the International Monetary Fund noted that the Ethiopian economy has continued to grow at a robust pace while poverty has continued to drop. Meanwhile, inflation, while still high, has also been declining. Looking ahead, the group predicted that Ethiopia's economy would maintain a growth rate of 7 percent in 2012, and raised its earlier forecast of 5.5 percent due to the declining inflation. Still, at \$390, Ethiopia's per capita income is significantly lower than the Sub-Saharan African average of \$1,165 in 2010, ranking it as the sixth poorest country in the world, according to a method used by the World Bank and cited by Reuters. In August 2012, Ethiopian Prime Minister Meles Zenawi, who was known for economic reform during his 21-year rule, died after a prolonged illness.

Ethiopia had one of Africa's best performing economies in 2011 and 2012. However, as of 2013, inflation remained an issue. The country's inflation rate stood at 8.5 percent October 2013. Meanwhile, officials planned to continue construction of its Grand Renaissance Dam on the Nile—the controversial multi-billion dollar effort to develop electricity for domestic consumption and export. Meanwhile, the International Monetary Fund forecast inflation would remain in single digits over the next two fiscal years while the economy would grow 7.5 percent per year in the same period.

While GDP growth has remained high, per capita income is among the lowest in the world. Ethiopia's economy continues on its state-led Growth and Transformation Plan under the new collective leadership that followed Prime Minister Meles's death. The five-year economic plan has achieved high single-digit growth rates through government-led infrastructure expansion and commercial agriculture development. Ethiopia in 2014 continued construction of its Grand Renaissance Dam on the Nile – a controversial \$5 billion effort to develop electricity for domestic consumption and export.

In July 2014, Ethiopia's government announced the country would start setting up a new industrial park in September and would expand another at a total cost of \$250 million. The moves were aimed at diversifying the economy away from farming as well as attracting investors who are moving some manufacturing from China and other Asian markets.

The International Monetary Fund was forecasting economic growth of 8 percent to 8.5 percent in Ethiopia for fiscal 2013/14 and 2014/15 but has also said the state must avoid squeezing out

private firms.

In a bid to encourage investment, the government is allowing private firms to build their own industrial hubs.

In August 2014, CNBC Africa reported that Ethiopia was at the focal point of emerging economies' interest with various delegations of foreign investors seeking investment opportunities there. Then, in September 2014, the IMF noted that Ethiopia's economic growth continued to be robust and inflation contained in single digits.

Ethiopia's economy has operated on its state-led Growth and Transformation Plan and was scheduled to issue another development plan in 2015. Ethiopia has achieved high single-digit growth rates through government-led infrastructure expansion and commercial agriculture development. Ethiopia in late 2014 issued its first sovereign bond, generating \$1 billion in revenue for a 10-year note.

As of 2015, the IMF ranked Ethiopia as among the world's five fastest growing economies. After a decade of continuous expansion, the economy grew for its 11th consecutive year in 2013/14 with all sectors performing well. In particular, industry rose by 21.2 percent. The positive growth was expected to continue for the coming two years although constraints on private sector development could slow its momentum.

In late September 2015, Black Rhino and a South African-based firm signed framework agreements to build a \$1.55 billion fuel pipeline between Djibouti and Ethiopia. The pipeline was slated for completion in 2018 and was being designed to improve efficiency and safety of importing fuel from the port in Djibouti to Ethiopia.

"The pipeline will increase energy security, aid economic development and reduce harmful emissions," Black Rhino chief executive Brian Herlihy said in a statement, according to Reuters.

In early October 2015, Reuters reported that Ethiopia aimed to triple its number of foreign visitors to more than 2.5 million by 2020, making tourism a pillar of its economy.

Indeed, visitor numbers had risen at least 10 percent a year for the past decade, albeit from a very low base. More than 750,000 tourists came during fiscal year 2014/2015, generating \$2.9 billion for the economy, according to Culture and Tourism Minister Amin Abdulkadir as cited by Reuters.

"There is a lot of demand in terms of bookings and investment plans. Our target is to receive more than 2.5 million in five years time," he told Reuters in an interview.

"This sector will generate foreign direct investment and foreign currency and create job opportunities, as well as contribute to image-building."

To that end, Hilton Worldwide Holdings had just signed a management deal to open its first hotel in Ethiopia in more than four decades.

Economic Performance

After economic contraction in 2002 and 2003 owing to the severe drought, real GDP growth rebounded strongly from 2004 to 2009. The impact of the global economic crisis has been modest, and Ethiopia's economy still grew strongly from 2010 to 2012.

According to CountryWatch estimated calculations for 2014:

Real GDP growth rate was: 7.2 percent

The fiscal deficit/surplus as percent of GDP (%) was: -1.1 percent

Inflation was measured at: 22.7 percent

Updated in 2015

**Please note that the figures in our Economic Performance section are estimates or forecasts based on IMF-based data that are formulated using CountryWatch models of analysis.*

Supplementary Sources: The International Monetary Fund, Reuters, African Development Bank and the Addis Ababa ENA Online in English -- Website of the state-controlled Ethiopian News Agency; URL: <http://www.ena.gov.et>]

Nominal GDP and Components

Nominal GDP and Components					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Nominal GDP (LCU billions)	515.079	747.326	864.673	1,047.39	1,264.64
Nominal GDP Growth Rate (%)	33.483	45.090	15.702	21.132	20.742

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Consumption (LCU billions)	373.088	541.536	626.774	728.373	973.279
Government Expenditure (LCU billions)	53.147	62.044	71.704	83.305	111.315
Gross Capital Formation (LCU billions)	165.380	277.244	309.527	421.786	499.509
Exports of Goods & Services (LCU billions)	85.950	102.887	107.969	122.632	137.249
Imports of Goods & Services (LCU billions)	162.487	236.385	251.301	308.703	456.709

Population and GDP Per Capita

Population and GDP Per Capita					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Population, total (million)	84.238	85.586	86.955	88.347	89.760
Population growth (%)	1.599	1.600	1.600	1.601	1.599
Nominal GDP per Capita (LCU 1000s)	6,114.56	8,731.88	9,943.92	11,855.44	14,089.16

Real GDP and Inflation

Real GDP and Inflation					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Real Gross Domestic Product (LCU billions 2005 base)	475.647	517.027	567.803	626.559	680.864
Real GDP Growth Rate (%)	11.405	8.700	9.821	10.348	8.667
GDP Deflator (2005=100.0)	108.290	144.543	152.284	167.166	185.741
Inflation, GDP Deflator (%)	19.818	33.478	5.355	9.773	11.112

Government Spending and Taxation

Government Spending and Taxation					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Government Fiscal Budget (billions)	93.889	124.417	153.929	185.472	238.113
Fiscal Budget Growth Rate (percentage)	31.617	32.515	23.720	20.492	28.382
National Tax Rate Net of Transfers (%)	16.621	15.476	15.866	15.093	16.066
Government Revenues Net of Transfers (LCU billions)	85.611	115.659	137.192	158.078	203.178
Government Surplus(-) Deficit(+) (LCU billions)	-8.2780	-8.7580	-16.7370	-27.3940	-34.9350
Government Surplus(+) Deficit(-) (%GDP)	-1.6071	-1.1719	-1.9356	-2.6154	-2.7624

Money Supply, Interest Rates and Unemployment

Money Supply, Interest Rates and Unemployment					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Money and Quasi-Money (M2) (LCU billions)	159.659	197.003	243.081	299.937	362.150
Money Supply Growth Rate (%)	23.390	23.390	23.390	23.390	20.742
Lending Interest Rate (%)	12.625	14.419	10.726	11.306	16.261
Unemployment Rate (%)	18.000	17.600	17.539	17.448	15.926

Foreign Trade and the Exchange Rate

Foreign Trade and the Exchange Rate					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Official Exchange Rate (LCU/\$US)	16.117	17.326	18.191	19.110	20.067
Trade Balance NIPA (\$US billions)	-4.7487	-7.7052	-7.8791	-9.7369	-15.9199
Trade Balance % of GDP	-14.8593	-17.8634	-16.5764	-17.7651	-25.2609
Total Foreign Exchange Reserves (\$US billions)	7.453	15.248	31.195	63.819	25.445

Data in US Dollars

Data in US Dollars					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Nominal GDP (\$US billions)	31.958	43.134	47.532	54.809	63.022
Exports (\$US billions)	5.333	5.938	5.935	6.417	6.840
Imports (\$US billions)	10.081	13.644	13.814	16.154	22.760

Energy Consumption and Production Standard Units

Energy Consumption and Production Standard Units					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Petroleum Consumption (TBPD)	48.507	52.425	51.000	52.373	55.277
Petroleum Production (TBPD)	0.1000	0.0993	0.0997	0.0978	0.0995
Petroleum Net Exports (TBPD)	-48.4067	-52.3261	-50.9003	-52.2750	-55.1778
Natural Gas Consumption (bcf)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Natural Gas Production (bcf)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Natural Gas Net Exports (bcf)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Consumption (1000s st)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Production (1000s st)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Net Exports (1000s st)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Nuclear Production (bil kwh)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Hydroelectric Production (bil kwh)	6.199	6.549	6.843	7.131	7.472
Renewables Production (bil kwh)	0.0183	0.0453	0.0565	0.0705	0.0776

Energy Consumption and Production QUADS

Energy Consumption and Production QUADS					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Petroleum Consumption (Quads)	0.1036	0.1119	0.1089	0.1118	0.1180
Petroleum Production (Quads)	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002
Petroleum Net Exports (Quads)	-0.1034	-0.1117	-0.1087	-0.1116	-0.1179
Natural Gas Consumption (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Natural Gas Production (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Natural Gas Net Exports (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Consumption (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Production (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Net Exports (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Nuclear Production (Quads)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Hydroelectric Production (Quads)	0.0620	0.0655	0.0684	0.0713	0.0747
Renewables Production (Quads)	0.0002	0.0005	0.0006	0.0007	0.0008

World Energy Price Summary

World Energy Price Summary					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Petroleum-WTI (\$/bbl)	95.054	94.159	97.943	93.112	48.709
Natural Gas-Henry Hub (\$/mmbtu)	3.999	2.752	3.729	4.369	2.614
Coal Thermal-Australian (\$/mt)	121.448	96.364	84.562	70.130	57.511

CO2 Emissions

CO2 Emissions					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Petroleum Based (mm mt C)	2.314	2.501	2.433	2.498	2.637
Natural Gas Based (mm mt C)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Coal Based (mm mt C)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Total CO2 Emissions (mm mt C)	2.314	2.501	2.433	2.498	2.637

Agriculture Consumption and Production

Agriculture Consumption and Production					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Corn Total Consumption (1000 metric tons)	6,016.89	6,196.98	6,501.18	7,245.26	7,537.82
Corn Production (1000 metric tons)	6,058.16	6,139.59	6,465.09	7,345.63	6,846.18
Corn Net Exports (1000 metric tons)	41.273	-57.3956	-36.0862	100.370	-691.6388
Soybeans Total Consumption (1000 metric tons)	36.282	59.796	19.101	30.208	30.468
Soybeans Production (1000 metric tons)	35.927	63.538	60.655	71.016	66.905
Soybeans Net Exports (1000 metric tons)	-0.3550	3.742	41.554	40.808	36.438
Rice Total					

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Consumption (1000 metric tons)	112.893	125.254	110.114	150.892	153.140
Rice Production (1000 metric tons)	88.679	121.040	92.323	131.769	129.785
Rice Net Exports (1000 metric tons)	-24.2141	-4.2142	-17.7917	-19.1225	-23.3552
Coffee Total Consumption (metric tons)	217,752.00	71,906.00	51,090.00	21,629.16	22,960.96
Coffee Production (metric tons)	364,612.70	266,364.93	264,402.24	240,555.62	217,922.83
Coffee Net Exports (metric tons)	146,860.70	194,458.93	213,312.24	218,926.46	194,961.87
Cocoa Beans Total Consumption (metric tons)	7.560	9.524	12.000	15.119	16.401
Cocoa Beans Production (metric tons)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Cocoa Beans Net Exports (metric tons)	-7.5595	-9.5244	-12.0000	-15.1191	-16.4012

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Wheat Total Consumption (1000 metric tons)	4,569.62	5,002.88	5,539.07	5,819.71	5,503.95
Wheat Production (1000 metric tons)	2,909.86	3,452.89	3,919.03	4,245.54	3,749.48
Wheat Net Exports (1000 metric tons)	-1659.7605	-1549.9918	-1620.0460	-1574.1711	-1754.4688

World Agriculture Pricing Summary

World Agriculture Pricing Summary					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Corn Pricing Summary (\$/metric ton)	291.684	298.417	259.389	192.881	169.750
Soybeans Pricing Summary (\$/metric ton)	540.667	591.417	538.417	491.771	390.417
Rice Pricing Summary (\$/metric ton)	458.558	525.071	473.989	425.148	386.033
Coffee Pricing Summary (\$/kilogram)	5.976	4.111	3.076	4.424	3.526
Cocoa Beans Pricing Summary (\$/kilogram)	2.980	2.392	2.439	3.062	3.135
Wheat Pricing Summary (\$/metric ton)	316.264	313.242	312.248	284.895	203.177

Metals Consumption and Production

Metals Consumption and Production					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Copper Consumption (1000 mt)	1.447	4.008	581.639	1,045.00	1,029.66
Copper Production (1000 mt)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Copper Net Exports (1000 mt)	-1.4470	-4.0080	-581.6390	-1045.0040	-1029.6552
Zinc Consumption (1000 mt)	8,638.84	7,270.89	10,417.58	11,694.14	11,961.30
Zinc Production (1000 mt)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Zinc Exports (1000 mt)	-8638.8410	-7270.8900	-10417.5820	-11694.1380	-11961.3021
Lead Consumption (1000 mt)	151.478	151.478	155.423	186.459	178.126
Lead Production (1000 mt)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Lead Exports (1000 mt)	-151.4785	-151.4785	-155.4230	-186.4590	-178.1261
Tin Consumption (1000 mt)	2.900	23.175	60.312	0.7046	0.7370
Tin Production (1000 mt)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Tin Exports (1000 mt)	-2.9000	-23.1750	-60.3120	-0.7046	-0.7370
Nickel Consumption (1000 mt)	0.1661	0.0900	0.4390	0.0710	0.0643
Nickel Production (1000 mt)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Nickel Exports (1000 mt)	-0.1661	-0.0900	-0.4390	-0.0710	-0.0643
Gold Consumption (kg)	7,772.00	8,163.00	29,699.00	91,524.35	91,766.44
Gold Production (kg)	12,307.65	13,742.12	14,109.82	17,127.29	17,159.72
Gold Exports (kg)	4,535.65	5,579.12	-15589.1848	-74397.0637	-74606.7211

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Silver Consumption (mt)	5,901.00	3,031.00	3,010.00	13,286.00	12,424.29
Silver Production (mt)	2,517.90	2,520.48	2,532.21	2,525.05	2,317.86
Silver Exports (mt)	-3383.1031	-510.5225	-477.7855	-10760.9453	-10106.4282

World Metals Pricing Summary

World Metals Pricing Summary					
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Copper (\$/mt)	8,828.19	7,962.35	7,332.10	6,863.40	5,510.46
Zinc (\$/mt)	2,193.90	1,950.41	1,910.26	2,160.97	1,931.68
Tin (\$/mt)	26,053.68	21,125.99	22,282.80	21,898.87	16,066.63
Lead (\$/mt)	2,400.81	2,064.64	2,139.79	2,095.46	1,787.82
Nickel (\$/mt)	22,910.36	17,547.55	15,031.80	16,893.38	11,862.64
Gold (\$/oz)	1,569.21	1,669.52	1,411.46	1,265.58	1,160.66
Silver (\$/oz)	35.224	31.137	23.850	19.071	15.721

Economic Performance Index

Economic Performance Index

The Economic Performance rankings are calculated by CountryWatch's editorial team, and are based on criteria including sustained economic growth, monetary stability, current account deficits, budget surplus, unemployment and structural imbalances. Scores are assessed from 0 to 100 using this aforementioned criteria as well as CountryWatch's proprietary economic research data and models.

	Bank stability risk	Monetary/ Currency stability	Government Finances	Empl./ Unempl.	Econ.GNP growth or decline/ forecast
	0 - 100	0 - 100	0 - 100	0 - 100	%
North Americas					
Canada	92	69	35	38	3.14%
United States	94	76	4	29	3.01%
Western Europe					
Austria	90	27	30	63	1.33%
Belgium	88	27	19	23	1.15%
Cyprus	81	91	16	80	-0.69%
Denmark	97	70	45	78	1.20%
Finland	89	27	41	33	1.25%

France	87	27	18	27	1.52%
Germany	86	27	22	21	1.25%
Greece	79	27	5	24	-2.00%
Iceland	90	17	2	34	-3.04%
Italy	85	27	37	24	0.84%
Ireland	92	27	11	10	-1.55%
Luxembourg	99	27	28	66	2.08%
Malta	77	27	41	51	0.54%
Netherlands	91	27	26	74	1.30%
Norway	98	44	10	76	1.08%
Portugal	77	27	13	20	0.29%
Spain	83	27	9	3	-0.41%
Sweden	94	72	54	32	1.23%
Switzerland	97	86	55	77	1.53%
United Kingdom	85	12	9	37	1.34%
Central and Eastern Europe					
Albania	44	60	33	6	2.30%
Armenia	45	59	49	30	1.80%

Azerbaijan	56	4	84	99	2.68%
Belarus	59	21	83	98	2.41%
Bosnia and Herzegovina	34	68	69	N/A	0.50%
Bulgaria	58	75	88	49	0.20%
Croatia	69	68	94	9	0.18%
Czech Republic	80	89	29	70	1.67%
Estonia	72	90	66	92	0.80%
Georgia	36	60	53	56	2.00%
Hungary	70	66	26	54	-0.16%
Latvia	67	100	65	44	-3.97%
Lithuania	65	91	87	79	-1.65%
Macedonia (FYR)	53	69	56	2	2.03%
Moldova	23	36	81	67	2.50%
Poland	74	74	38	12	2.72%
Romania	62	56	70	62	0.75%
Russia	73	18	90	8	4.00%
Serbia	48	49	52	5	1.97%

Montenegro	39	27	73	1	-1.70%
Slovak Republic	80	62	30	14	4.06%
Slovenia	81	27	36	65	1.12%
Ukraine	41	11	57	N/A	3.68%
Africa					
Algeria	57	18	96	7	4.55%
Angola	49	1	97	N/A	7.05%
Benin	19	91	20	N/A	3.22%
Botswana	68	58	76	N/A	6.33%
Burkina Faso	16	91	13	N/A	4.41%
Burundi	2	91	6	N/A	3.85%
Cameroon	26	91	91	N/A	2.58%
Cape Verde	52	87	4	N/A	4.96%
Central African Republic	9	91	32	N/A	3.18%
Chad	22	91	89	N/A	4.42%
Congo	52	87	87	N/A	12.13%
Côte d'Ivoire	25	91	82	28	2.98%
Dem. Republic					

Congo	4	91	47	N/A	5.44%
Djibouti	31	76	50	N/A	4.47%
Egypt	37	20	24	69	5.01%
Equatorial Guinea	82	91	85	N/A	0.94%
Eritrea	1	3	1	18	1.81%
Ethiopia	6	45	8	N/A	6.96%
Gabon	64	91	96	N/A	5.36%
Gambia	8	48	86	N/A	4.82%
Ghana	9	11	69	N/A	4.50%
Guinea	10	7	91	N/A	3.03%
Guinea-Bissau	5	91	46	N/A	3.47%
Kenya	20	41	59	N/A	4.11%
Lesotho	13	40	12	N/A	2.98%
Liberia	12	73	74	N/A	5.92%
Libya	73	2	94	N/A	5.22%
Madagascar	4	22	24	N/A	-1.02%
Malawi	7	25	55	N/A	5.96%
Mali	20	91	82	N/A	5.12%

Mauritania	15	13	93	N/A	4.58%
Mauritius	65	52	56	55	4.10%
Morocco	37	72	48	26	3.23%
Mozambique	12	23	71	N/A	6.45%
Namibia	40	39	62	N/A	1.70%
Niger	10	91	21	N/A	4.41%
Nigeria	30	6	61	N/A	6.98%
Rwanda	21	40	68	N/A	5.39%
Sao Tome & Principe	1	61	100	N/A	3.40%
Senegal	24	91	63	N/A	3.44%
Seychelles	60	67	97	N/A	4.01%
Sierra Leone	5	10	39	N/A	4.77%
Somalia	2	38	59	N/A	3.19%
South Africa	61	37	70	N/A	2.59%
Sudan	16	5	73	N/A	5.52%
Swaziland	32	44	79	N/A	1.09%
Tanzania	15	45	32	N/A	6.17%
Togo	8	91	92	N/A	2.56%

Tunisia	50	61	44	39	4.00%
Uganda	11	17	54	N/A	5.59%
Zambia	29	20	49	N/A	5.84%
Zimbabwe	0	8	16	N/A	2.24%
South and Central America					
Argentina	66	3	80	36	3.50%
Belize	47	76	80	N/A	1.00%
Bolivia	32	51	61	81	3.99%
Brazil	71	47	78	11	5.50%
Chile	78	25	92	73	4.72%
Columbia	47	52	34	47	2.25%
Costa Rica	60	42	39	57	3.45%
Ecuador	43	76	75	64	2.51%
El Salvador	35	76	67	N/A	1.04%
Guatemala	46	59	58	N/A	2.52%
Honduras	27	47	58	N/A	2.00%
Mexico	69	42	52	61	4.07%
Nicaragua	23	49	42	N/A	1.75%

Panama	66	76	72	45	5.00%
Paraguay	35	46	66	16	5.27%
Peru	59	66	75	22	6.33%
Suriname	58	26	81	59	4.02%
Uruguay	70	26	27	N/A	5.71%
Venezuela	55	1	28	13	-2.63%
Caribbean					
Antigua & Barbuda	72	76	15	N/A	-2.01%
Bahamas	74	76	45	87	-0.50%
Barbados	67	76	33	15	-0.50%
Bermuda	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cuba	45	76	18	95	0.25%
Dominica	53	76	65	N/A	1.40%
Dominican Republic	54	39	43	4	3.50%
Grenada	63	76	48	N/A	0.80%
Guyana	28	56	17	N/A	4.36%
Haiti	11	27	89	N/A	-8.50%
Jamaica	42	9	85	19	-0.28%

St Lucia	55	76	67	N/A	1.14%
St Vincent & Grenadines	49	76	95	N/A	0.50%
Trinidad & Tobago	82	37	77	72	2.13%
Middle East					
Bahrain	84	76	62	91	3.48%
Iran	51	19	40	58	3.01%
Iraq	48	9	8	N/A	7.27%
Israel	87	62	12	48	3.20%
Jordan	41	51	3	N/A	4.10%
Kuwait	96	4	99	N/A	3.10%
Lebanon	63	54	2	N/A	6.00%
Oman	76	16	88	N/A	4.71%
Qatar	99	16	83	N/A	18.54%
Saudi Arabia	76	8	98	N/A	3.70%
Syria	61	24	40	N/A	5.00%
Turkey	75	23	27	60	5.20%
United Arab Emirates	96	24	98	94	1.29%

Yemen	28	2	78	N/A	7.78%
Asia					
Afghanistan	17	70	74	N/A	8.64%
Bangladesh	13	43	25	N/A	5.38%
Bhutan	24	55	5	N/A	6.85%
Brunei	78	19	99	75	0.48%
Cambodia	18	67	42	N/A	4.77%
China	54	90	19	68	11.03%
Hong Kong	89	76	14	82	5.02%
India	31	38	34	35	8.78%
Indonesia	42	46	37	31	6.00%
Japan	88	89	6	71	1.90%
Kazakhstan	62	13	76	42	2.40%
Korea North	18	65	23	N/A	1.50%
Korea South	83	63	22	85	4.44%
Kyrgyz Republic	24	15	84	88	4.61%
Laos	17	54	7	N/A	7.22%
Macao	91	76	14	82	3.00%

Malaysia	68	65	44	90	4.72%
Maldives	44	55	17	N/A	3.45%
Mongolia	33	5	77	93	7.22%
Myanmar	3	41	72	N/A	5.26%
Nepal	3	14	25	N/A	2.97%
Pakistan	19	15	31	41	3.00%
Papua New Guinea	75	50	11	N/A	7.96%
Philippines	30	48	53	43	3.63%
Singapore	93	75	63	40	5.68%
Sri Lanka	38	22	10	N/A	5.50%
Taiwan	84	88	35	89	6.50%
Tajikistan	6	6	60	97	4.00%
Thailand	56	64	90	96	5.46%
Turkmenistan	51	53	68	N/A	12.00%
Uzbekistan	40	10	60	100	8.00%
Vietnam	25	12	20	N/A	6.04%
Pacific					
Australia	96	63	31	46	2.96%

Fiji	46	53	3	N/A	2.06%
Marshall Islands	27	76	46	N/A	1.08%
Micronesia (Fed. States)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Caledonia	96	73	51	52	2.00%
New Zealand	98	73	51	52	2.00%
Samoa	34	88	64	N/A	-2.77%
Solomon Islands	14	71	1	N/A	3.36%
Tonga	26	57	38	N/A	0.60%
Vanuatu	33	58	47	N/A	3.80%

Source:

CountryWatch Inc. www.countrywatch.com

Updated:

This material was produced in 2010; it is subject to updating in 2012.

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Chapter 4

Investment Overview

Foreign Investment Climate

Background

Ethiopia's poverty-stricken economy is based on agriculture, accounting for about 45 percent of GDP, and 85 percent of total employment. The agricultural sector suffers from frequent drought and poor cultivation practices. Coffee is critical to the Ethiopian economy but historically low prices have seen many farmers switching to qat to supplement income. The war with Eritrea in 1998-2000 and recurrent drought have buffeted the economy in particular coffee production. In November 2001, Ethiopia qualified for debt relief from the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative, and in December 2005 the IMF forgave Ethiopia's debt. Under Ethiopia's constitution, the state owns all land and provides long-term leases to the tenants; the system continues to hamper growth in the industrial sector as entrepreneurs are unable to use land as collateral for loans.

Foreign Investment Assessment

Openness to Foreign Investment

The government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (GFDRE) is committed to ensuring that private capital plays a significant role in the economy. To this end, it has eliminated discriminatory tax, credit, and foreign trade treatment of the private sector, simplified administrative procedures, and established a clear and consistent set of rules regulating business activities.

In June 1996, the Ethiopian government issued a revised investment code that, inter alia, provides incentives for development-related investments, reduces capital entry requirements for joint ventures and technical consultancy services, creates incentives in the education and health sectors, permits the duty free entry of capital goods except computers and vehicles), opens the real estate sector to expatriate investors, extends the losses carried forward provision, cuts the capital gains tax from 40 to 10 percent, and gives priority to investors in obtaining land for lease.

The investment code prohibits foreign firm participation in the domestic banking or insurance services. Other areas of investment reserved for Ethiopian nationals include air transport services for more than 20 passengers or for cargo above 2700 kilograms, forwarding and shipping agency services, rail transport services, and non-courier postal services. Professional service providers

must be licensed by the government to practice in Ethiopia.

Amendments to Ethiopia's investment proclamation issued in September 1998 allow Ethiopian expatriates and permanent residents to participate in areas formerly reserved for Ethiopian nationals. Although the investment code amendments maintained the exclusion on foreign participation in financial services (banking and insurance) and the other services, they opened several formerly prohibited sectors to foreign investment: telecommunications, hydro-electric power generation (below 25 megawatts), and defense. Investment in telecommunications and defense, however, must be "in partnership with the Ethiopian government." Another provision expands the list of services open to foreign investment to include engineering, architecture, accounting, auditing, and business consultancies.

The Ethiopian government reviews investment proposals in a non-discriminatory manner; the screening process is not regarded as an impediment to investment, a limit to competition, or a means of protecting domestic interests.

Foreign firms are welcome to invest in privatization efforts of the Ethiopian government, although in some instances the government promotes joint ventures with Ethiopian private concerns rather than outright sales. Foreign firms participate through consultancy services preparatory to privatization or through tendering on advertised privatization opportunities. Ethiopia is progressing slowly toward its stated goal of relinquishing most, if not all, of its state-owned firms. To date, Ethiopia has privatized approximately 180 properties, mostly small enterprises in trade and other service sectors. In November 1998, the Ethiopian privatization agency published a list of 114 other firms to be divested in the near future, including breweries, hotels, textile and garment factories, construction and building materials industries, food factories, tanneries, and cotton, tea, and cereal farms. None of Ethiopia's utilities have been privatized to date, though the government is looking for foreign investor partners in telecommunications.

There are no discriminatory or excessively onerous visas, residence, or work permit requirements regarding foreign investors. Foreign investors do not face unfavorable tax treatment, denial of licenses, discriminatory import or export policies, or inequitable tariff and non-tariff barriers.

Transparency of Regulatory System

Ethiopia's regulatory system is considered fair and honest, but not necessarily open to outside examination.

Labor Force

Total: N/A

By occupation: agriculture and animal husbandry 80%, industry and construction 8%, government

and services 12%

Agriculture and Industry

Agriculture products: cereals, pulses, coffee, oilseed, sugarcane, potatoes, qat; hides, cattle, sheep, goats

Industries: food processing, beverages, textiles, chemicals, metals processing, cement

Import Commodities and Partners

Commodities: food and live animals, petroleum and petroleum products, chemicals, machinery, motor vehicles, cereals, textiles

Partners: Saudi Arabia 24.2%, US 17.1%, China 6.4%, Italy 4.1%

Export Commodities and Partners

Commodities: coffee, qat, gold, leather products, live animals, oilseeds

Partners: Djibouti 13.2%, Germany 11.3%, Saudi Arabia 6.9%, Japan 6.7%, Italy 6.4%, US 5%

Telephone System

Telephones- main lines in use: 435,000

Telephones- mobile cellular: 97,800

General Assessment: adequate for government use

Domestic: open-wire; microwave radio relay; radio communication in the HF, VHF, and UHF frequencies; two domestic satellites provide the national trunk service

International: country code - 251; open-wire to Sudan and Djibouti; microwave radio relay to Kenya and Djibouti; satellite earth stations - 3 Intelsat (1 Atlantic Ocean and 2 Pacific Ocean)

Internet

Internet Hosts: 9

Internet users: 75,000

Roads, Airports, Ports and Harbors

Railways: 681 km

Highways: 33,297 km

Ports and harbors: none- Ethiopia is landlocked

Airports: 83; w/paved runways: 14

Legal System and Considerations

Ethiopia's legal system is currently a transitional mix of national and regional courts.

Dispute Settlement

According to the investment proclamation, disputes arising out of foreign investment, which involve a foreign investor or the state, may be settled by means agreeable to both parties. A dispute that cannot be settled amicably may be submitted to a competent Ethiopian court or to international arbitration within the framework of any bilateral or multilateral agreement to which the government and the investor's state of origin are contracting parties. No such investment disputes are known to have occurred in recent years.

Ethiopia's judicial system remains underdeveloped, although efforts are underway to strengthen its capacity. While property and contractual rights are recognized, and there are written commercial and bankruptcy laws, there is thus far no experience by which to judge the level of acceptance of foreign court rulings.

Corruption Perception Ranking

See Corruption Perception index reported by Transparency International elsewhere in this report, from least to most corrupt countries. Typically, Ethiopia is ranked as of the most corrupt nations in the world (according to this index).

Cultural Considerations

In Ethiopia, one should take care to adhere to several cultural norms. For example, one should make sure to eat with the right hand. One should also be aware that though tipping is fine when dining out, over tipping is frowned upon and should not be done.

For more information see:

United States' State Department Commercial Guide

Foreign Investment Index

Foreign Investment Index

The Foreign Investment Index is a proprietary index measuring attractiveness to international investment flows. The Foreign Investment Index is calculated using an established methodology by CountryWatch's Editor-in-Chief and is based on a given country's economic stability (sustained economic growth, monetary stability, current account deficits, budget surplus), economic risk (risk of non-servicing of payments for goods or services, loans and trade-related finance, risk of sovereign default), business and investment climate (property rights, labor force and laws, regulatory transparency, openness to foreign investment, market conditions, and stability of government). Scores are assigned from 0-10 using the aforementioned criteria. A score of 0 marks the lowest level of foreign investment viability, while a score of 10 marks the highest level of foreign investment viability, according to this proprietary index.

Country	Assessment
Afghanistan	2
Albania	4.5
Algeria	6
Andorra	9
Angola	4.5-5
Antigua	8.5
Argentina	5
Armenia	5
Australia	9.5

Austria	9-9.5
Azerbaijan	5
Bahamas	9
Bahrain	7.5
Bangladesh	4.5
Barbados	9
Belarus	4
Belgium	9
Belize	7.5
Benin	5.5
Bhutan	4.5
Bolivia	4.5
Bosnia-Herzegovina	5
Botswana	7.5-8
Brazil	8
Brunei	7
Bulgaria	5.5
Burkina Faso	4

Burma (Myanmar)	4.5
Burundi	4
Cambodia	4.5
Cameroon	5
Canada	9.5
Cape Verde	6
Central African Republic	3
Chad	4
Chile	9
China	7.5
China: Hong Kong	8.5
China: Taiwan	8.5
Colombia	7
Comoros	4
Congo DRC	4
Congo RC	5
Costa Rica	8
Cote d'Ivoire	4.5

Croatia	7
Cuba	4.5
Cyprus	7
Czech Republic	8.5
Denmark	9.5
Djibouti	4.5
Dominica	6
Dominican Republic	6.5
East Timor	4.5
Ecuador	5.5
Egypt	4.5-5
El Salvador	6
Equatorial Guinea	4.5
Eritrea	3.5
Estonia	8
Ethiopia	4.5
Fiji	5
Finland	9

Former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	5
France	9-9.5
Gabon	5.5
Gambia	5
Georgia	5
Germany	9-9.5
Ghana	5.5
Greece	5
Grenada	7.5
Guatemala	5.5
Guinea	3.5
Guinea-Bissau	3.5
Guyana	4.5
Haiti	4
Holy See (Vatican)	n/a
Hong Kong (China)	8.5
Honduras	5.5
Hungary	8

Iceland	8-8.5
India	8
Indonesia	5.5
Iran	4
Iraq	3
Ireland	8
Israel	8.5
Italy	8
Jamaica	5.5
Japan	9.5
Jordan	6
Kazakhstan	6
Kenya	5
Kiribati	5.5
Korea, North	1
Korea, South	9
Kosovo	4.5
Kuwait	8.5

Kyrgyzstan	4.5
Laos	4
Latvia	7
Lebanon	5
Lesotho	5.5
Liberia	3.5
Libya	3
Liechtenstein	9
Lithuania	7.5
Luxembourg	9-9.5
Madagascar	4.5
Malawi	4.5
Malaysia	8.5
Maldives	6.5
Mali	5
Malta	9
Marshall Islands	5
Mauritania	4.5

Mauritius	7.5-8
Mexico	6.5-7
Micronesia	5
Moldova	4.5-5
Monaco	9
Mongolia	5
Montenegro	5.5
Morocco	7.5
Mozambique	5
Namibia	7.5
Nauru	4.5
Nepal	4
Netherlands	9-9.5
New Zealand	9.5
Nicaragua	5
Niger	4.5
Nigeria	4.5
Norway	9-9.5

Oman	8
Pakistan	4
Palau	4.5-5
Panama	7
Papua New Guinea	5
Paraguay	6
Peru	6
Philippines	6
Poland	8
Portugal	7.5-8
Qatar	9
Romania	6-6.5
Russia	6
Rwanda	4
Saint Kitts and Nevis	8
Saint Lucia	8
Saint Vincent and Grenadines	7
Samoa	7

San Marino	8.5
Sao Tome and Principe	4.5-5
Saudi Arabia	7
Senegal	6
Serbia	6
Seychelles	5
Sierra Leone	4
Singapore	9.5
Slovak Republic (Slovakia)	8.5
Slovenia	8.5-9
Solomon Islands	5
Somalia	2
South Africa	8
Spain	7.5-8
Sri Lanka	5.5
Sudan	4
Suriname	5
Swaziland	4.5

Sweden	9.5
Switzerland	9.5
Syria	2.5
Tajikistan	4
Taiwan (China)	8.5
Tanzania	5
Thailand	7.5-8
Togo	4.5-5
Tonga	5.5-6
Trinidad and Tobago	8-8.5
Tunisia	6
Turkey	6.5-7
Turkmenistan	4
Tuvalu	7
Uganda	5
Ukraine	4.5-5
United Arab Emirates	8.5
United Kingdom	9

United States	9
Uruguay	6.5-7
Uzbekistan	4
Vanuatu	6
Venezuela	5
Vietnam	5.5
Yemen	3
Zambia	4.5-5
Zimbabwe	3.5

Editor's Note:

As of 2015, the global economic crisis (emerging in 2008) had affected many countries across the world, resulting in changes to their rankings. Among those countries affected were top tier economies, such as the [United Kingdom](#), [Iceland](#), [Switzerland](#) and [Austria](#). However, in all these cases, their rankings have moved back upward in the last couple of years as anxieties have eased. Other top tier countries, such as [Spain](#), [Portugal](#), [Ireland](#), and [Italy](#), suffered some effects due to debt woes and the concomitant effect on the euro zone. Greece, another euro zone nation, was also downgraded due to its sovereign debt crisis; however, Greece's position on the precipice of default incurred a sharper downgrade than the other four euro zone countries mentioned above. Cyprus' exposure to Greek bank yielded a downgrade in its case. Slovenia and [Latvia](#) have been slightly downgraded due to a mix of economic and political concerns but could easily be upgraded in a future assessment, should these concerns abate. Meanwhile, the crisis in eastern [Ukraine](#) fueled downgrades in that country and neighboring [Russia](#).

Despite the "trifecta of tragedy" in [Japan](#) in 2011 -- the earthquake, the ensuing tsunami, and the resulting nuclear crisis -- and the appreciable destabilization of the economic and political terrain therein, this country has only slightly been downgraded. Japan's challenges have been assessed to

be transient, the government remains accountable, and there is little risk of default. Both [India](#) and [China](#) retain their rankings; [India](#) holds a slightly higher ranking than [China](#) due to its record of democratic representation and accountability.

There were shifts in opposite directions for [Mali](#) and [Nigeria](#) versus the [Central African Republic](#), [Burkina Faso](#), and [Burundi](#). [Mali](#) was slightly upgraded due to its efforts to return to constitutional order following the 2012 coup and to neutralize the threat of separatists and Islamists. Likewise, a new government in [Nigeria](#) generated a slight upgrade as the country attempts to confront corruption, crime, and terrorism. But the [Central African Republic](#) was downgraded due to the takeover of the government by Seleka rebels and the continued decline into lawlessness in that country. Likewise, the attempts by the leaders of [Burundi](#) and [Burkina Faso](#) to hold onto power by by-passing the constitution raised eyebrows and resulted in downgrades.

Political unrest in [Libya](#) and [Algeria](#) have contributed to a decision to marginally downgrade these countries as well. [Syria](#) incurred a sharper downgrade due to the devolution into de facto civil war and the dire security threat posed by Islamist terrorists. [Iraq](#) saw a similar downgrade as a result of the takeover of wide swaths of territory and the threat of genocide at the hands of Islamist terrorists. [Yemen](#), likewise, has been downgraded due to political instability at the hands of secessionists, terrorists, Houthi rebels, and the intervention of external parties. Conversely, [Egypt](#) and [Tunisia](#) saw slight upgrades as their political environments stabilize.

At the low end of the spectrum, devolving security conditions and/or economic crisis have resulted in countries like [Pakistan](#), [Afghanistan](#), [Somalia](#), and [Zimbabwe](#) maintaining their low ratings.

The [United States](#) continues to retain its previous slight downgrade due to the enduring threat of default surrounding the debt ceiling in that country, matched by a conflict-ridden political climate. In the case of [Mexico](#), there is limited concern about default, but increasing alarm over the security situation in that country and the government's ability to contain it. In [Argentina](#), a default to bond holders resulted in a downgrade to that country. Finally, a small but significant upgrade was attributed to [Cuba](#) due to its recent pro-business reforms and its normalization of ties with the United States.

Source:

CountryWatch Inc. www.countrywatch.com

Updated:

2015

Corruption Perceptions Index

Corruption Perceptions Index

Transparency International: [Corruption Perceptions Index](#)

Editor's Note:

Transparency International's [Corruption Perceptions Index](#) is a composite index which ranks countries in terms of the degree to which corruption is perceived to exist among public officials. This index indicates the views of national and international business people and analysts about the levels of corruption in each country. The highest (and best) level of transparency is indicated by the number, 10. The lower (and worse) levels of transparency are indicated by lower numbers.

Rank	Country/Territory	CPI 2009 Score	Surveys Used	Confidence Range
1	New Zealand	9.4	6	9.1 - 9.5
2	Denmark	9.3	6	9.1 - 9.5
3	Singapore	9.2	9	9.0 - 9.4
3	Sweden	9.2	6	9.0 - 9.3
5	Switzerland	9.0	6	8.9 - 9.1
6	Finland	8.9	6	8.4 - 9.4
6	Netherlands	8.9	6	8.7 - 9.0
8	Australia	8.7	8	8.3 - 9.0
8	Canada	8.7	6	8.5 - 9.0

8	Iceland	8.7	4	7.5 - 9.4
11	Norway	8.6	6	8.2 - 9.1
12	Hong Kong	8.2	8	7.9 - 8.5
12	Luxembourg	8.2	6	7.6 - 8.8
14	Germany	8.0	6	7.7 - 8.3
14	Ireland	8.0	6	7.8 - 8.4
16	Austria	7.9	6	7.4 - 8.3
17	Japan	7.7	8	7.4 - 8.0
17	United Kingdom	7.7	6	7.3 - 8.2
19	United States	7.5	8	6.9 - 8.0
20	Barbados	7.4	4	6.6 - 8.2
21	Belgium	7.1	6	6.9 - 7.3
22	Qatar	7.0	6	5.8 - 8.1
22	Saint Lucia	7.0	3	6.7 - 7.5
24	France	6.9	6	6.5 - 7.3
25	Chile	6.7	7	6.5 - 6.9
25	Uruguay	6.7	5	6.4 - 7.1
27	Cyprus	6.6	4	6.1 - 7.1

27	Estonia	6.6	8	6.1 - 6.9
27	Slovenia	6.6	8	6.3 - 6.9
30	United Arab Emirates	6.5	5	5.5 - 7.5
31	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	6.4	3	4.9 - 7.5
32	Israel	6.1	6	5.4 - 6.7
32	Spain	6.1	6	5.5 - 6.6
34	Dominica	5.9	3	4.9 - 6.7
35	Portugal	5.8	6	5.5 - 6.2
35	Puerto Rico	5.8	4	5.2 - 6.3
37	Botswana	5.6	6	5.1 - 6.3
37	Taiwan	5.6	9	5.4 - 5.9
39	Brunei Darussalam	5.5	4	4.7 - 6.4
39	Oman	5.5	5	4.4 - 6.5
39	Korea (South)	5.5	9	5.3 - 5.7
42	Mauritius	5.4	6	5.0 - 5.9
43	Costa Rica	5.3	5	4.7 - 5.9
43	Macau	5.3	3	3.3 - 6.9
45	Malta	5.2	4	4.0 - 6.2

46	Bahrain	5.1	5	4.2 - 5.8
46	Cape Verde	5.1	3	3.3 - 7.0
46	Hungary	5.1	8	4.6 - 5.7
49	Bhutan	5.0	4	4.3 - 5.6
49	Jordan	5.0	7	3.9 - 6.1
49	Poland	5.0	8	4.5 - 5.5
52	Czech Republic	4.9	8	4.3 - 5.6
52	Lithuania	4.9	8	4.4 - 5.4
54	Seychelles	4.8	3	3.0 - 6.7
55	South Africa	4.7	8	4.3 - 4.9
56	Latvia	4.5	6	4.1 - 4.9
56	Malaysia	4.5	9	4.0 - 5.1
56	Namibia	4.5	6	3.9 - 5.1
56	Samoa	4.5	3	3.3 - 5.3
56	Slovakia	4.5	8	4.1 - 4.9
61	Cuba	4.4	3	3.5 - 5.1
61	Turkey	4.4	7	3.9 - 4.9
63	Italy	4.3	6	3.8 - 4.9

63	Saudi Arabia	4.3	5	3.1 - 5.3
65	Tunisia	4.2	6	3.0 - 5.5
66	Croatia	4.1	8	3.7 - 4.5
66	Georgia	4.1	7	3.4 - 4.7
66	Kuwait	4.1	5	3.2 - 5.1
69	Ghana	3.9	7	3.2 - 4.6
69	Montenegro	3.9	5	3.5 - 4.4
71	Bulgaria	3.8	8	3.2 - 4.5
71	FYR Macedonia	3.8	6	3.4 - 4.2
71	Greece	3.8	6	3.2 - 4.3
71	Romania	3.8	8	3.2 - 4.3
75	Brazil	3.7	7	3.3 - 4.3
75	Colombia	3.7	7	3.1 - 4.3
75	Peru	3.7	7	3.4 - 4.1
75	Suriname	3.7	3	3.0 - 4.7
79	Burkina Faso	3.6	7	2.8 - 4.4
79	China	3.6	9	3.0 - 4.2
79	Swaziland	3.6	3	3.0 - 4.7

79	Trinidad and Tobago	3.6	4	3.0 - 4.3
83	Serbia	3.5	6	3.3 - 3.9
84	El Salvador	3.4	5	3.0 - 3.8
84	Guatemala	3.4	5	3.0 - 3.9
84	India	3.4	10	3.2 - 3.6
84	Panama	3.4	5	3.1 - 3.7
84	Thailand	3.4	9	3.0 - 3.8
89	Lesotho	3.3	6	2.8 - 3.8
89	Malawi	3.3	7	2.7 - 3.9
89	Mexico	3.3	7	3.2 - 3.5
89	Moldova	3.3	6	2.7 - 4.0
89	Morocco	3.3	6	2.8 - 3.9
89	Rwanda	3.3	4	2.9 - 3.7
95	Albania	3.2	6	3.0 - 3.3
95	Vanuatu	3.2	3	2.3 - 4.7
97	Liberia	3.1	3	1.9 - 3.8
97	Sri Lanka	3.1	7	2.8 - 3.4
99	Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.0	7	2.6 - 3.4

99	Dominican Republic	3.0	5	2.9 - 3.2
99	Jamaica	3.0	5	2.8 - 3.3
99	Madagascar	3.0	7	2.8 - 3.2
99	Senegal	3.0	7	2.5 - 3.6
99	Tonga	3.0	3	2.6 - 3.3
99	Zambia	3.0	7	2.8 - 3.2
106	Argentina	2.9	7	2.6 - 3.1
106	Benin	2.9	6	2.3 - 3.4
106	Gabon	2.9	3	2.6 - 3.1
106	Gambia	2.9	5	1.6 - 4.0
106	Niger	2.9	5	2.7 - 3.0
111	Algeria	2.8	6	2.5 - 3.1
111	Djibouti	2.8	4	2.3 - 3.2
111	Egypt	2.8	6	2.6 - 3.1
111	Indonesia	2.8	9	2.4 - 3.2
111	Kiribati	2.8	3	2.3 - 3.3
111	Mali	2.8	6	2.4 - 3.2
111	Sao Tome and Principe	2.8	3	2.4 - 3.3

111	Solomon Islands	2.8	3	2.3 - 3.3
111	Togo	2.8	5	1.9 - 3.9
120	Armenia	2.7	7	2.6 - 2.8
120	Bolivia	2.7	6	2.4 - 3.1
120	Ethiopia	2.7	7	2.4 - 2.9
120	Kazakhstan	2.7	7	2.1 - 3.3
120	Mongolia	2.7	7	2.4 - 3.0
120	Vietnam	2.7	9	2.4 - 3.1
126	Eritrea	2.6	4	1.6 - 3.8
126	Guyana	2.6	4	2.5 - 2.7
126	Syria	2.6	5	2.2 - 2.9
126	Tanzania	2.6	7	2.4 - 2.9
130	Honduras	2.5	6	2.2 - 2.8
130	Lebanon	2.5	3	1.9 - 3.1
130	Libya	2.5	6	2.2 - 2.8
130	Maldives	2.5	4	1.8 - 3.2
130	Mauritania	2.5	7	2.0 - 3.3
130	Mozambique	2.5	7	2.3 - 2.8

130	Nicaragua	2.5	6	2.3 - 2.7
130	Nigeria	2.5	7	2.2 - 2.7
130	Uganda	2.5	7	2.1 - 2.8
139	Bangladesh	2.4	7	2.0 - 2.8
139	Belarus	2.4	4	2.0 - 2.8
139	Pakistan	2.4	7	2.1 - 2.7
139	Philippines	2.4	9	2.1 - 2.7
143	Azerbaijan	2.3	7	2.0 - 2.6
143	Comoros	2.3	3	1.6 - 3.3
143	Nepal	2.3	6	2.0 - 2.6
146	Cameroon	2.2	7	1.9 - 2.6
146	Ecuador	2.2	5	2.0 - 2.5
146	Kenya	2.2	7	1.9 - 2.5
146	Russia	2.2	8	1.9 - 2.4
146	Sierra Leone	2.2	5	1.9 - 2.4
146	Timor-Leste	2.2	5	1.8 - 2.6
146	Ukraine	2.2	8	2.0 - 2.6
146	Zimbabwe	2.2	7	1.7 - 2.8

154	Côte d'Ivoire	2.1	7	1.8 - 2.4
154	Papua New Guinea	2.1	5	1.7 - 2.5
154	Paraguay	2.1	5	1.7 - 2.5
154	Yemen	2.1	4	1.6 - 2.5
158	Cambodia	2.0	8	1.8 - 2.2
158	Central African Republic	2.0	4	1.9 - 2.2
158	Laos	2.0	4	1.6 - 2.6
158	Tajikistan	2.0	8	1.6 - 2.5
162	Angola	1.9	5	1.8 - 1.9
162	Congo Brazzaville	1.9	5	1.6 - 2.1
162	Democratic Republic of Congo	1.9	5	1.7 - 2.1
162	Guinea-Bissau	1.9	3	1.8 - 2.0
162	Kyrgyzstan	1.9	7	1.8 - 2.1
162	Venezuela	1.9	7	1.8 - 2.0
168	Burundi	1.8	6	1.6 - 2.0
168	Equatorial Guinea	1.8	3	1.6 - 1.9
168	Guinea	1.8	5	1.7 - 1.8
168	Haiti	1.8	3	1.4 - 2.3

168	Iran	1.8	3	1.7 - 1.9
168	Turkmenistan	1.8	4	1.7 - 1.9
174	Uzbekistan	1.7	6	1.5 - 1.8
175	Chad	1.6	6	1.5 - 1.7
176	Iraq	1.5	3	1.2 - 1.8
176	Sudan	1.5	5	1.4 - 1.7
178	Myanmar	1.4	3	0.9 - 1.8
179	Afghanistan	1.3	4	1.0 - 1.5
180	Somalia	1.1	3	0.9 - 1.4

Methodology:

As noted above, the highest (and best) level of transparency with the least perceived corruption is indicated by the number, 10. The lower (and worse) levels of transparency are indicated by lower numbers.

According to Transparency International, the [Corruption Perceptions Index](#) (CPI) table shows a country's ranking and score, the number of surveys used to determine the score, and the confidence range of the scoring.

The rank shows how one country compares to others included in the index. The CPI score indicates the perceived level of public-sector corruption in a country/territory.

The CPI is based on 13 independent surveys. However, not all surveys include all countries. The surveys used column indicates how many surveys were relied upon to determine the score for that country.

The confidence range indicates the reliability of the CPI scores and tells us that allowing for a margin of error, we can be 90% confident that the true score for this country lies within this range.

Note:

Kosovo, which separated from the Yugoslav successor state of [Serbia](#), is not listed above. No calculation is available for [Kosovo](#) at this time, however, a future corruption index by Transparency International may include the world's newest country in its tally. Taiwan has been listed above despite its contested status; while Taiwan claims sovereign status, [China](#) claims ultimate jurisdiction over Taiwan. Hong Kong, which is also under the rubric of Chinese sovereignty, is listed above. Note as well that Puerto Rico, which is a [United States](#) domain, is also included in the list above. These inclusions likely have to do with the size and fairly autonomous status of their economies.

Source:

Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index; available at URL: <http://www.transparency.org>

Updated:

Uploaded in 2011 using most recent ranking available; reviewed in 2015.

Competitiveness Ranking

Competitiveness Ranking

Editor's Note:

The Global Competitiveness Report's competitiveness ranking is based on the Global Competitiveness Index (GCI), which was developed for the World Economic Forum. The GCI is based on a number of competitiveness considerations, and provides a comprehensive picture of the competitiveness landscape in countries around the world. The competitiveness considerations are: institutions, infrastructure, macroeconomic environment, health and primary education, higher education and training, goods market efficiency, labour market efficiency, financial market development, technological readiness, market size, business sophistication, and innovation. The rankings are calculated from both publicly available data and the Executive Opinion Survey.

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Country/Economy	GCI 2010 Rank	GCI 2010 Score	GCI 2009 Rank	Change 2009-2010
Switzerland	1	5.63	1	0
Sweden	2	5.56	4	2
Singapore	3	5.48	3	0
United States	4	5.43	2	-2
Germany	5	5.39	7	2
Japan	6	5.37	8	2
Finland	7	5.37	6	-1
Netherlands	8	5.33	10	2
Denmark	9	5.32	5	-4
Canada	10	5.30	9	-1
Hong Kong SAR	11	5.30	11	0
United Kingdom	12	5.25	13	1
Taiwan, China	13	5.21	12	-1
Norway	14	5.14	14	0
France	15	5.13	16	1
Australia	16	5.11	15	-1
Qatar	17	5.10	22	5

Austria	18	5.09	17	-1
Belgium	19	5.07	18	-1
Luxembourg	20	5.05	21	1
Saudi Arabia	21	4.95	28	7
Korea, Rep.	22	4.93	19	-3
New Zealand	23	4.92	20	-3
Israel	24	4.91	27	3
United Arab Emirates	25	4.89	23	-2
Malaysia	26	4.88	24	-2
China	27	4.84	29	2
Brunei Darussalam	28	4.75	32	4
Ireland	29	4.74	25	-4
Chile	30	4.69	30	0
Iceland	31	4.68	26	-5
Tunisia	32	4.65	40	8
Estonia	33	4.61	35	2
Oman	34	4.61	41	7
Kuwait	35	4.59	39	4

Czech Republic	36	4.57	31	-5
Bahrain	37	4.54	38	1
Thailand	38	4.51	36	-2
Poland	39	4.51	46	7
Cyprus	40	4.50	34	-6
Puerto Rico	41	4.49	42	1
Spain	42	4.49	33	-9
Barbados	43	4.45	44	1
Indonesia	44	4.43	54	10
Slovenia	45	4.42	37	-8
Portugal	46	4.38	43	-3
Lithuania	47	4.38	53	6
Italy	48	4.37	48	0
Montenegro	49	4.36	62	13
Malta	50	4.34	52	2
India	51	4.33	49	-2
Hungary	52	4.33	58	6
Panama	53	4.33	59	6

South Africa	54	4.32	45	-9
Mauritius	55	4.32	57	2
Costa Rica	56	4.31	55	-1
Azerbaijan	57	4.29	51	-6
Brazil	58	4.28	56	-2
Vietnam	59	4.27	75	16
Slovak Republic	60	4.25	47	-13
Turkey	61	4.25	61	0
Sri Lanka	62	4.25	79	17
Russian Federation	63	4.24	63	0
Uruguay	64	4.23	65	1
Jordan	65	4.21	50	-15
Mexico	66	4.19	60	-6
Romania	67	4.16	64	-3
Colombia	68	4.14	69	1
Iran	69	4.14	n/a	n/a
Latvia	70	4.14	68	-2
Bulgaria	71	4.13	76	5

Kazakhstan	72	4.12	67	-5
Peru	73	4.11	78	5
Namibia	74	4.09	74	0
Morocco	75	4.08	73	-2
Botswana	76	4.05	66	-10
Croatia	77	4.04	72	-5
Guatemala	78	4.04	80	2
Macedonia, FYR	79	4.02	84	5
Rwanda	80	4.00	n/a	n/a
Egypt	81	4.00	70	-11
El Salvador	82	3.99	77	-5
Greece	83	3.99	71	-12
Trinidad and Tobago	84	3.97	86	2
Philippines	85	3.96	87	2
Algeria	86	3.96	83	-3
Argentina	87	3.95	85	-2
Albania	88	3.94	96	8
Ukraine	89	3.90	82	-7

Gambia, The	90	3.90	81	-9
Honduras	91	3.89	89	-2
Lebanon	92	3.89	n/a	n/a
Georgia	93	3.86	90	-3
Moldova	94	3.86	n/a	n/a
Jamaica	95	3.85	91	-4
Serbia	96	3.84	93	-3
Syria	97	3.79	94	-3
Armenia	98	3.76	97	-1
Mongolia	99	3.75	117	18
Libya	100	3.74	88	-12
Dominican Republic	101	3.72	95	-6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	102	3.70	109	7
Benin	103	3.69	103	0
Senegal	104	3.67	92	-12
Ecuador	105	3.65	105	0
Kenya	106	3.65	98	-8
Bangladesh	107	3.64	106	-1

Bolivia	108	3.64	120	12
Cambodia	109	3.63	110	1
Guyana	110	3.62	104	-6
Cameroon	111	3.58	111	0
Nicaragua	112	3.57	115	3
Tanzania	113	3.56	100	-13
Ghana	114	3.56	114	0
Zambia	115	3.55	112	-3
Tajikistan	116	3.53	122	6
Cape Verde	117	3.51	n/a	n/a
Uganda	118	3.51	108	-10
Ethiopia	119	3.51	118	-1
Paraguay	120	3.49	124	4
Kyrgyz Republic	121	3.49	123	2
Venezuela	122	3.48	113	-9
Pakistan	123	3.48	101	-22
Madagascar	124	3.46	121	-3
Malawi	125	3.45	119	-6

Swaziland	126	3.40	n/a	n/a
Nigeria	127	3.38	99	-28
Lesotho	128	3.36	107	-21
Côte d'Ivoire	129	3.35	116	-13
Nepal	130	3.34	125	-5
Mozambique	131	3.32	129	-2
Mali	132	3.28	130	-2
Timor-Leste	133	3.23	126	-7
Burkina Faso	134	3.20	128	-6
Mauritania	135	3.14	127	-8
Zimbabwe	136	3.03	132	-4
Burundi	137	2.96	133	-4
Angola	138	2.93	n/a	n/a
Chad	139	2.73	131	-8

Methodology:

The competitiveness rankings are calculated from both publicly available data and the Executive Opinion Survey, a comprehensive annual survey conducted by the World Economic Forum together with its network of Partner Institutes (leading research institutes and business organizations) in the countries covered by the Report.

Highlights according to WEF --

- The [United States](#) falls two places to fourth position, overtaken by [Sweden](#) and [Singapore](#) in the rankings of the World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report 2010-2011
- The People's Republic of [China](#) continues to move up the rankings, with marked improvements in several other Asian countries
- [Germany](#) moves up two places to fifth place, leading the Eurozone countries
- [Switzerland](#) tops the rankings

Source:

World Economic Forum; available at URL: <http://www.weforum.org>

Updated:

2011 using most recent ranking available; reviewed in 2015.

Taxation

Corporate tax

The corporate income tax rate is 15 percent on taxable income.

Capital gains

Capital gains are applied at 30 percent on capital gains from property sales.

Individual tax

Personal income tax is applied at various rates on taxable salaries.

Indirect tax

There is a value added tax (VAT) of 15 percent that is applied to various goods and services.

Stock Market

There is currently no stock market data for Ethiopia.

Partner Links

Partner Links

Chapter 5

Social Overview

People

Ethnicity

With a population of approximately 81 million, Ethiopia represents a melting pot of ancient Middle Eastern and African cultures, which is evident in the religious, ethnic, and language composition of its Semitic, Cushitic, Omotic and Nilotic peoples. The Ethiopian population comprises over 70 distinct ethnic groups of which the Amhara and the Oromo are the most dominant, together constituting more than 70 percent of the total population.

Language

Amharic is the official language of Ethiopia, while English, French, Italian and Arabic are also widely spoken, especially in business and academic circles. Linguistic diversity is not limited to European languages, with more than 80 distinct ethnic languages spoken within Ethiopia and amongst the Ethiopian Diaspora. Virtually all of these local languages can be broken down into four main groups: Semitic, Hametic, Omotic, and Nilo-Saharan.

Semitic languages, which have antecedents in both Hebrew and Arabic, are mostly spoken in the North and Center of the country. The principal Semitic language is Amharic. The Hametic languages are found mainly in the East, West, and South. Of this group, Oromo is the predominant language. The Omotic group of languages is heard mostly in the Southwest and is so named because of this linguistic group's proximity to the Omo River. Finally, the constituents of the Nilo-Saharan language grouping are found in a wide area toward the Sudan frontier.

Religion

Ethiopians historically have tended to be monotheistic, adhering to either Christianity or Islam. Typically, most Christians live in the highlands, while Muslims and adherents of traditional African religions inhabit the lowland regions. Traditional religions are practiced by a small section of the population, particularly in the South. The Ethiopian Orthodox church traces its roots to the 4th century of the common era and its history often overlaps that of the Ethiopian empire. However,

while the Ethiopian Church was the establishment religion, Islam and Islamic institutions such as schools and churches were tolerated by the imperial system. After the revolution in 1975, all religions were made equal, and the Orthodox Church was de-established. However, while religious freedom was the policy, tensions between the two major faith traditions were never completely resolved, and lingering disputes exist to the present day.

Literacy rates

The average literacy rate, according to recent estimates, is 42.7 percent, however, there is a significant gap across genders. Among males, literacy is 50.3 percent and among females it is significantly lower at 35.1 percent. About 5.5 percent of GDP in this country is spent on educational expenditures.

Health and Welfare

The risk of infectious diseases in this country is high. Food or waterborne diseases include bacterial and protozoal diarrhea, hepatitis A and E, and typhoid fever; vectorborne diseases include malaria; respiratory diseases include meningococcal meningitis; animal contact diseases include rabies; water contact diseases include schistosomiasis. About percent of GDP in this country is spent on health expenditures.

As is commonly found when a predominantly rural population that pursues traditional cultivation and pastoralist occupations is exposed to modern medicine, Ethiopia has a relatively high population growth rate. The annual population growth rate is about 2.36 percent, with average female fertility at 5.33 per 1,000 of population, according to recent estimates.

Average life expectancy at birth is 56.19 years of age (53.64 years for males and 58.81 years for females) and the infant mortality rate is 95.32 deaths per 1,000 live births. However, these figures do not accurately portray the looming population crisis to be found in that part of the Ethiopian people less than 15 years of age, which comprises approximately 44 percent of the total population. The challenge for the future will be finding ways to productively utilize this soon to be working age population and to find the resources to feed, clothe, and shelter this demographic wave.

Note: Estimates for this country explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS; which can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected.

Human Development

One notable indicator used to measure a country's quality of life is the Human Development Index (HDI), which is compiled annually since 1990 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The HDI is a composite of several indicators, which measure a country's achievements in three main areas of human development: longevity, knowledge and education, as well as economic standard of living. In a ranking of 169 countries and territories, the HDI places Ethiopia in the low human development category, near the bottom of the list at 157th place.

Note: Although the concept of human development is complicated and cannot be properly captured by values and indices, the HDI, which is calculated and updated annually, offers a wide-ranging assessment of human development in certain countries, not based solely upon traditional economic and financial indicators.

Written by Dr. Denise Youngblood Coleman, Editor in Chief, www.countrywatch.com; see Bibliography for list of research sources.

Human Development Index

Human Development Index

Human Development Index (Ranked Numerically)

The [Human Development Index](#) (HDI) is used to measure quality of life in countries across the world. The HDI has been compiled since 1990 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) on a regular basis. The HDI is a composite of several indicators, which measure a country's achievements in three main arenas of human development: longevity, education, and economic standard of living. Although the concept of human development is complicated and cannot be properly captured by values and indices, the HDI offers a wide-ranging assessment of human development in certain countries, not based solely upon traditional economic and financial indicators. For more information about the methodology used to calculate the HDI, please see the "Source Materials" in the appendices of this review.

Very High Human Development	High Human Development	Medium Human Development	Low Human Development
1. Norway	43. Bahamas	86. Fiji	128. Kenya
2. Australia	44. Lithuania	87. Turkmenistan	129. Bangladesh
3. New Zealand	45. Chile	88. Dominican Republic	130. Ghana
4. United States	46. Argentina	89. China	131. Cameroon
5. Ireland	47. Kuwait	90. El Salvador	132. Myanmar (Burma)
6. Liechtenstein	48. Latvia	91. Sri Lanka	133. Yemen
7. Netherlands	49. Montenegro	92. Thailand	134. Benin
8. Canada	50. Romania	93. Gabon	135. Madagascar
9. Sweden	51. Croatia	94. Suriname	136. Mauritania
10. Germany	52. Uruguay	95. Bolivia	137. Papua New Guinea
11. Japan	53. Libya	96. Paraguay	138. Nepal
12. South Korea	54. Panama	97. Philippines	139. Togo
13. Switzerland	55. Saudi Arabia	98. Botswana	140. Comoros
14. France	56. Mexico	99. Moldova	141. Lesotho
15. Israel	57. Malaysia	100. Mongolia	142. Nigeria

16. Finland	58. Bulgaria	101. Egypt	143. Uganda
17. Iceland	59. Trinidad and Tobago	102. Uzbekistan	144. Senegal
18. Belgium	60. Serbia	103. Micronesia	145. Haiti
19. Denmark	61. Belarus	104. Guyana	146. Angola
20. Spain	62. Costa Rica	105. Namibia	147. Djibouti
21. Hong King	63. Peru	106. Honduras	148. Tanzania
22. Greece	64. Albania	107. Maldives	149. Cote d'Ivoire
23. Italy	65. Russian Federation	108. Indonesia	150. Zambia
24. Luxembourg	66. Kazakhstan	109. Kyrgyzstan	151. Gambia
25. Austria	67. Azerbaijan	110. South Africa	152. Rwanda
26. United Kingdom	68. Bosnia and Herzegovina	111. Syria	153. Malawi
27. Singapore	69. Ukraine	112. Tajikistan	154. Sudan
28. Czech Republic	70. Iran	113. Vietnam	155. Afghanistan
29. Slovenia	71. The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	114. Morocco	156. Guinea
30. Andorra	72. Mauritius	115. Nicaragua	157. Ethiopia
31. Slovakia	73. Brazil	116. Guatemala	158. Sierra Leone

32. United Arab Emirates	74. Georgia	117. Equatorial Guinea	159. Central African Republic
33. Malta	75. Venezuela	118. Cape Verde	160. Mali
34. Estonia	76. Armenia	119. India	161. Burkina Faso
35. Cyprus	77. Ecuador	120. East Timor	162. Liberia
36. Hungary	78. Belize	121. Swaziland	163. Chad
37. Brunei	79. Colombia	122. Laos	164. Guinea-Bissau
38. Qatar	80. Jamaica	123. Solomon Islands	165. Mozambique
39. Bahrain	81. Tunisia	124. Cambodia	166. Burundi
40. Portugal	82. Jordan	125. Pakistan	167. Niger
41. Poland	83. Turkey	126. Congo RC	168. Congo DRC
42. Barbados	84. Algeria	127. Sao Tome and Principe	169. Zimbabwe
	85. Tonga		

Methodology:

For more information about the methodology used to calculate the HDI, please see the "Source Materials" in the appendices of this Country Review.

Reference:

As published in United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Report 2010.

Source:

United Nations Development Programme's [Human Development Index](http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/) available at URL: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/>

Updated:

Uploaded in 2011 using ranking available; reviewed in 2015

Life Satisfaction Index

Life Satisfaction Index

Life Satisfaction Index

Created by Adrian G. White, an Analytic Social Psychologist at the University of Leicester, the "Satisfaction with Life Index" measures subjective life satisfaction across various countries. The data was taken from a metastudy (see below for source) and associates the notion of subjective happiness or life satisfaction with qualitative parameters such as health, wealth, and access to basic education. This assessment serves as an alternative to other measures of happiness that tend to rely on traditional and quantitative measures of policy on quality of life, such as GNP and GDP. The methodology involved the responses of 80,000 people across the globe.

Rank	Country	Score
1	Denmark	273.4
2	Switzerland	273.33
3	Austria	260

4	Iceland	260
5	The Bahamas	256.67
6	Finland	256.67
7	Sweden	256.67
8	Iran	253.33
9	Brunei	253.33
10	Canada	253.33
11	Ireland	253.33
12	Luxembourg	253.33
13	Costa Rica	250
14	Malta	250
15	Netherlands	250
16	Antiguaand Barbuda	246.67
17	Malaysia	246.67
18	New Zealand	246.67
19	Norway	246.67
20	Seychelles	246.67
21	Saint Kitts and Nevis	246.67

22	United Arab Emirates	246.67
23	United States	246.67
24	Vanuatu	246.67
25	Venezuela	246.67
26	Australia	243.33
27	Barbados	243.33
28	Belgium	243.33
29	Dominica	243.33
30	Oman	243.33
31	Saudi Arabia	243.33
32	Suriname	243.33
33	Bahrain	240
34	Colombia	240
35	Germany	240
36	Guyana	240
37	Honduras	240
38	Kuwait	240
39	Panama	240

40	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	240
41	United Kingdom	236.67
42	Dominican Republic	233.33
43	Guatemala	233.33
44	Jamaica	233.33
45	Qatar	233.33
46	Spain	233.33
47	Saint Lucia	233.33
48	Belize	230
49	Cyprus	230
50	Italy	230
51	Mexico	230
52	Samoa	230
53	Singapore	230
54	Solomon Islands	230
55	Trinidad and Tobago	230
56	Argentina	226.67
57	Fiji	223.33

58	Israel	223.33
59	Mongolia	223.33
60	São Tomé and Príncipe	223.33
61	El Salvador	220
62	France	220
63	Hong Kong	220
64	Indonesia	220
65	Kyrgyzstan	220
66	Maldives	220
67	Slovenia	220
68	Taiwan	220
69	East Timor	220
70	Tonga	220
71	Chile	216.67
72	Grenada	216.67
73	Mauritius	216.67
74	Namibia	216.67
75	Paraguay	216.67

76	Thailand	216.67
77	Czech Republic	213.33
78	Philippines	213.33
79	Tunisia	213.33
80	Uzbekistan	213.33
81	Brazil	210
82	China	210
83	Cuba	210
84	Greece	210
85	Nicaragua	210
86	Papua New Guinea	210
87	Uruguay	210
88	Gabon	206.67
89	Ghana	206.67
90	Japan	206.67
91	Yemen	206.67
92	Portugal	203.33
93	Sri Lanka	203.33

94	Tajikistan	203.33
95	Vietnam	203.33
96	Bhutan	200
97	Comoros	196.67
98	Croatia	196.67
99	Poland	196.67
100	Cape Verde	193.33
101	Kazakhstan	193.33
102	South Korea	193.33
103	Madagascar	193.33
104	Bangladesh	190
105	Republic of the Congo	190
106	The Gambia	190
107	Hungary	190
108	Libya	190
109	South Africa	190
110	Cambodia	186.67
111	Ecuador	186.67

112	Kenya	186.67
113	Lebanon	186.67
114	Morocco	186.67
115	Peru	186.67
116	Senegal	186.67
117	Bolivia	183.33
118	Haiti	183.33
119	Nepal	183.33
120	Nigeria	183.33
121	Tanzania	183.33
122	Benin	180
123	Botswana	180
124	Guinea-Bissau	180
125	India	180
126	Laos	180
127	Mozambique	180
128	Palestinian Authority	180
129	Slovakia	180

130	Myanmar	176.67
131	Mali	176.67
132	Mauritania	176.67
133	Turkey	176.67
134	Algeria	173.33
135	Equatorial Guinea	173.33
136	Romania	173.33
137	Bosnia and Herzegovina	170
138	Cameroon	170
139	Estonia	170
140	Guinea	170
141	Jordan	170
142	Syria	170
143	Sierra Leone	166.67
144	Azerbaijan	163.33
145	Central African Republic	163.33
146	Republic of Macedonia	163.33
147	Togo	163.33

148	Zambia	163.33
149	Angola	160
150	Djibouti	160
151	Egypt	160
152	Burkina Faso	156.67
153	Ethiopia	156.67
154	Latvia	156.67
155	Lithuania	156.67
156	Uganda	156.67
157	Albania	153.33
158	Malawi	153.33
159	Chad	150
160	Côte d'Ivoire	150
161	Niger	150
162	Eritrea	146.67
163	Rwanda	146.67
164	Bulgaria	143.33
165	Lesotho	143.33

166	Pakistan	143.33
167	Russia	143.33
168	Swaziland	140
169	Georgia	136.67
170	Belarus	133.33
171	Turkmenistan	133.33
172	Armenia	123.33
173	Sudan	120
174	Ukraine	120
175	Moldova	116.67
176	Democratic Republic of the Congo	110
177	Zimbabwe	110
178	Burundi	100

Commentary:

European countries, such as [Denmark](#), [Iceland](#), [Finland](#), [Sweden](#), [Switzerland](#), [Austria](#) resided at the top of the ranking with highest levels of self-reported life satisfaction. Conversely, European countries such as [Latvia](#), [Lithuania](#), [Moldova](#), [Belarus](#) and [Ukraine](#) ranked low on the index. African countries such as Democratic Republic of Congo, [Zimbabwe](#) and [Burundi](#) found themselves at the very bottom of the ranking, and indeed, very few African countries could be found in the top 100. [Japan](#) was at the mid-way point in the ranking, however, other Asian countries such as [Brunei](#) and [Malaysia](#) were in the top tier, while [Pakistan](#) was close to the bottom

with a low level of self-identified life satisfaction. As a region, the Middle East presented a mixed bag with Saudi Arabians reporting healthy levels of life satisfaction and Egyptians near the bottom of the ranking. As a region, Caribbean countries were ranked highly, consistently demonstrating high levels of life satisfaction. The findings showed that health was the most crucial determining factor in life satisfaction, followed by prosperity and education.

Source:

White, A. (2007). A Global Projection of Subjective Well-being: A Challenge To Positive Psychology? *Psychtalk* 56, 17-20. The data was extracted from a meta-analysis by Marks, Abdallah, Simms & Thompson (2006).

Uploaded:

Based on study noted above in "Source" ; reviewed in 2015

Happy Planet Index

Happy Planet Index

The Happy Planet Index (HPI) is used to measure human well-being in conjunction with environmental impact. The HPI has been compiled since 2006 by the New Economics Foundation. The index is a composite of several indicators including subjective life satisfaction, life expectancy at birth, and ecological footprint per capita.

As noted by NEFA, the HPI "reveals the ecological efficiency with which human well-being is delivered." Indeed, the index combines environmental impact with human well-being to measure the environmental efficiency with which, country by country, people live long and happy lives. The countries ranked highest by the HPI are not necessarily the ones with the happiest people overall, but the ones that allow their citizens to live long and fulfilling lives, without negatively impacting this opportunity for either future generations or citizens of other countries. Accordingly, a country like the [United States](#) will rank low on this list due to its large per capital ecological footprint, which uses more than its fair share of resources, and will likely cause planetary damage.

It should be noted that the HPI was designed to be a counterpoint to other well-established indices of countries' development, such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which measures overall

national wealth and economic development, but often obfuscates the realities of countries with stark variances between the rich and the poor. Moreover, the objective of most of the world's people is not to be wealthy but to be happy. The HPI also differs from the [Human Development Index](#) (HDI), which measures quality of life but not ecology, since it [HPI] also includes sustainability as a key indicator.

Rank	Country	HPI
1	Costa Rica	76.1
2	Dominican Republic	71.8
3	Jamaica	70.1
4	Guatemala	68.4
5	Vietnam	66.5
6	Colombia	66.1
7	Cuba	65.7
8	El Salvador	61.5
9	Brazil	61.0
10	Honduras	61.0
11	Nicaragua	60.5
12	Egypt	60.3
13	Saudi Arabia	59.7

14	Philippines	59.0
15	Argentina	59.0
16	Indonesia	58.9
17	Bhutan	58.5
18	Panama	57.4
19	Laos	57.3
20	China	57.1
21	Morocco	56.8
22	Sri Lanka	56.5
23	Mexico	55.6
24	Pakistan	55.6
25	Ecuador	55.5
26	Jordan	54.6
27	Belize	54.5
28	Peru	54.4
29	Tunisia	54.3
30	Trinidad and Tobago	54.2
31	Bangladesh	54.1

32	Moldova	54.1
33	Malaysia	54.0
34	Tajikistan	53.5
35	India	53.0
36	Venezuela	52.5
37	Nepal	51.9
38	Syria	51.3
39	Burma	51.2
40	Algeria	51.2
41	Thailand	50.9
42	Haiti	50.8
43	Netherlands	50.6
44	Malta	50.4
45	Uzbekistan	50.1
46	Chile	49.7
47	Bolivia	49.3
48	Armenia	48.3
49	Singapore	48.2

50	Yemen	48.1
51	Germany	48.1
52	Switzerland	48.1
53	Sweden	48.0
54	Albania	47.9
55	Paraguay	47.8
56	Palestinian Authority	47.7
57	Austria	47.7
58	Serbia	47.6
59	Finland	47.2
60	Croatia	47.2
61	Kyrgyzstan	47.1
62	Cyprus	46.2
63	Guyana	45.6
64	Belgium	45.4
65	Bosnia and Herzegovina	45.0
66	Slovenia	44.5
67	Israel	44.5

68	South Korea	44.4
69	Italy	44.0
70	Romania	43.9
71	France	43.9
72	Georgia	43.6
73	Slovakia	43.5
74	United Kingdom	43.3
75	Japan	43.3
76	Spain	43.2
77	Poland	42.8
78	Ireland	42.6
79	Iraq	42.6
80	Cambodia	42.3
81	Iran	42.1
82	Bulgaria	42.0
83	Turkey	41.7
84	Hong Kong	41.6
85	Azerbaijan	41.2

86	Lithuania	40.9
87	Djibouti	40.4
88	Norway	40.4
89	Canada	39.4
90	Hungary	38.9
91	Kazakhstan	38.5
92	Czech Republic	38.3
93	Mauritania	38.2
94	Iceland	38.1
95	Ukraine	38.1
96	Senegal	38.0
97	Greece	37.6
98	Portugal	37.5
99	Uruguay	37.2
100	Ghana	37.1
101	Latvia	36.7
102	Australia	36.6
103	New Zealand	36.2

104	Belarus	35.7
105	Denmark	35.5
106	Mongolia	35.0
107	Malawi	34.5
108	Russia	34.5
109	Chad	34.3
110	Lebanon	33.6
111	Macedonia	32.7
112	Republic of the Congo	32.4
113	Madagascar	31.5
114	United States	30.7
115	Nigeria	30.3
116	Guinea	30.3
117	Uganda	30.2
118	South Africa	29.7
119	Rwanda	29.6
120	Democratic Republic of the Congo	29.0
121	Sudan	28.5

122	Luxembourg	28.5
123	United Arab Emirates	28.2
124	Ethiopia	28.1
125	Kenya	27.8
126	Cameroon	27.2
127	Zambia	27.2
128	Kuwait	27.0
129	Niger	26.9
130	Angola	26.8
131	Estonia	26.4
132	Mali	25.8
133	Mozambique	24.6
134	Benin	24.6
135	Togo	23.3
136	Sierra Leone	23.1
137	Central African Republic	22.9
138	Burkina Faso	22.4
139	Burundi	21.8

140	Namibia	21.1
141	Botswana	20.9
142	Tanzania	17.8
143	Zimbabwe	16.6

***Source:** This material is derived from the Happy Planet Index issued by the New Economics Foundation (NEF).*

***Methodology:** The methodology for the calculations can be found at URL: <http://www.happyplanetindex.org/>*

Status of Women

Gender Related Development Index (GDI) Rank:

134th out of 140

Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank:

Not Ranked

Female Population:

37.3 million

Female Life Expectancy at birth:

58.81 years

Total Fertility Rate:

5.9

Maternal Mortality Ratio (2000):

850

Total Number of Women Living with HIV/AIDS:

190,000-730,000

Ever Married Women, Ages 15-19 (%):

30%

Mean Age at Time of Marriage:

21

Contraceptive Use Among Married Women, Any Method (%):

8%

Female Adult Literacy Rate:

35.1%

Combined Female Gross enrollment ratio for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary schools:

29%

Female-Headed Households (%):

24%

Economically Active Females (%):

57.2%

Female Contributing Family Workers (%):

N/A

Female Estimated Earned Income:

\$487

Seats in Parliament held by women (%):

Lower or Single House: 7.7%

Upper House or Senate: 8.3%

Year Women Received the Right to Vote:

1955

Year Women Received the Right to Stand for Election:

1955

*The Gender Development Index (GDI) is a composite index which measures the average achievement in a country. While very similar to the Human Development Index in its use of the same variables, the GDI adjusts the average achievement of each country in terms of life expectancy, enrollment in schools, income, and literacy in accordance to the disparities between males and females.

*The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) is a composite index measuring gender inequality in three of the basic dimensions of empowerment; economic participation and decision-making, political participation and decision-making, and power over economic resources.

*Total Fertility Rate (TFR) is defined as the average number of babies born to women during their reproductive years. A TFR of 2.1 is considered the replacement rate; once a TFR of a population reaches 2.1 the population will remain stable assuming no immigration or emigration takes place. When the TFR is greater than 2.1 a population will increase and when it is less than 2.1 a population will eventually decrease, although due to the age structure of a population it will take years before a low TFR is translated into lower population.

*Maternal Mortality Rate is the number of deaths to women per 100,000 live births that resulted from conditions related to pregnancy and or delivery related complications.

*Economically Active Females are the share of the female population, ages 15 and above, whom supply, or are able to supply, labor for the production of goods and services.

*Female Contributing Family Workers are those females who work without pay in an economic enterprise operated by a relative living in the same household.

*Estimated Earned Income is measured according to Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) in US dollars.

Global Gender Gap Index

Global Gender Gap Index

Editor's Note:

The Global Gender Gap Index by the World Economic Forum ranks most of the world's countries in terms of the division of resources and opportunities among males and females. Specifically, the ranking assesses the gender inequality gap in these four arenas:

1. Economic participation and opportunity (salaries and high skilled employment participation levels)
2. Educational attainment (access to basic and higher level education)
3. Political empowerment (representation in decision-making structures)
4. Health and survival (life expectancy and sex ratio)

	2010 rank	2010 score	2010 rank among 2009 countries	2009 rank	2009 score	2008 rank	2008 score	2007 rank
Country								
Iceland	1	0.8496	1	1	0.8276	4	0.7999	4
Norway	2	0.8404	2	3	0.8227	1	0.8239	2

Finland	3	0.8260	3	2	0.8252	2	0.8195	3
Sweden	4	0.8024	4	4	0.8139	3	0.8139	1
New Zealand	5	0.7808	5	5	0.7880	5	0.7859	5
Ireland	6	0.7773	6	8	0.7597	8	0.7518	9
Denmark	7	0.7719	7	7	0.7628	7	0.7538	8
Lesotho	8	0.7678	8	10	0.7495	16	0.7320	26
Philippines	9	0.7654	9	9	0.7579	6	0.7568	6
Switzerland	10	0.7562	10	13	0.7426	14	0.7360	40
Spain	11	0.7554	11	17	0.7345	17	0.7281	10
South Africa	12	0.7535	12	6	0.7709	22	0.7232	20
Germany	13	0.7530	13	12	0.7449	11	0.7394	7
Belgium	14	0.7509	14	33	0.7165	28	0.7163	19
United Kingdom	15	0.7460	15	15	0.7402	13	0.7366	11
Sri Lanka	16	0.7458	16	16	0.7402	12	0.7371	15
Netherlands	17	0.7444	17	11	0.7490	9	0.7399	12
Latvia	18	0.7429	18	14	0.7416	10	0.7397	13
United States	19	0.7411	19	31	0.7173	27	0.7179	31

Canada	20	0.7372	20	25	0.7196	31	0.7136	18
Trinidad and Tobago	21	0.7353	21	19	0.7298	19	0.7245	46
Mozambique	22	0.7329	22	26	0.7195	18	0.7266	43
Australia	23	0.7271	23	20	0.7282	21	0.7241	17
Cuba	24	0.7253	24	29	0.7176	25	0.7195	22
Namibia	25	0.7238	25	32	0.7167	30	0.7141	29
Luxembourg	26	0.7231	26	63	0.6889	66	0.6802	58
Mongolia	27	0.7194	27	22	0.7221	40	0.7049	62
Costa Rica	28	0.7194	28	27	0.7180	32	0.7111	28
Argentina	29	0.7187	29	24	0.7211	24	0.7209	33
Nicaragua	30	0.7176	30	49	0.7002	71	0.6747	90
Barbados	31	0.7176	31	21	0.7236	26	0.7188	n/a
Portugal	32	0.7171	32	46	0.7013	39	0.7051	37
Uganda	33	0.7169	33	40	0.7067	43	0.6981	50
Moldova	34	0.7160	34	36	0.7104	20	0.7244	21
Lithuania	35	0.7132	35	30	0.7175	23	0.7222	14
Bahamas	36	0.7128	36	28	0.7179	n/a	n/a	n/a
Austria	37	0.7091	37	42	0.7031	29	0.7153	27

Guyana	38	0.7090	38	35	0.7108	n/a	n/a	n/a
Panama	39	0.7072	39	43	0.7024	34	0.7095	38
Ecuador	40	0.7072	40	23	0.7220	35	0.7091	44
Kazakhstan	41	0.7055	41	47	0.7013	45	0.6976	32
Slovenia	42	0.7047	42	52	0.6982	51	0.6937	49
Poland	43	0.7037	43	50	0.6998	49	0.6951	60
Jamaica	44	0.7037	44	48	0.7013	44	0.6980	39
Russian Federation	45	0.7036	45	51	0.6987	42	0.6994	45
France	46	0.7025	46	18	0.7331	15	0.7341	51
Estonia	47	0.7018	47	37	0.7094	37	0.7076	30
Chile	48	0.7013	48	64	0.6884	65	0.6818	86
Macedonia, FYR	49	0.6996	49	53	0.6950	53	0.6914	35
Bulgaria	50	0.6983	50	38	0.7072	36	0.7077	25
Kyrgyz Republic	51	0.6973	51	41	0.7058	41	0.7045	70
Israel	52	0.6957	52	45	0.7019	56	0.6900	36
Croatia	53	0.6939	53	54	0.6944	46	0.6967	16
Honduras	54	0.6927	54	62	0.6893	47	0.6960	68

Colombia	55	0.6927	55	56	0.6939	50	0.6944	24
Singapore	56	0.6914	56	84	0.6664	84	0.6625	77
Thailand	57	0.6910	57	59	0.6907	52	0.6917	52
Greece	58	0.6908	58	85	0.6662	75	0.6727	72
Uruguay	59	0.6897	59	57	0.6936	54	0.6907	78
Peru	60	0.6895	60	44	0.7024	48	0.6959	75
China	61	0.6881	61	60	0.6907	57	0.6878	73
Botswana	62	0.6876	62	39	0.7071	63	0.6839	53
Ukraine	63	0.6869	63	61	0.6896	62	0.6856	57
Venezuela	64	0.6863	64	69	0.6839	59	0.6875	55
Czech Republic	65	0.6850	65	74	0.6789	69	0.6770	64
Tanzania	66	0.6829	66	73	0.6797	38	0.7068	34
Romania	67	0.6826	67	70	0.6805	70	0.6763	47
Malawi	68	0.6824	68	76	0.6738	81	0.6664	87
Paraguay	69	0.6804	69	66	0.6868	100	0.6379	69
Ghana	70	0.6782	70	80	0.6704	77	0.6679	63
Slovak Republic	71	0.6778	71	68	0.6845	64	0.6824	54

Vietnam	72	0.6776	72	71	0.6802	68	0.6778	42
Dominican Republic	73	0.6774	73	67	0.6859	72	0.6744	65
Italy	74	0.6765	74	72	0.6798	67	0.6788	84
Gambia, The	75	0.6762	75	75	0.6752	85	0.6622	95
Bolivia	76	0.6751	76	82	0.6693	80	0.6667	80
Brueni Darussalem	77	0.6748	77	94	0.6524	99	0.6392	n/a
Albania	78	0.6726	78	91	0.6601	87	0.6591	66
Hungary	79	0.6720	79	65	0.6879	60	0.6867	61
Madagascar	80	0.6713	80	77	0.6732	74	0.6736	89
Angola	81	0.6712	81	106	0.6353	114	0.6032	110
Bangladesh	82	0.6702	82	93	0.6526	90	0.6531	100
Malta	83	0.6695	83	88	0.6635	83	0.6634	76
Armenia	84	0.6669	84	90	0.6619	78	0.6677	71
Brazil	85	0.6655	85	81	0.6695	73	0.6737	74
Cyprus	86	0.6642	86	79	0.6706	76	0.6694	82
Indonesia	87	0.6615	87	92	0.6580	93	0.6473	81
Georgia	88	0.6598	88	83	0.6680	82	0.6654	67

Tajikistan	89	0.6598	89	86	0.6661	89	0.6541	79
El Salvador	90	0.6596	90	55	0.6939	58	0.6875	48
Mexico	91	0.6577	91	98	0.6503	97	0.6441	93
Zimbabwe	92	0.6574	92	95	0.6518	92	0.6485	88
Belize	93	0.6536	93	87	0.6636	86	0.6610	94
Japan	94	0.6524	94	101	0.6447	98	0.6434	91
Mauritius	95	0.6520	95	96	0.6513	95	0.6466	85
Kenya	96	0.6499	96	97	0.6512	88	0.6547	83
Cambodia	97	0.6482	97	104	0.6410	94	0.6469	98
Malaysia	98	0.6479	98	100	0.6467	96	0.6442	92
Maldives	99	0.6452	99	99	0.6482	91	0.6501	99
Azerbaijan	100	0.6446	100	89	0.6626	61	0.6856	59
Senegal	101	0.6414	101	102	0.6427	n/a	n/a	n/a
Suriname	102	0.6407	102	78	0.6726	79	0.6674	56
United Arab Emirates	103	0.6397	103	112	0.6198	105	0.6220	105
Korea, Rep.	104	0.6342	104	115	0.6146	108	0.6154	97
Kuwait	105	0.6318	105	105	0.6356	101	0.6358	96
Zambia	106	0.6293	106	107	0.6310	106	0.6205	101

Tunisia	107	0.6266	107	109	0.6233	103	0.6295	102
Fiji	108	0.6256	108	103	0.6414	n/a	n/a	n/a
Guatemala	109	0.6238	109	111	0.6209	112	0.6072	106
Bahrain	110	0.6217	110	116	0.6136	121	0.5927	115
Burkina Faso	111	0.6162	111	120	0.6081	115	0.6029	117
India	112	0.6155	112	114	0.6151	113	0.6060	114
Mauritania	113	0.6152	113	119	0.6103	110	0.6117	111
Cameroon	114	0.6110	114	118	0.6108	117	0.6017	116
Nepal	115	0.6084	115	110	0.6213	120	0.5942	125
Lebanon*	116	0.6084	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Qatar	117	0.6059	116	125	0.5907	119	0.5948	109
Nigeria	118	0.6055	117	108	0.6280	102	0.6339	107
Algeria	119	0.6052	118	117	0.6119	111	0.6111	108
Jordan	120	0.6048	119	113	0.6182	104	0.6275	104
Ethiopia	121	0.6019	120	122	0.5948	122	0.5867	113
Oman	122	0.5950	121	123	0.5938	118	0.5960	119
Iran	123	0.5933	122	128	0.5839	116	0.6021	118

Syria	124	0.5926	123	121	0.6072	107	0.6181	103
Egypt	125	0.5899	124	126	0.5862	124	0.5832	120
Turkey	126	0.5876	125	129	0.5828	123	0.5853	121
Morocco	127	0.5767	126	124	0.5926	125	0.5757	122
Benin	128	0.5719	127	131	0.5643	126	0.5582	123
Saudi Arabia	129	0.5713	128	130	0.5651	128	0.5537	124
Côte d'Ivoire*	130	0.5691	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Mali	131	0.5680	129	127	0.5860	109	0.6117	112
Pakistan	132	0.5465	130	132	0.5458	127	0.5549	126
Chad	133	0.5330	131	133	0.5417	129	0.5290	127
Yemen	134	0.4603	132	134	0.4609	130	0.4664	128
Belarus	n/a	n/a	n/a	34	0.7141	33	0.7099	23
Uzbekistan	n/a	n/a	n/a	58	0.6913	55	0.6906	41

*new country 2010

Commentary:

According to the report's index, Nordic countries, such as [Iceland](#), [Norway](#), [Finland](#), and [Sweden](#)

have continued to dominate at the top of the ranking for gender equality. Meanwhile, [France](#) has seen a notable decline in the ranking, largely as a result of decreased number of women holding ministerial portfolios in that country. In the Americas, the [United States](#) has risen in the ranking to top the region, predominantly as a result of a decreasing wage gap, as well as higher number of women holding key positions in the current Obama administration. [Canada](#) has continued to remain as one of the top ranking countries of the Americas, followed by the small Caribbean island nation of Trinidad and Tobago, which has the distinction of being among the top three countries of the Americans in the realm of gender equality. [Lesotho](#) and South African ranked highly in the index, leading not only among African countries but also in global context. Despite [Lesotho](#) still lagging in the area of life expectancy, its high ranking was attributed to high levels of female participation in the labor force and female literacy. The [Philippines](#) and [Sri Lanka](#) were the top ranking countries for gender equality for Asia, ranking highly also in global context. The [Philippines](#) has continued to show strong performance in all strong performance on all four dimensions (detailed above) of the index. Finally, in the Arab world, the [United Arab Emirates](#) held the highest-rank within that region of the world; however, its placement near the bottom of the global list highlights the fact that Arab countries are generally poor performers when it comes to the matter of gender equality in global scope.

Source:

This data is derived from the latest edition of The Global Gender Gap Report by the World Economic Forum.

Available at URL:

<http://www.weforum.org/en/Communities/Women%20Leaders%20and%20Gender%20Parity/Gende>

Updated:

Based on latest available data as set forth in chart; reviewed in 2014

Culture and Arts

Content to come!

Etiquette

Cultural Dos and Taboos

1. The traditional Ethiopian greeting involves shaking hands, or on the cheek several times; both hands are used when shaking the hand of highly-respected people.
2. Following the greeting, it is customary to ask about your Ethiopian counterpart's health, and to spend a few minutes in "small talk." Moving quickly into a business discussion is culturally inappropriate.
3. When invited to an Ethiopian home, expect to participate in the coffee ceremony, which is a traditional custom. Be prepared to drink at least three cups of coffee, always complimenting the flavor of the first cup. Popcorn may also be served as it is a popular snack in Ethiopia.
4. Customarily, guests may say that they are not hungry, and it is the host's job to persist and be resolute in inviting guests to eat.
5. Generally food is served on one large common plate for the dinners at the table to share. Don't be surprised if no eating utensils are offered. Use your fingers, but make that you do not put them in your mouth.
6. Ethiopian guests may say that they are not hungry but the host has to persist, and set a good example by eating with them. A polite guest will stop eating when the host stops - if you invite Ethiopian friends over for a meal, you should make sure that you eat until they are no longer hungry.
7. One should make sure to eat with the right hand.
8. In restaurants, tipping is fine but over tipping is frowned upon. Ethiopia is a developing third world country and there are some that are afraid the younger generation will run to get jobs in service industries taking advantage of Westerner's generosity thereby neglecting their education. Many believe it is better for Ethiopia as a whole for that temptation to be minimized.
9. Modest demeanor is appreciated in Ethiopia while boasting is considered rude.
10. Courtesy is another very important social value in Ethiopia.

11. In new social environments, Ethiopians often appear formal and reserved. They do not disclose themselves to strangers and limit themselves to short answers. Try not to pry and instead, understand that forging relationships are a complex and refined process in this country.

12. In conversation, it is especially important not to move quickly and indiscreetly into bad news. Bad news, such as that of a death, should be communicated gradually, while in the presence of relatives and friends who can offer support and help once the information has been conveyed.

13. Avoid discussions of Ethiopia's political relationship with Eritrea. Sports, music, culture, sightseeing and travel are better subjects for conversation.

14. Note that most Ethiopians are either Christian or Muslim, although there is also a small Jewish community, and there are a number of groups who practice animism. Within the Christian community, pork is prohibited, fasting for 165 days a year is the norm, including every Wednesday and Friday, as well as several weeks before Easter and Christmas. On these days, they do not eat or drink anything before noon; after noon they may eat grains and vegetables, but animal products such as meat, eggs and dairy products are forbidden. The clergy fast for 250 days of the pray is offered five times a day, people are expected to give to the poor regularly and to observe a 30 day fast during the month of Ramadan. During this time they do not smoke, eat, or drink between sunrise and sunset. Living so long apart from other Jews, Ethiopian Jews have developed their own distinctive customs of worship.

Travel Information

Please Note: This is a generalized travel guide and it is intended to coalesce several resources, which a traveler might find useful, regardless of a particular destination. As such, it does not include travel warnings for specific "hot spot" destinations.

For travel alerts and warnings, please see the United States Department of State's listings available at URL:

<http://travel.state.gov/content/passports/english/alertswarnings.html>

Please note that travel to the following countries, based on these warnings, is ill-advised, or should be undertaken with the utmost precaution:

Afghanistan, Algeria, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, El Salvador, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guinea,

Honduras, Iraq, Iran, Lebanon, Liberia, Libya, Mali, Mauritania, Mexico, Nepal, Niger, Nigeria, North Korea, Pakistan, Palestinian Territories of West Bank and Gaza, Philippines areas of Sulu Archipelago, Mindanao, and southern Sulu Sea, Saudi Arabia, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, Ukraine, Venezuela, and Yemen.

International Travel Guide

Checklist for Travelers

1. Take out travel insurance to cover hospital treatment or medical evacuation. Overseas medical costs are expensive to most international travelers, where one's domestic, nationalized or even private health insurance plans will not provide coverage outside one's home country. Learn about "reciprocal insurance plans" that some international health care companies might offer.
2. Make sure that one's travel insurance is appropriate. If one intends to indulge in adventurous activities, such as parasailing, one should be sure that one is fully insured in such cases. Many traditional insurance policies do not provide coverage in cases of extreme circumstances.
3. Take time to learn about one's destination country and culture. Read and learn about the place one is traveling. Also check political, economic and socio-cultural developments at the destination by reading country-specific travel reports and fact sheets noted below.
4. Get the necessary visas for the country (or countries) one intends to visit - but be aware that a visa does not guarantee entry. A number of useful sites regarding visa and other entry requirements are noted below.
5. Keep in regular contact with friends and relatives back at home by phone or email, and be sure to leave a travel itinerary.
6. Protect one's personal information by making copies of one's passport details, insurance policy, travelers checks and credit card numbers. Taking copies of such documents with you, while leaving another collection copies with someone at home is also good practice for travelers. Taking copies of one's passport photograph is also recommended.
7. Stay healthy by taking all possible precautions against illness. Also, be sure to take extra supplies of prescription drugs along for the trip, while also taking time to pack general pharmaceutical supplies, such as aspirin and other such painkillers, bandages, stomach ailment medication, anti-inflammatory medication and anti-bacterial medication.
8. Do not carry illicit drugs. Understand that the punishment for possession or use of illegal drugs in some countries may be capital punishment. Make sure your prescription drugs are legal in the countries you plan to visit.
9. Know the laws of one's destination country and culture; be sure to understand the repercussions of breaking those laws and regulations. Often the transparency and freedoms of the juridical system at home is not consistent with that of one's destination country. Become aware of these

complexities and subtleties before you travel.

10. For longer stays in a country, or where the security situation is volatile, one should register one's self and traveling companions at the local embassy or consulate of one's country of citizenship.

11. Women should take care to be prepared both culturally and practically for traveling in a different country and culture. One should be sure to take sufficient supplies of personal feminine products and prescription drugs. One should also learn about local cultural standards for women, including norms of dressing. Be aware that it is simply inappropriate and unsafe for women to travel alone in some countries, and take the necessary precautions to avoid risk-filled situations.

12. If one is traveling with small children, one should pack extra supplies, make arrangements with the travel carrier for proper seating that would adequately accommodate children, infants or toddlers. Note also that whether one is male or female, traveling with children means that one's hands are thus not free to carry luggage and bags. Be especially aware that this makes one vulnerable to pickpockets, thieves and other sorts of crime.

13. Make proper arrangements for accommodations, well in advance of one's arrival at a destination. Some countries have limited accommodation, while others may have culturally distinctive facilities. Learning about these practicalities before one travels will greatly aid the enjoyment of one's trip.

14. Travel with different forms of currency and money (cash, traveler's checks and credit cards) in anticipation that venues may not accept one or another form of money. Also, ensuring that one's financial resources are not contained in one location, or by one person (if one is traveling with others) can be a useful measure, in the event that one loses a wallet or purse.

15. Find out about transportation in the destination country. In some places, it might be advisable to hire a local driver or taxi guide for safety reasons, while in other countries, enjoying one's travel experience may well be enhanced by renting a vehicle and seeing the local sights and culture independently. Costs may also be prohibitive for either of these choices, so again, prior planning is suggested.

Tips for Travelers

A passport and a valid Ethiopian visa are required to enter or transit Ethiopia. Due to animosity stemming from the recent border conflict with Eritrea, those citizens of Eritrean origin who travel to Ethiopia may experience delays in processing of their visa applications, as all such applications must be cleared through the main Ethiopian immigration office in Addis Ababa, the capital. Laptop computers must be declared upon arrival and departure. Tape recorders require special customs permits.

Ethiopia does not recognize dual nationality. The Ethiopian Government may not recognize the Ethiopian citizenship of those Ethiopian citizens who have become naturalized citizens of other countries. Ethiopian citizens who attempt to conceal their dual citizenship from Ethiopian

authorities may face difficulties.

Although Ethiopia and Eritrea signed a peace treaty, foreign citizens should exercise caution if traveling to the northern Tigray and Afar regions (within 50km/30 miles of the Ethiopian/Eritrean border) because of land mines and unsettled conditions in the border area. As a result of the tensions, the Government of Ethiopia has occasionally deported some people of Eritrean origin. Citizens of all backgrounds should stay clear of security operations and should not try to intercede with police on behalf of Eritreans or anyone else.

Armed attacks apparently targeting foreigners have occurred in Ethiopia. Foreign citizens throughout Ethiopia are advised to consider carefully security implications when visiting public places such as markets, restaurants, bars, nightclubs and hotel lobbies. It is advisable to lodge at larger hotels that offer better security.

Travel to the Ogaden region of Ethiopia is considered to be very dangerous due to incidents of clan fighting, armed banditry, threats of kidnapping and violence, all which may target foreigners. Travel in this region should not be attempted. Exercise particular caution in the towns of Harar and Dire Dawa.

In southern Ethiopia along the Kenyan border, banditry and incidents involving ethnic conflicts are common.

In western Ethiopia, the western-most tip of the Gambella Region is subject to inter-ethnic conflict and to political violence originating from Sudan. Visitors should seek current guidance from the Embassy in Addis Ababa or local officials before traveling to other areas along the Sudan border.

Travel in Ethiopia via rail is also strongly discouraged due to episodes of sabotage and derailment as recently as the summer of 2000.

Pickpocketing and other petty crimes are prevalent in urban areas. There are occasional reports of thieves snatching jewelry. Visitors should exercise normal caution, not wear excessive jewelry or carry large sums of money, and keep wallets and other valuables where they will be less susceptible to pickpockets. Armed banditry can occur on roads outside major towns or cities and may be accompanied by violence.

The loss or theft abroad of a passport should be reported immediately to local police and to the nearest appropriate embassy or consulate.

Health facilities are extremely limited in Addis Ababa and completely inadequate outside the capital. Although physicians are generally well trained, even the best hospitals in Addis Ababa suffer from inadequate facilities, antiquated equipment and shortages of supplies (particularly

medicine). Emergency assistance is limited. Travelers must bring their own supplies of prescription drugs and preventive medicines.

Consult with your medical insurance company prior to traveling abroad to confirm whether their policy applies overseas and whether it will cover emergency expenses such as a medical evacuation. Many travel agents and private companies offer insurance plans that will cover health care expenses incurred overseas including emergency services such as medical evacuations.

When making a decision regarding health insurance, consider that many foreign doctors and hospitals require payment in cash prior to providing service and that a medical evacuation to the your home country. Uninsured travelers who require medical care overseas often face extreme difficulties. When consulting with your insurer prior to your trip, ascertain whether payment will be made to the overseas healthcare provider or whether you will be reimbursed later for expenses you incur. Some insurance policies also include coverage for psychiatric treatment and for disposition of remains in the event of death.

Ethiopia is a mountainous country in which the high altitude may cause health problems even for healthy travelers. Addis Ababa is located at an altitude of 8000 feet. Individuals may experience shortness of breath, fatigue, nausea, headaches, and inability to sleep.

While in a foreign country, you may encounter road conditions that differ significantly from those in your home country. The information below concerning Ethiopia is provided for general reference only and may not be totally accurate in a particular location or circumstance.

Safety of Public Transportation: Poor

Urban Road Conditions/Maintenance: Fair

Rural Road Conditions/Maintenance: Poor

Availability of Roadside Assistance: Poor

While travel on both paved and unpaved roads is generally considered safe, land mines and other anti-personnel devices can be encountered on isolated dirt roads that were targeted during various conflicts. Before undertaking any off-road travel, it is advisable to inquire with local authorities to ensure that the area has been cleared of mines. Excessive speed, unpredictable local driving habits, pedestrians and livestock in the roadway, and the lack of basic safety equipment on many vehicles are daily hazards on Ethiopian roads. In addition, road travel after dark outside Addis Ababa and other cities is dangerous due to broken-down vehicles left on the roads, people using the roads, stray animals, and the possibility of armed robbery in some locations. Road lighting in cities is inadequate at best and nonexistent outside of cities.

Permits are required before either antiques or animal skins can be exported from Ethiopia. Antique religious artifacts, including "Ethiopian" crosses, require documentation from the National Museum

in Addis Ababa for export. Laptop computers must be declared upon arrival and departure. Tape recorders require special customs permits.

While in a foreign country, you are subject to that country's laws and regulations. Penalties for breaking the law can be more severe than in your country for similar offenses. Persons violating Ethiopian laws, even unknowingly, may be arrested, imprisoned, or expelled. Penalties for possession, use or trafficking in illegal drugs in Ethiopia are strict and convicted offenders can expect jail sentences and heavy fines.

Visitors must declare foreign currency upon arrival and may be required to present this declaration when applying for an exit visa. Official and black market exchange rates are nearly the same. Penalties for exchanging money on the black market range from fines to imprisonment. Credit cards are not accepted at most hotels, restaurants, shops, or other local facilities, although they are accepted at the Hilton and Sheraton Hotels in Addis Ababa. Foreigners are generally required to pay for hotel and car rental in foreign currency.

Ethiopian law strictly prohibits the photographing of military installations, police/military personnel, industrial facilities, government buildings and infrastructure (roads, bridges, dams, airfields, etc.). Such sites are rarely clearly marked. Travel guides, police, and Ethiopian officials can advise if a particular site may be photographed. Photographing prohibited sites may result in the confiscation of film and camera.

In Ethiopia there is a high risk of earthquakes.

Note: This information is directly quoted from the United States Department of State Consular Information Sheet.

Sources: *United States Department of State Consular Information Sheet*

Business Culture: Information for Business Travelers

Ethiopians are formal during the first meeting and become less so once friendship is developed. Persons are universally addressed by first name rather than by last name (no family name). For a man, the common title (comparable to "Mister") is "Ato" and for a woman is "Weizero" (Mrs.) if married and "Weizerit" (Miss) if single. Business is often conducted at the office, over lunch or dinner. Business entertainment may be conducted at relaxed events such as the Azmari Bet (traditional music place), restaurants, or even in personal residences. Business hours are usually from 8:30 am or 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. (17:00) or 6 p.m. (18:00). Most businesses close during the lunch hour. Visitors must declare hard currency upon arrival and may be required to present the declaration upon departure. There are strict penalties for exchanging money on the black market. Credit cards are not widely accepted.

Ethiopia's main dish is called "wot," which is meat or vegetables cooked in a hot, spicy sauce. This is traditionally eaten with a flat, spongy bread called "injera." In larger hotels and restaurants menus are to international standards. In Addis Ababa there are a number of restaurants serving Continental, Italian, French, Greek, Armenian, Middle Eastern, Indian, and Chinese food.

There are more than 80 major language groups in Ethiopia, although the national language, Amharic, is spoken throughout the country. Oromiffa and Tigrinya are other widely-used Ethiopian languages. English is the second official language and is understood in most towns and among the educated sector of the population.

Sources: *United States Department of State Commercial Guides*

Online Resources Regarding Entry Requirements and Visas

Foreign Entry Requirements for Americans from the United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/cis_pa_tw/cis/cis_1765.html

Visa Services for Non-Americans from the United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/visa/visa_1750.html

Visa Bulletins from the United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/visa/frvi/bulletin/bulletin_1360.html

Visa Waivers from the United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/visa/temp/without/without_1990.html - new

Passport and Visa Information from the Government of the United Kingdom

<http://www.bia.homeoffice.gov.uk/>

Visa Information from the Government of Australia

<http://www.dfat.gov.au/visas/index.html>

Passport Information from the Government of Australia

<https://www.passports.gov.au/Web/index.aspx>

Passport Information from the Government of Canada

http://www.voyage.gc.ca/preparation_information/passport_passeport-eng.asp

Visa Information from the Government of Canada

http://www.voyage.gc.ca/preparation_information/visas-eng.asp

Online Visa Processing by Immigration Experts by VisaPro

<http://www.visapro.com>

Sources: United States Department of State, United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Government of Australia: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Government of Canada Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade

Useful Online Resources for Travelers

Country-Specific Travel Information from United States

http://travel.state.gov/travel/cis_pa_tw/cis/cis_1765.html

Travel Advice by Country from Government of United Kingdom

<http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/travelling-and-living-overseas/travel-advice-by-country/>

General Travel Advice from Government of Australia

<http://www.smartraveller.gov.au/zw-cgi/view/Advice/General>

Travel Bulletins from the Government of Australia

<http://www.smartraveller.gov.au/zw-cgi/view/TravelBulletins/>

Travel Tips from Government of Australia

<http://www.smartraveller.gov.au/tips/index.html>

Travel Checklist by Government of Canada

http://www.voyage.gc.ca/preparation_information/checklist_sommaire-eng.asp

Travel Checklist from Government of United Kingdom

<http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/travelling-and-living-overseas/staying-safe/checklist>

Your trip abroad from United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/tips/brochures/brochures_1225.html

A safe trip abroad from United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/tips/safety/safety_1747.html

Tips for expatriates abroad from United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/living/residing/residing_1235.html

Tips for students from United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/living/studying/studying_1238.html <http://travel.state.gov/travel/tips/brocl>

Medical information for travelers from United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/tips/health/health_1185.html

US Customs Travel information

<http://www.customs.gov/xp/cgov/travel/>

Sources: United States Department of State; United States Customs Department, United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Government of Australia; Government of Canada: Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade

Other Practical Online Resources for Travelers

Foreign Language Phrases for Travelers

<http://www.travlang.com/languages/>

<http://www.omniglot.com/language/phrases/index.htm>

World Weather Forecasts

<http://www.intellicast.com/>

<http://www.wunderground.com/>

<http://www.worldweather.org/>

Worldwide Time Zones, Map, World Clock

<http://www.timeanddate.com/>

<http://www.worldtimezone.com/>

International Airport Codes

<http://www.world-airport-codes.com/>

International Dialing Codes

<http://www.kropla.com/dialcode.htm>

<http://www.countrycallingcodes.com/>

International Phone Guide

<http://www.kropla.com/phones.htm>

International Mobile Phone Guide

<http://www.kropla.com/mobilephones.htm>

International Internet Café Search Engine

<http://cybercaptive.com/>

Global Internet Roaming

<http://www.kropla.com/roaming.htm>

World Electric Power Guide

<http://www.kropla.com/electric.htm>

<http://www.kropla.com/electric2.htm>

World Television Standards and Codes

<http://www.kropla.com/tv.htm>

International Currency Exchange Rates

<http://www.xe.com/ucc/>

Banking and Financial Institutions Across the World

<http://www.123world.com/banks/index.html>

International Credit Card or Automated Teller Machine (ATM) Locator

<http://visa.via.infonow.net/locator/global/>

<http://www.mastercard.com/us/personal/en/cardholderservices/atmlocations/index.html>

International Chambers of Commerce

<http://www.123world.com/chambers/index.html>

World Tourism Websites

<http://123world.com/tourism/>

Diplomatic and Consular Information

United States Diplomatic Posts Around the World

<http://www.usembassy.gov/>

United Kingdom Diplomatic Posts Around the World

<http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/about-the-fco/embassies-and-posts/find-an-embassy-overseas/>

Australia's Diplomatic Posts Around the World

<http://www.dfat.gov.au/missions/>

<http://www.dfat.gov.au/embassies.html>

Canada's Embassies and High Commissions

<http://www.international.gc.ca/ciw-cdm/embassies-ambassades.aspx>

Resources for Finding Embassies and other Diplomatic Posts Across the World

<http://www.escapeartist.com/embassy1/embassy1.htm>

Safety and Security

Travel Warnings by Country from Government of Australia

<http://www.smarttraveller.gov.au/zw-cgi/view/Advice/>

Travel Warnings and Alerts from United States Department of State

http://travel.state.gov/travel/cis_pa_tw/tw/tw_1764.html

http://travel.state.gov/travel/cis_pa_tw/pa/pa_1766.html

Travel Reports and Warnings by Government of Canada

http://www.voyage.gc.ca/countries_pays/menu-eng.asp

http://www.voyage.gc.ca/countries_pays/updates_mise-a-jour-eng.asp

Travel Warnings from Government of United Kingdom

<http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/travelling-and-living-overseas/travel-advice-by-country/>

<http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/travelling-and-living-overseas/travel-advice-by-country/?action=noTravelAll#noTravelAll>

Sources: United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth Office, the United States Department of State, the Government of Canada: Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, Government of Australia: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade

Other Safety and Security Online Resources for Travelers

United States Department of State Information on Terrorism

<http://www.state.gov/s/ct/>

Government of the United Kingdom Resource on the Risk of Terrorism

<http://www.fco.gov.uk/servlet/Front?>

[pagename=OpenMarket/Xcelerate/ShowPage&c=Page&cid=1044011304926](#)

Government of Canada Terrorism Guide

<http://www.international.gc.ca/crime/terrorism-terrorisme.aspx?lang=eng>

Information on Terrorism by Government of Australia

<http://www.dfat.gov.au/icat/index.html>

FAA Resource on Aviation Safety

<http://www.faasafety.gov/>

In-Flight Safety Information for Air Travel (by British Airways crew trainer, Anna Warman)

<http://www.warman.demon.co.uk/anna/inflight.html>

Hot Spots: Travel Safety and Risk Information

<http://www.airsecurity.com/hotspots/HotSpots.asp>

Information on Human Rights

<http://www.state.gov/g/drl/hr/>

Sources: The United States Department of State, the United States Customs Department, the Government of Canada, the Government of United Kingdom, the Government of Australia, the Federal Aviation Authority, Anna Warman's In-flight Website, Hot Spots Travel and Risk Information

Diseases/Health Data

Please Note: Most of the entry below constitutes a generalized health advisory, which a traveler might find useful, regardless of a particular destination.

As a supplement, however, reader will also find below a list of countries flagged with current health notices and alerts issued by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Please note that travel to the following countries, based on these 3 levels of warnings, is ill-advised, or should be undertaken with the utmost precaution:

Level 3 (highest level of concern; avoid non-essential travel) --

**Guinea - Ebola
Liberia - Ebola
Nepal - Earthquake zone
Sierra Leone - Ebola**

Level 2 (intermediate level of concern; use utmost caution during travel) --

**Cameroon - Polio
Somalia - Polio
Vanuatu - Tropical Cyclone zone
Throughout Middle East and Arabia Peninsula - MERS ((Middle East Respiratory Syndrome)**

Level 1 (standard level of concern; use practical caution during travel) -

**Australia - Ross River disease
Bosnia-Herzegovina - Measles
Brazil - Dengue Fever
Brazil - Malaria
Brazil - Zika
China - H7N9 Avian flu
Cuba - Cholera
Egypt - H5N1 Bird flu
Ethiopia - Measles
Germany - Measles
Japan - Hand, foot, and mouth disease (HFMD)
Kyrgyzstan - Measles
Malaysia -Dengue Fever
Mexico - Chikungunya
Mexico - Hepatitis A
Nigeria - Meningitis
Philippines - Measles
Scotland - Mumps**

Singapore - Hand, foot, and mouth disease (HFMD)
South Korea - MERS ((Middle East Respiratory Syndrome)
Throughout Caribbean - Chikungunya
Throughout Central America - Chikungunya
Throughout South America - Chikungunya
Throughout Pacific Islands - Chikungunya

For specific information related to these health notices and alerts please see the CDC's listing available at URL:

<http://wwwnc.cdc.gov/travel/notices>

Health Information for Travelers to Ethiopia

Several cases of African trypanosomiasis (African sleeping sickness) have been reported from this region recently, including cases among tourists visiting game parks.

Also, please check the Outbreaks section for important updates on this region, including information on the Epidemic of Meningococcal Disease in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (<http://www.cdc.gov/travel/outbreaks.htm>).

Food and waterborne diseases are the number one cause of illness in travelers. Travelers' diarrhea can be caused by viruses, bacteria, or parasites, which are found throughout the region and can contaminate food or water. Infections may cause diarrhea and vomiting (*E. coli*, *Salmonella*, cholera, and parasites), fever (typhoid fever and toxoplasmosis), or liver damage (hepatitis). Make sure your food and drinking water are safe. (See below.)

Malaria is a preventable infection that can be fatal if left untreated. Prevent infection by taking prescription antimalarial drugs and protecting yourself against mosquito bites (see below). Most travelers to malaria risk areas in this region should take mefloquine to prevent malaria. You can be infected with malaria in all areas of this region except the cities of Addis Ababa, Ismara, and Nairobi, the islands of Reunion and Seychelles, and in highland areas above 2,500 meters. For more detailed information about the risk in specific locations, see Malaria in East Africa (<http://www.cdc.gov/travel/regionalmalaria/eafrica.htm>).

A certificate of yellow fever vaccine may be required for entry into certain of these countries. For detailed information, see Comprehensive Yellow Fever Vaccination Requirements (<http://www.cdc.gov/travel/yelfever.htm>).

Dengue, filariasis, leishmaniasis, onchocerciasis, trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness), and Rift

Valley fever are diseases carried by insects that also occur in this region. Protecting yourself against insect bites will help to prevent these diseases.

Schistosomiasis, a parasitic infection, is found in fresh water in the region, including Lake Malawi. Do not swim in fresh water (except in well-chlorinated swimming pools) in these countries. (For more information, please see the Swimming Precautions on the Making Travel Safe page at URL <http://www.cdc.gov/travel/safety.htm>.)

Because motor vehicle crashes are a leading cause of injury among travelers, walk and drive defensively. Avoid nighttime travel if possible and always use seat belts.

CDC Recommends the Following Vaccines (as Appropriate for Age):

See your doctor at least 4-6 weeks before your trip to allow time for shots to take effect.

- Hepatitis A or immune globulin (IG).
- Hepatitis B, if you might be exposed to blood (for example, health-care workers), have sexual contact with the local population, stay longer than 6 months, or be exposed through medical treatment.
- Meningococcal (meningitis) vaccine, if you plan to visit the western half of Ethiopia (see meningitis map at URL <http://www.cdc.gov/travel/meninmap.htm>) from December through June.
- Rabies, if you might be exposed to wild or domestic animals through your work or recreation.
- Typhoid, particularly if you are visiting developing countries in this region.
- Yellow fever, if you travel anywhere outside urban areas.
- As needed, booster doses for tetanus-diphtheria, measles, and a one-time dose of polio vaccine for adults. Hepatitis B vaccine is now recommended for all infants and for children ages 11-12 years who did not receive the series as infants.

To Stay Healthy, Do:

- Wash hands often with soap and water.
- Drink only bottled or boiled water, or carbonated (bubbly) drinks in cans or bottles. Avoid tap water, fountain drinks, and ice cubes. If this is not possible, make water safer by BOTH filtering through an "absolute 1-micron or less" filter AND adding iodine tablets to the filtered water. "Absolute 1-micron filter" are found in camping/outdoor supply stores.
- Eat only thoroughly cooked food or fruits and vegetables you have peeled yourself. Remember: boil it, cook it, peel it, or forget it.
- If you travel to an area where there is risk for malaria, take your malaria prevention medication before, during, and after travel, as directed. (See your doctor for a prescription.)
- Protect yourself from insects by remaining in well-screened areas, using repellents (applied sparingly at 4-hour intervals) and permethrin-impregnated mosquito nets, and wearing long-sleeved

shirts and long pants from dusk through dawn.

- To prevent fungal and parasitic infections, keep feet clean and dry, and do not go barefoot.
- Always use latex condoms to reduce the risk of HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases.

To Avoid Getting Sick:

- Don't eat food purchased from street vendors.
- Don't drink beverages with ice.
- Don't eat dairy products unless you know they have been pasteurized.
- Don't share needles with anyone.
- Don't handle animals (especially monkeys, dogs, and cats), to avoid bites and serious diseases (including rabies and plague). (For more information, please see the Animal-Associated Hazards on the Making Travel Safe page.)
- Don't swim in fresh water, including Lake Malawi. Salt water is usually safer. (For more information, please see the Swimming Precautions on the Making Travel Safe page.)

What You Need To Bring with You:

- Long-sleeved shirt and long pants to wear while outside whenever possible, to prevent illnesses carried by insects (e.g., malaria, dengue, filariasis, leishmaniasis, and onchocerciasis).
- Insect repellent containing DEET (diethylmethyltoluamide), in 30%-35% strength for adults and 6%-10% for children. Unless you are staying in air-conditioned or well-screened housing, purchase a bed net impregnated with the insecticide permethrin. (Bed nets can be purchased in camping or military supply stores.)
- Over-the-counter antidiarrheal medicine to take if you have diarrhea.
- Iodine tablets and water filters to purify water if bottled water is not available. See Do's above for more detailed information about water filters.
- Sunblock, sunglasses, hat.
- Prescription medications: make sure you have enough to last during your trip, as well as a copy of the prescription(s).

After You Return Home:

If you have visited an area where there is risk for malaria, continue taking your malaria medication weekly for 4 weeks after you leave the area.

If you become ill after your trip—even as long as a year after you return—tell your doctor where you have traveled.

For More Information:

Ask your doctor or check the CDC web sites for more information about how to protect yourself against diseases that occur in East Africa, such as:

For information about diseases-

Carried by Insects

Dengue, Malaria, Yellow Fever

Carried in Food or Water

Cholera, *Escherichia coli*, diarrhea, Hepatitis A, Schistosomiasis, Typhoid Fever

Person-to-Person Contact

Hepatitis B, HIV/AIDS

For more information about these and other diseases, please check the Diseases (<http://www.cdc.gov/travel/diseases.htm>) section and the Health Topics A-Z (<http://www.cdc.gov/health/diseases.htm>).

Note:

Ethiopia is located in the East Africa health region.

Sources:

The Center for Disease Control Destinations Website:

<http://www.cdc.gov/travel/indianrg.htm>

Chapter 6

Environmental Overview

Environmental Issues

General Overview:

Most of Ethiopia 's environmental challenges are a consequence of the political turmoil that it has experienced over the course of time. In recent times, population pressures have added another dimension by further degrading already-affected lands. Of these effects, deforestation is itself both an effect, and the impetus for further degradation, in the form of soil erosion.

Current Issues:

- Deforestation
- Overgrazing
- Soil erosion
- Desertification
- Famine
- Loss of bio-diversity

Total Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Mtc):

16.1

Country Rank (GHG output):

69th

Natural Hazards:

- earthquakes

- volcanic eruptions
- frequent droughts

Environmental Policy

Regulation and Jurisdiction:

The regulation and protection of the environment in Ethiopia is under the jurisdiction of the following:

- Ministry of Agriculture
- Ministry of Water Resources
- The Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Organization

Major Non-Governmental Organizations:

N/A

International Environmental Accords:

Party to:

- Biodiversity
- Climate Change
- Desertification
- Endangered Species
- Hazardous Wastes
- Ozone Layer Protection

Signed but not ratified:

- Environmental Modification
- Law of the Sea
- Nuclear Test Ban

Kyoto Protocol Status (year ratified):

2005

Greenhouse Gas Ranking

Greenhouse Gas Ranking

GHG Emissions Rankings

Country Rank	Country
1	United States
2	China
4	Russia
5	Japan
6	India
7	Germany

8	United Kingdom
9	Canada
10	Korea, South
11	Italy
12	Mexico
13	France
14	South Africa
15	Iran
16	Indonesia
17	Australia
18	Spain
19	Brazil
20	Saudi Arabia
21	Ukraine
22	Poland
23	Taiwan
24	Turkey
25	Thailand

26	Netherlands
27	Kazakhstan
28	Malaysia
29	Egypt
30	Venezuela
31	Argentina
32	Uzbekistan
33	Czech Republic
34	Belgium
35	Pakistan
36	Romania
37	Greece
38	United Arab Emirates
39	Algeria
40	Nigeria
41	Austria
42	Iraq
43	Finland

44	Philippines
45	Vietnam
46	Korea, North
47	Israel
48	Portugal
49	Colombia
50	Belarus
51	Kuwait
52	Hungary
53	Chile
54	Denmark
55	Serbia & Montenegro
56	Sweden
57	Syria
58	Libya
59	Bulgaria
60	Singapore
61	Switzerland

62	Ireland
63	Turkmenistan
64	Slovakia
65	Bangladesh
66	Morocco
67	New Zealand
68	Oman
69	Qatar
70	Azerbaijan
71	Norway
72	Peru
73	Cuba
74	Ecuador
75	Trinidad & Tobago
76	Croatia
77	Tunisia
78	Dominican Republic
79	Lebanon

80	Estonia
81	Yemen
82	Jordan
83	Slovenia
84	Bahrain
85	Angola
86	Bosnia & Herzegovina
87	Lithuania
88	Sri Lanka
89	Zimbabwe
90	Bolivia
91	Jamaica
92	Guatemala
93	Luxembourg
94	Myanmar
95	Sudan
96	Kenya
97	Macedonia

98	Mongolia
99	Ghana
100	Cyprus
101	Moldova
102	Latvia
103	El Salvador
104	Brunei
105	Honduras
106	Cameroon
107	Panama
108	Costa Rica
109	Cote d'Ivoire
110	Kyrgyzstan
111	Tajikistan
112	Ethiopia
113	Senegal
114	Uruguay
115	Gabon

116	Albania
117	Nicaragua
118	Botswana
119	Paraguay
120	Tanzania
121	Georgia
122	Armenia
123	Congo, RC
124	Mauritius
125	Nepal
126	Mauritius
127	Nepal
128	Mauritania
129	Malta
130	Papua New Guinea
131	Zambia
132	Suriname
133	Iceland

134	Togo
135	Benin
136	Uganda
137	Bahamas
138	Haiti
139	Congo, DRC
140	Guyana
141	Mozambique
142	Guinea
143	Equatorial Guinea
144	Laos
145	Barbados
146	Niger
147	Fiji
148	Burkina Faso
149	Malawi
150	Swaziland
151	Belize

152	Afghanistan
153	Sierra Leone
154	Eritrea
155	Rwanda
156	Mali
157	Seychelles
158	Cambodia
159	Liberia
160	Bhutan
161	Maldives
162	Antigua & Barbuda
163	Djibouti
164	Saint Lucia
165	Gambia
166	Guinea-Bissau
167	Central African Republic
168	Palau
169	Burundi

170	Grenada
171	Lesotho
172	Saint Vincent & the Grenadines
173	Solomon Islands
174	Samoa
175	Cape Verde
176	Nauru
177	Dominica
178	Saint Kitts & Nevis
179	Chad
180	Tonga
181	Sao Tome & Principe
182	Comoros
183	Vanuatu
185	Kiribati
Not Ranked	Andorra
Not Ranked	East Timor
Not Ranked	Holy See

Not Ranked	Hong Kong
Not Ranked	Liechtenstein
Not Ranked	Marshall Islands
Not Ranked	Micronesia
Not Ranked	Monaco
Not Ranked	San Marino
Not Ranked	Somalia
Not Ranked	Tuvalu

* European Union is ranked 3rd

Cook Islands are ranked 184th

Niue is ranked 186th

Global Environmental Snapshot

Introduction

The countries of the world face many environmental challenges in common. Nevertheless, the nature and intensity of problem vary from region to region, as do various countries' respective capacities, in terms of affluence and infrastructure, to remediate threats to environmental quality.

Consciousness of perils affecting the global environment came to the fore in the last third or so of the 20th century has continued to intensify well into the new millennium. According to the United Nations Environment Programme, considerable environmental progress has been made at the level of institutional developments, international cooperation accords, and public participation. Approximately two-dozen international environmental protection accords with global implications have been promulgated since the late 1970s under auspices of the United Nations and other

international organizations, together with many additional regional agreements. Attempts to address and rectify environmental problems take the form of legal frameworks, economic instruments, environmentally sound technologies and cleaner production processes as well as conservation efforts. Environmental impact assessments have increasingly been applied across the globe.

Environmental degradation affects the quality, or aesthetics, of human life, but it also displays potential to undermine conditions necessary for the sustainability of human life. Attitudes toward the importance of environmental protection measures reflect ambivalence derived from this bifurcation. On one hand, steps such as cleaning up pollution, dedicating parkland, and suchlike, are seen as embellishments undertaken by wealthy societies already assured they can successfully perform those functions deemed, ostensibly, more essential-for instance, public health and education, employment and economic development. On the other hand, in poorer countries, activities causing environmental damage-for instance the land degradation effects of unregulated logging, slash-and-burn agriculture, overgrazing, and mining-can seem justified insofar as such activities provide incomes and livelihoods.

Rapid rates of resource depletion are associated with poverty and high population growth, themselves correlated, whereas consumption per capita is much higher in the most developed countries, despite these nations' recent progress in energy efficiency and conservation. It is impossible to sequester the global environmental challenge from related economic, social and political challenges.

First-tier industrialized countries have recently achieved measurable decreases in environmental pollution and the rate of resource depletion, a success not matched in middle income and developing countries. It is believed that the discrepancy is due to the fact that industrialized countries have more developed infrastructures to accommodate changes in environmental policy, to apply environmental technologies, and to invest in public education. The advanced industrialized countries incur relatively lower costs in alleviating environmental problems, in comparison to developing countries, since in the former even extensive environmental programs represent a rather minuscule percentage of total expenditures. Conversely, budget constraints, lagged provision of basic services to the population, and other factors such as debt service and militarization may preclude institution of minimal environmental protection measures in the poorest countries.

A synopsis for the current situation facing each region of the world follows:

Regional Synopsis: Africa

The African continent, the world's second-largest landmass, encompasses many of the world's least developed countries. By global standards, urbanization is comparatively low but rising at a rapid rate. More heavily industrialized areas at the northern and southern ends of the continent

experience the major share of industrial pollution. In other regions the most serious environmental problems typically stem from inefficient subsistence farming methods and other forms of land degradation, which have affected an increasingly extensive area under pressure of a widely impoverished, fast-growing population. Africa's distribution of natural resources is very uneven. It is the continent at greatest risk of desertification, especially in the Sahel region at the edge of the Sahara but also in other dry-range areas. Yet at the same time, Africa also harbors some of the earth's richest and most diverse biological zones.

Key Points:

Up to half a billion hectares of African land are moderately to severely degraded, an occurrence reflecting short-fallow shifting cultivation and overgrazing as well as a climatic pattern of recurrent droughts.

Soil degradation is severe along the expanse directly south of the Sahara, from the west to the east coasts. Parts of southern Africa, central-eastern Africa, and the neighboring island of Madagascar suffer from serious soil degradation as well.

Africa contains about 17 percent of the world's forest cover, concentrated in the tropical belt of the continent. Many of the forests, however, are severely depleted, with an estimated 70 percent showing some degree of degradation.

Population growth has resulted in continuing loss of arable land, as inefficient subsistence farming techniques affect increasingly extensive areas. Efforts to implement settled, sustainable agriculture have met with some recent success, but much further progress in this direction is needed. Especially in previously uninhabited forestlands, concern over deforestation is intensifying.

By contrast, the African savanna remains the richest grassland in the world, supporting a substantial concentration of animal and plant life. Wildlife parks are sub-Saharan Africa's greatest tourist attraction, and with proper management-giving local people a stake in conservation and controlling the pace of development-could greatly enhance African economies.

Significant numbers of mammal species in parts of northern, southern and eastern Africa are currently threatened, while the biological diversity in Mauritania and Madagascar is even further compromised with over 20 percent of the mammal species in these two countries currently under threat.

With marine catch trends increasing from 500,000 metric tons in the 1950s to over 3,000,000 metric tons by 2000, there was increasing concern about the reduction in fisheries and marine life, should this trend continue unabated.

Water resource vulnerability is a major concern in northeastern Africa, and a moderate concern across the rest of the continent. An exception is central Africa, which has plentiful water supplies.

Many Africans lack adequate access to resources, not just (if at all) because the resources are unevenly distributed geographically, but also through institutional failures such as faulty land tenure systems or political upheaval. The quality of Africa's natural resources, despite their spotty distribution, is in fact extraordinarily rich. The infrastructure needed to protect and benefit from this natural legacy, however, is largely lacking.

Regional Synopsis: Asia and the Pacific

Asia-earth's largest landmass-and the many large and nearly innumerable small islands lying off its Pacific shore display extraordinarily contrasting landscapes, levels of development, and degrees of environmental stress. In the classification used here, the world's smallest continent, Australia, is also included in the Asia-Pacific region.

The Asia-Pacific region is home to 9 of the world's 14 largest urban areas, and as energy use for utilities, industry and transport increases in developing economies, urban centers are subject to worsening air quality. Intense population density in places such as Bangladesh or Hong Kong is the quintessential image many people have of Asia, yet vast desert areas such as the Gobi and the world's highest mountain range, the Himalayas, span the continent as well. Forested areas in Southeast Asia and the islands of Indonesia and the Philippines were historically prized for their tropical hardwood, but in many places this resource is now severely depleted. Low-lying small island states are extremely vulnerable to the effects of global warming, both rising sea levels and an anticipated increase in cyclones.

Key Points:

Asian timber reserves are forecast to be depleted in the next 40 years. Loss of natural forest is irreversible in some areas, but plantation programs to restore tree cover may ameliorate a portion of the resulting land degradation.

Increased usage of fossil fuels in China and other parts of southern Asia is projected to result in a marked increase in emissions, especially in regard to carbon dioxide. The increased usage of energy has led to a marked upsurge in air pollution across the region.

Acidification is an emerging problem regionally, with sulfur dioxide emissions expected to triple by 2010 if the current growth rate is sustained. China, Thailand, India, and Korea seem to be suffering from particularly high rates of acid deposition. By contrast, Asia's most highly developed economy, Japan, has effected substantial improvements in its environmental indicators.

Water pollution in the Pacific is an urgent concern since up to 70 percent of the water discharged into the region's waters receives no treatment. Additionally, the disposal of solid wastes, in like manner, poses a major threat in a region with many areas of high population density.

The Asia-Pacific region is the largest expanse of the world's land that is adversely affected by soil degradation.

The region around Australia reportedly suffers the largest degree of ozone depletion.

The microstates of the Pacific suffer land loss due to global warming, and the consequent rise in the levels of ocean waters. A high-emissions scenario and anthropogenic climate impact at the upper end of the currently predicted range would probably force complete evacuation of the lowest-elevation islands sometime in this century.

The species-rich reefs surrounding Southeast Asia are highly vulnerable to the deleterious effects of coastal development, land-based pollution, over-fishing and exploitative fishing methods, as well as marine pollution from oil spills and other activities.

With marine catch trends increasing from 5,000,000 metric tons in the 1950s to over 20,000,000 metric tons by 2000, there was increasing concern about the reduction in fisheries and marine life, should this trend continue unabated.

Significant numbers of mammal species in parts of China and south-east Asia are currently threatened, while the biological diversity in India, Japan, Australia, the Philippines, Indonesia and parts of Malaysia is even further compromised with over 20 percent of the mammal species in these countries currently under threat.

Water resource vulnerability is a serious concern in areas surrounding the Indian subcontinent.

Regional Synopsis: Central Asia

The Central Asian republics, formerly in the Soviet Union, experience a range of environmental problems as the result of poorly executed agricultural, industrial, and nuclear programs during the Soviet era. Relatively low population densities are the norm, especially since upon the breakup of the U.S.S.R. many ethnic Russians migrated back to European Russia. In this largely semi-arid region, drought, water shortages, and soil salinization pose major challenges.

Key Points:

The use of agricultural pesticides, such as DDT and other chemicals, has contributed to the contamination of soil and groundwater throughout the region.

Land and soil degradation, and in particular, increased salinization, is mostly attributable to faulty irrigation practices.

Significant desertification is also a problem in the region.

Air pollution is prevalent, mostly due to use of low octane automobile fuel.

Industrial pollution of the Caspian Sea and the Aral Sea, as a result of industrial effluents as well as mining and metal production, presents a challenge to the countries bordering these bodies of water.

One of the most severe environmental problems in the region is attributable to the several billion tons of hazardous materials stored in landfills across Central Asia.

Uzbekistan's particular problem involves the contraction of the Aral Sea, which has decreased in size by a third, as a consequence of river diversions and poor irrigation practices. The effect has been the near-total biological destruction of that body of water.

Kazakhstan, as a consequence of being the heartland of the former Soviet Union's nuclear program, has incurred a high of cancerous malignancies, biogenetic abnormalities and radioactive contamination.

While part of the Soviet Union, the republics in the region experienced very high levels of greenhouse gas emissions, as a consequence of rapid industrialization using cheap but dirty energy sources, especially coal.

By contrast, however, there have recently been substantial reductions in the level of greenhouse gas emissions, especially those attributable to coal burning, with further decreases anticipated over the next decade. These changes are partially due to the use of cleaner energy technologies, such as natural gas, augmented by governmental commitment to improving environmental standards.

Regional Synopsis: Europe

Western Europe underwent dramatic transformation of its landscape, virtually eliminating large-scale natural areas, during an era of rapid industrialization, which intensified upon its recovery from World War II. In Eastern Europe and European Russia, intensive land development has been less prevalent, so that some native forests and other natural areas remain. Air and water pollution from use of dirty fuels and industrial effluents, however, are more serious environmental problems in

Eastern than in Western Europe, though recent trends show improvement in many indicators. Acid rain has inflicted heavy environmental damage across much of Europe, particularly on forests. Europe and North America are the only regions in which water usage for industry exceeds that for agriculture, although in Mediterranean nations agriculture is the largest water consumer.

Key Points:

Europe contributes 36 percent of the world's chlorofluorocarbon emissions, 30 percent of carbon dioxide emissions, and 25 percent of sulfur dioxide emissions.

Sulfur and nitrogen oxide emissions are the cause of 30 to 50 percent of Central and Eastern Europe's deforestation.

Acid rain has been an environmental concern for decades and continues to be a challenge in parts of Western Europe.

Overexploitation of up to 60 percent of Europe's groundwater presents a problem in industrial and urban areas.

With marine catch trends increasing from 5,000,000 metric tons in the 1950s to over 20,000,000 metric tons by 2000, there was increasing concern about the reduction in fisheries and marine life, should this trend continue unabated.

Significant numbers of mammal species in parts of western Europe, Eastern Europe and Russia are currently threatened, while the biological diversity on the Iberian Peninsula is even further compromised with over 40 percent of the mammal species in this region currently under threat. As a result, there has been a 10 percent increase in protected areas of Europe.

A major environmental issue for Europe involves the depletion of various already endangered or threatened species, and most significantly, the decline of fish stocks. Some estimates suggest that up to 50 percent of the continent's fish species may be considered endangered species. Coastal fisheries have been over-harvested, resulting in catch limits or moratoriums on many commercially important fish species.

Fortunately, in the last few years, these policies have started to yield measurable results with decreasing trends in marine fish catch.

Recently, most European countries have adopted cleaner production technologies, and alternative methods of waste disposal, including recycling.

The countries of Eastern Europe have made air quality a major environmental priority. This is

exemplified by the Russian Federation's addition to the 1995 "Berlin Mandate" (transnational legislation based on resolutions of the Rio Earth Summit) compelling nations to promote "carbon sinks" to absorb greenhouse gases.

On a relative basis, when compared with the degree of industrial emissions emitted by many Eastern European countries until the late 1980s, there has been some marked increase in air quality in the region, as obsolete plants are closed and a transition to cleaner fuels and more efficient energy use takes place.

Regional Synopsis: The Middle and Near East

Quite possibly, the Middle East will exemplify the adage that, as the 20th century was a century fixated on oil, the 21st century will be devoted to critical decisions about water. Many (though far from all) nations in the Middle East rank among those countries with the largest oil and gas reserves, but water resources are relatively scarce throughout this predominantly dry region. Effects of global warming may cause moderately high elevation areas that now typically receive winter "snowpack" to experience mainly rain instead, which would further constrain dry-season water availability. The antiquities and religious shrines of the region render it a great magnet for tourism, which entails considerable economic growth potential but also intensifies stresses on the environment.

Key Points:

Water resource vulnerability is a serious concern across the entire region. The increased usage of, and further demand for water, has exacerbated long-standing water scarcity in the region. For instance, river diversions and industrial salt works have caused the Dead Sea to shrink by one-third from its original surface area, with further declines expected.

The oil industry in the region contributes to water pollution in the Persian Gulf, as a result of oil spills, which have averaged 1.2 million barrels of oil spilt per year (some sources suggest that this figure is understated). The consequences are severe because even after oil spills have been cleaned up, environmental damage to the food webs and ecosystems of marine life will persist for a prolonged period.

The region's coastal zone is considered one of the most fragile and endangered ecosystems of the world. Land reclamation, shoreline construction, discharge of industrial effluents, and tourism (such as diving in the Red Sea) contribute to widespread coastal damage.

Significant numbers of mammal species in parts of the Middle East are currently threatened.

Since the 1980s, 11 percent of the region's natural forest has been depleted.

Regional Synopsis: Latin America and the Caribbean

The Latin American and Caribbean region is characterized by exceedingly diverse landforms that have generally seen high rates of population growth and economic development in recent decades. The percentage of inhabitants residing in urban areas is quite high at 73.4 percent; the region includes the megacities of Mexico City, Sao Paulo, and Rio de Janeiro. The region also includes the world's second-highest mountain range, the Andes; significant expanses of desert and grassland; the coral reefs of the Caribbean Sea; and the world's largest contiguous tropical forest in the Amazon basin. Threats to the latter from subsistence and commercial farming, mineral exploitation and timbering are well publicized. Nevertheless, of eight countries worldwide that still retain at least 70 percent of their original forest cover, six are in Latin America. The region accounts for nearly half (48.3 percent) of the world's greenhouse gas emissions derived from land clearing, but as yet a comparatively minuscule share (4.3 percent) of such gases from industrial sources.

Key Points:

Although Latin America is one of the most biologically diverse regions of the world, this biodiversity is highly threatened, as exemplified by the projected extinction of up to 100,000 species in the next few decades. Much of this loss will be concentrated in the Amazon area, although the western coastline of South America will also suffer significant depletion of biological diversity. The inventory of rainforest species with potentially useful commercial or medical applications is incomplete, but presumed to include significant numbers of such species that may become extinct before they are discovered and identified.

Up to 50 percent of the region's grazing land has lost its soil fertility as a result of soil erosion, salinization, alkalinization and overgrazing.

The Caribbean Sea, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Pacific Ocean have all been contaminated by agricultural wastes, which are discharged into streams that flow into these major waters. Water pollution derived from phosphorous, nitrates and pesticides adversely affects fish stocks, contributes to oxygen depletion and fosters overgrowth of aquatic vegetation. Marine life will continue to be severely compromised as a result of these conditions.

Due to industrial development in the region, many beaches of eastern Latin America and the Caribbean suffer from tar deposits.

Most cities in the region lack adequate sewage treatment facilities, and rapid migration of the rural

poor into the cities is widening the gap between current infrastructure capacity and the much greater level needed to provide satisfactory basic services.

The rainforest region of the Amazon Basin suffers from dangerously high levels of deforestation, which may be a significant contributory factor to global warming or "the greenhouse effect." In the late 1990s and into the new millennium, the rate of deforestation was around 20 million acres of rainforest being destroyed annually.

Deforestation on the steep rainforest slopes of Caribbean islands contributes to soil erosion and landslides, both of which then result in heavy sedimentation of nearby river systems. When these sedimented rivers drain into the sea and coral reefs, they poison the coral tissues, which are vital to the maintenance of the reef ecosystem. The result is marine degradation and nutrient depletion. Jamaica's coral reefs have never quite recovered from the effects of marine degradation.

The Southern Cone of Latin America (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay) suffers the effects of greatly increased ultraviolet-B radiation, as a consequence of more intense ozone depletion in the southern hemisphere.

Water resource vulnerability is an increasingly major concern in the northwestern portion of South America.

Regional Synopsis: North America

North American nations, in particular the United States and Canada, rank among the world's most highly developed industrial economies—a fact which has generated significant pollution problems, but also financial resources and skills that have enabled many problems to be corrected. Although efforts to promote energy efficiency, recycling, and suchlike have helped ease strains on the environment in a part of the world where per capita consumption levels are high, sprawling land development patterns and recent preferences many households have demonstrated for larger vehicles have offset these advances.

Meanwhile, a large portion of North America's original forest cover has been lost, though in many cases replaced by productive second-growth woodland. In recent years, attitudes toward best use of the region's remaining natural or scenic areas seem to be shifting toward recreation and preservation and away from resource extraction. With increasing attention on the energy scarcity in the United States, however, there is speculation that this shift may be short-lived. Indeed, the energy shortage on the west coast of the United States and associated calls for energy exploration, indicate a possible retrenchment toward resource extraction. At the same time, however, it has also served to highlight the need for energy conservation as well as alternative energy sources.

Despite generally successful anti-pollution efforts, various parts of the region continue to suffer significant air, water and land degradation from industrial, vehicular, and agricultural emissions and runoff. Mexico, as a middle-income country, displays environmental problems characteristic of a developing economy, including forest depletion, pollution from inefficient industrial processes and dirty fuels, and lack of sufficient waste-treatment infrastructure.

Key Points:

Because of significantly greater motor vehicle usage in the United States (U.S.) than in the rest of the world, the U.S. contribution of urban air pollution and greenhouse gas emissions, especially carbon dioxide, is disproportionately high in relation to its population.

Acid rain is an enduring issue of contention in the northeastern part of the United States, on the border with Canada.

Mexico's urban areas suffer extreme air pollution from carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides, sulfur dioxide, and other toxic air pollutants. Emissions controls on vehicles are in their infancy, compared to analogous regulations in the U.S.

The cities of Mexico, including those on the U.S. border, also discharge large quantities of untreated or poorly treated sewage, though officials are currently planning infrastructure upgrades.

Deforestation is noteworthy in various regions of the U.S., especially along the northwest coastline. Old growth forests have been largely removed, but in the northeastern and upper midwestern sections of the United States, evidence suggests that the current extent of tree cover probably surpasses the figure for the beginning of the 20th century.

Extreme weather conditions in the last few years have resulted in a high level of soil erosion along the north coast of California; in addition, the coastline itself has shifted substantially due to soil erosion and concomitant landslides.

Agricultural pollution-including nitrate contamination of well water, nutrient runoff to waterways, and pesticide exposure-is significant in various areas. Noteworthy among affected places are California's Central Valley, extensive stretches of the Midwest, and land in the Chesapeake Bay watershed.

Inland waterways, especially around the Great Lakes, have substantially improved their water quality, due to concentrated efforts at reducing water pollution by governmental, commercial and community representatives. Strict curbs on industrial effluents and near-universal implementation of sewage treatment are the chief factors responsible for this improvement.

A major environmental issue for Canada and the United States involves the depletion of various already endangered or threatened species, and most significantly, the decline of fish stocks. Coastal fisheries have been over-harvested, resulting in catch limits or moratoriums on many commercially important fish species. In the last few years, these policies have started to yield measurable results with decreasing trends in marine fish catch.

Due to the decay of neighboring ecosystems in Central America and the Caribbean, the sea surrounding Florida has become increasingly sedimented, contributing to marine degradation, nutrient depletion of the ecosystem, depletion of fish stocks, and diseases to coral species in particular.

Polar Regions

Key Points:

The significant rise in sea level, amounting 10 to 25 centimeters in the last 100 years, is due to the melting of the Arctic ice sheets, and is attributed to global warming.

The Antarctic suffers from a significant ozone hole, first detected in 1976. By 1985, a British scientific team reported a 40 percent decrease in usual regeneration rates of the ozone. Because a sustained increase in the amount of ultraviolet-B radiation would have adverse consequences upon all planetary life, recent environmental measures have been put into effect, aimed at reversing ozone depletion. These measures are projected to garner significant results by 2050.

Due to air and ocean currents, the Arctic is a sink for toxic releases originally discharged thousands of miles away. Arctic wildlife and Canada's Inuit population have higher bodily levels of contaminants such as PCB and dioxin than those found in people and animals in much of the rest of the world.

Global Environmental Concepts

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1. Global Warming and Greenhouse Gases

The Greenhouse Effect:

In the early 19th century, the French physicist, Jean Fourier, contended that the earth's atmosphere functions in much the same way as the glass of a greenhouse, thus describing what is now understood as the "greenhouse effect." Put simply, the "greenhouse effect" confines some of the sun's energy to the earth, preserving some of the planet's warmth, rather than allowing it to flow back into space. In so doing, all kinds of life forms can flourish on earth. Thus, the "greenhouse effect" is necessary to sustain and preserve life forms and ecosystems on earth.

In the late 19th century, a Swedish chemist, Svante Arrhenius, noticed that human activities, such as the burning of coal and other fossil fuels for heat, and the removal of forested lands for urban development, led to higher concentrations of greenhouse gases, like carbon dioxide and methane, in the atmosphere. This increase in the levels of greenhouse gases was believed to advance the "greenhouse effect" exponentially, and might be related to the trend in global warming.

In the wake of the Industrial Revolution, after industrial development took place on a large scale and the total human population burgeoned simultaneously with industrialization, the resulting increase in greenhouse gas emissions could, many scientists believe, be significant enough to have some bearing on climate. Indeed, many studies in recent years support the idea that there is a linkage between human activities and global warming, although there is less consensus on the extent to which this linkage may be relevant to environmental concerns.

That said, some scientists have argued that temperature fluctuations have existed throughout the evolution of the planet. Indeed, Dr. S. Fred Singer, the president of the Science and Environment Policy Project has noted that 3,000-year-old geological records of ocean sediment reveal changes in the surface temperature of the ocean. Hence, it is possible that climate variability is merely a normal fact of the planet's evolution. Yet even skeptics as to anthropogenic factors concur that any substantial changes in global temperatures would likely have an effect upon the earth's ecosystems, as well as the life forms that inhabit them.

The Relationship Between Global Warming and Greenhouse Gases:

A large number of climatologists believe that the increase in atmospheric concentrations of "greenhouse gas emissions," mostly a consequence of human activities such as the burning of fossil fuels, are contributing to global warming. The cause notwithstanding, the planet has reportedly warmed 0.3°C to 0.6°C over the last century. Indeed, each year during the 1990s was one of the very warmest in the 20th century, with the mean surface temperature for 1999 being the fifth warmest on record since 1880.

In early 2000, a panel of atmospheric scientists for the National Research Council concluded in a report that global warming was, indeed, a reality. While the panel, headed by Chairman John Wallace, a professor of atmospheric sciences at the University of Washington, stated that it

remained unclear whether human activities have contributed to the earth's increasing temperatures, it was apparent that global warming exists.

In 2001, following a request for further study by the incoming Bush administration in the [United States](#), the National Academy of Sciences again confirmed that global warming had been in existence for the last 20 years. The study also projected an increase in temperature between 2.5 degrees and 10.4 degrees Fahrenheit by the year 2100. Furthermore, the study found the leading cause of global warming to be emissions of carbon dioxide from the burning of fossil fuels, and it noted that greenhouse gas accumulations in the earth's atmosphere was a result of human activities.

Within the scientific community, the controversy regarding has centered on the difference between surface air and upper air temperatures. Information collected since 1979 suggests that while the earth's surface temperature has increased by about a degree in the past century, the atmospheric temperature five miles above the earth's surface has indicated very little increase. Nevertheless, the panel stated that this discrepancy in temperature between surface and upper air does not invalidate the conclusion that global warming is taking place. Further, the panel noted that natural events, such as volcanic eruptions, can decrease the temperature in the upper atmosphere.

The major consequences of global warming potentially include the melting of the polar ice caps, which, in turn, contribute to the rise in sea levels. Many islands across the globe have already experienced a measurable loss of land as a result. Because global warming may increase the rate of evaporation, increased precipitation, in the form of stronger and more frequent storm systems, is another potential outcome. Other consequences of global warming may include the introduction and proliferation of new infectious diseases, loss of arable land (referred to as "desertification"), destructive changes to existing ecosystems, loss of biodiversity and the isolation of species, and concomitant adverse changes in the quality of human life.

International Policy Development in Regard to Global Warming:

Regardless of what the precise nature of the relationship between greenhouse gas emissions and global warming may be, it seems that there is some degree of a connection between the phenomena. Any substantial reductions in greenhouse gas emissions and global warming trends will likely involve systematic changes in industrial operations, the use of advanced energy sources and technologies, as well as global cooperation in implementing and regulating these transformations.

In this regard, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) stipulated the following objectives:

1. To stabilize "greenhouse gas" concentrations within the atmosphere, in such a manner that would preclude hazardous anthropogenic intervention into the existing biosphere and ecosystems of the world. This stabilization process would facilitate the natural adaptation of ecosystems to

changes in climate.

2. To ensure and enable sustainable development and food production on a global scale.

*** See section on "International Environmental Agreements and Associations" for information related to international policies related to limiting greenhouse gases and controlling climate change emanating from historic summits at Kyoto, Copenhagen, Doha, and Paris. ***

2. Air Pollution

Long before global warming reared its head as a significant issue, those concerned about the environment and public health noted the deleterious effects of human-initiated combustion upon the atmosphere. Killer smogs from coal burning triggered acute health emergencies in London and other places. At a lower level of intensity motor vehicle, power plant, and industrial emissions impaired long-range visibility and probably had some chronic adverse consequences on the respiratory systems of persons breathing such air.

In time, scientists began associating the sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides released from coal burning with significant acid deposition in the atmosphere, eventually falling as "acid rain." This phenomenon has severely degraded forestlands, especially in Europe and a few parts of the [United States](#). It has also impaired some aquatic ecosystems and eaten away the surface of some human artifacts, such as marble monuments. Scrubber technology and conversion to cleaner fuels have enabled the level of industrial production to remain at least constant while significantly reducing acid deposition. Technologies aimed at cleaning the air and curtailing acid rain, soot, and smog may, nonetheless, boomerang as the perils of global warming become increasingly serious. In brief, these particulates act as sort of a sun shade -- comparable to the effect of volcanic eruptions on the upper atmosphere whereby periods of active volcanism correlate with temporarily cooler weather conditions. Thus, while the carbon dioxide releases that are an inevitable byproduct of combustion continue, by scrubbing the atmosphere of pollutants, an industrial society opens itself to greater insolation (penetration of the sun's rays and consequent heating), and consequently, it is likely to experience a correspondingly greater rise in ambient temperatures.

The health benefits of removing the sources of acid rain and smog are indisputable, and no one would recommend a return to previous conditions. Nevertheless, the problematic climatic effects of continually increasing emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases pose a major global environmental challenge, not as yet addressed adequately.

3. Ozone Depletion

The stratospheric ozone layer functions to prevent ultraviolet radiation from reaching the earth. Normally, stratospheric ozone is systematically disintegrated and regenerated through natural photochemical processes. The stratospheric ozone layer, however, has been depleted unnaturally as a result of anthropogenic (man-made) chemicals, most especially chlorine and bromide compounds such as chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, and various industrial chemicals in the form of solvents, refrigerants, foaming agents, aerosol propellants, fire retardants, and fumigants. Ozone depletion is of concern because it permits a greater degree of ultraviolet-B radiation to reach the earth, which then increases the incidences of cancerous malignancies, cataracts, and human immune deficiencies. In addition, even in small doses, ozone depletion affects the ecosystem by disturbing food chains, agriculture, fisheries and other forms of biological diversity.

Transnational policies enacted to respond to the dangers of ozone depletion include the 1985 Vienna Convention on the Protection of the Ozone Layer and the 1987 Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. The Montreal Protocol was subsequently amended in London in 1990, Copenhagen in 1992 and Vienna in 1995. By 1996, 155 countries had ratified the Montreal Protocol, which sets out a time schedule for the reduction (and eventual elimination) of ozone depleting substances (OPS), and bans exports and imports of ODS from and to non-participant countries.

In general, the Protocol stipulates that developed countries must eliminate halon consumption by 1994 and CFC consumption by 1996, while developing countries must eliminate these substances by 2010. Consumption of methyl bromide, which is used as a fumigant, was to be frozen at the 1995 in developed countries, and fully eliminated in 2010, while developing countries are to freeze consumption by 2002, based on average 1995-1998 consumption levels. Methyl chloroform is to be phased out by 2005. Under the Montreal Protocol, most ODS will be completely eliminated from use by 2010.

4. Land Degradation

In recent decades, land degradation in more arid regions of the world has become a serious concern. The problem, manifest as both "desertification" and "devegetation," is caused primarily by climate variability and human activities, such as "deforestation," excessive cultivation, overgrazing, and other forms of land resource exploitation. It is also exacerbated by inadequate irrigation practices. Although the effects of droughts on drylands have been temporary in the past, today, the productivity and sustainability of these lands have been severely compromised for the long term. Indeed, in every region of the world, land degradation has become an acute issue.

Desertification and Devegetation:

"Desertification" is a process of land degradation causing the soil to deteriorate, thus losing its nutrients and fertility, and eventually resulting in the loss of vegetation, known as "devegetation." As aforementioned, "desertification" and "devegetation" are caused by human activities, yet human beings are also the greatest casualties. Because these forms of land degradation affect the ability of the soil to produce crops, they concomitantly contribute to poverty. As population increases and demographic concentrations shift, the extent of land subject to stresses by those seeking to wrest subsistence from it has inexorably risen.

In response, the United Nations has formed the Convention to Combat Desertification-aimed at implementing programs to address the underlying causes of desertification, as well as measures to prevent and minimize its effects. Of particular significance is the formulation of policies on transboundary resources, such as areas around lakes and rivers. At a broader level, the Convention has established a Conference of Parties (COP), which includes all ratifying governments, for directing and advancing international action.

To ensure more efficacious use of funding, the Convention intends to reconfigure international aid to utilize a consultative and coordinated approach in the disbursement and expenditure of donor funds. In this way, local communities that are affected by desertification will be active participants in the solution-generation process. In-depth community education projects are envisioned as part of this new international aid program, and private donor financing is encouraged. Meanwhile, as new technologies are developed to deal with the problem of desertification, they need to be distributed for application across the world. Hence, the Convention calls for international cooperation in scientific research in this regard.

Desertification is a problem of sustainable development. It is directly connected to human challenges such as poverty, social and economic well-being and environmental protection as well. Broader environmental issues, such as climate change, biological diversity, and freshwater supplies, are indirectly related, so any effort to resolve this environmental challenge must entail coordinated research efforts and joint action.

Deforestation:

Deforestation is not a recent phenomenon. For centuries, human beings have cut down trees to clear space for land cultivation, or in order to use the wood for fuel. Over the last 200 years, and most especially after World War II, deforestation increased because the logging industry became a globally profitable endeavor, and so the clearing of forested areas was accelerated for the purposes of industrial development. In the long term, this intensified level of deforestation is considered problematic because the forest is unable to regenerate itself quickly. The deforestation that has

occurred in tropical rainforests is seen as an especially serious concern, due to the perceived adverse effects of this process upon the entire global ecosystem.

The most immediate consequence of deforestation is soil degradation. Soil, which is necessary for the growth of vegetation, can be a fragile and vital property. Organically, an extensive evolution process must take place before soil can produce vegetation, yet at the same time, the effects of natural elements, such as wind and rain, can easily and quickly degrade this resource. This phenomenon is known as soil erosion. In addition, natural elements like wind and rain reduce the amount of fertile soil on the ground, making soil scarcity a genuine problem. When fertile topsoil that already exists is removed from the landscape in the process of deforestation, soil scarcity is further exacerbated. Equally significant is the fact that once land has been cleared so that the topsoil can be cultivated for crop production, not only are the nutrient reserves in the soil depleted, thus producing crops of inferior quality, but the soil structure itself becomes stressed and deteriorates further.

Another direct result of deforestation is flooding. When forests are cleared, removing the cover of vegetation, and rainfall occurs, the flow of water increases across the surface of land. When extensive water runoff takes place, the frequency and intensity of flooding increases. Other adverse effects of deforestation include the loss of wildlife and biodiversity within the ecosystem that supports such life forms.

At a broader level, tropical rainforests play a vital role in maintaining the global environmental system. Specifically, destruction of tropical rainforests affects the carbon dioxide cycle. When forests are destroyed by burning (or rotting), carbon dioxide is released into the air, thus contributing to an intensified "greenhouse effect." The increase in greenhouse gas emissions like carbon dioxide is a major contributor to global warming, according to many environmental scientists. Indeed, trees themselves absorb carbon dioxide in the process of photosynthesis, so their loss also reduces the absorption of greenhouse gases.

Tropical rainforest destruction also adversely affects the nitrogen cycle. Nitrogen is a key nutrient for both plants and animals. Plants derive nitrogen from soil, while animals obtain it via nitrogen-enriched vegetation. This element is essential for the formation of amino acids, and thereby for proteins and biochemicals that all living things need for metabolism and growth. In the nitrogen cycle, vegetation acquires these essential proteins and biochemicals, and then cyclically returns them to the atmosphere and global ecosystem. Accordingly, when tropical rainforest ecosystems are compromised, not only is vegetation removed; the atmosphere is also affected and climates are altered. At a more immediate level, the biodiversity within tropical rainforests, including wildlife and insect species and a wealth of plant varieties, is depleted. Loss of rare plants is of particular concern because certain species as yet unknown and unused could likely yield many practical benefits, for instance as medicines.

As a result of the many challenges associated with deforestation, many environmental groups and agencies have argued for government policies on the sustainable development of forests by governments across the globe. While many countries have instituted national policies and programs aimed at reducing deforestation, and substantial research has been advanced in regard to sustainable and regenerative forestry development, there has been very little progress on an international level. Generally speaking, most tropical rainforests are located in developing and less developed countries, where economic growth is often dependent upon the exploitation of tropical rainforests. Timber resources as well as wildlife hunting tend to be particularly lucrative arenas.

In places such as the Amazon, where deforestation takes place for the construction of energy plants aimed at industrialization and economic development, there is an exacerbated effect on the environment. After forests are cleared in order to construct such projects, massive flooding usually ensues. The remaining trees then rot and decay in the wake of the flooding. As the trees deteriorate, their biochemical makeup becomes more acidic, producing poisonous substances such as hydrogen sulphide and methane gases. Acidified water subsequently corrodes the mechanical equipment and operations of the plants, which are already clogged by rotting wood after the floodwaters rise.

Deforestation generally arises from an economically plausible short-term motivation, but nonetheless poses a serious global concern because the effects go beyond national boundaries. The United Nations has established the World Commission on Forest and Sustainable Development. This body's task is to determine the optimal means of dealing with the issue of deforestation, without unduly affecting normal economic development, while emphasizing the global significance of protecting tropical forest ecosystems.

5. Water Resources

For all terrestrial fauna, including humans, water is the most immediate necessity to sustain life. As the population has increased and altered an ever-greater portion of the landscape from its natural condition, demand on water resources has intensified, especially with the development of industrialization and large-scale irrigation. The supply of freshwater is inherently limited, and moreover distributed unevenly across the earth's landmasses. Moreover, not just demand for freshwater but activities certain to degrade it are becoming more pervasive. By contrast, the oceans form a sort of "last wilderness," still little explored and in large part not seriously affected by human activity. However, coastal environments - the biologically richest part of the marine ecosystem-are experiencing major depletion due to human encroachment and over-exploitation.

Freshwater:

In various regions, for instance the Colorado River in the western [United States](#), current withdrawals of river water for irrigation, domestic, and industrial use consume the entire streamflow so that almost no water flows into the sea at the river's mouth. Yet development is ongoing in many such places, implying continually rising demand for water. In some areas reliant on groundwater, aquifers are being depleted at a markedly faster rate than they are being replenished. An example is the San Joaquin Valley in California, where decades of high water withdrawals for agriculture have caused land subsidence of ten meters or more in some spots. Naturally, the uncertainty of future water supplies is particularly acute in arid and semi-arid regions. Speculation that the phenomenon of global warming will alter geographic and seasonal rainfall patterns adds further uncertainty.

Water conservation measures have great potential to alleviate supply shortages. Some city water systems are so old and beset with leaking pipes that they lose as much water as they meter. Broad-scale irrigation could be replaced by drip-type irrigation, actually enhancing the sustainability of agriculture. In many areas where heavy irrigation has been used for decades, the result is deposition of salts and other chemicals in the soil such that the land becomes unproductive for farming and must be abandoned.

Farming is a major source of water pollution. Whereas restrictions on industrial effluents and other "point sources" are relatively easy to implement, comparable measures to reform hydraulic practices at farms and other "nonpoint sources" pose a significantly knottier challenge. Farm-caused water pollution takes the following main forms:

- Nitrate pollution found in wells in intensive farming areas as a consequence of heavy fertilizer use is a threat to human health. The most serious danger is to infants, who by ingesting high-nitrate water can contract methemoglobinemia, sometimes called "blue baby syndrome," a potentially fatal condition.
- Fertilizer runoff into rivers and lakes imparts unwanted nutrients that cause algae growth and eventual loss of oxygen in the body of water, degrading its ability to support fish and other desirable aquatic life.
- Toxic agricultural chemicals - insecticides, herbicides, and fungicides - are detectable in some aquifers and waterways.

In general, it is much easier to get a pollutant into water than to retrieve it out. Gasoline additives, dry cleaning chemicals, other industrial toxins, and in a few areas radionuclides have all been found in water sources intended for human use. The complexity and long time scale of subterranean hydrological movements essentially assures that pollutants already deposited in aquifers will continue to turn up for decades to come. Sophisticated water treatment processes are available, albeit expensive, to reclaim degraded water and render it fit for human consumption. Yet

source protection is unquestionably a more desirable alternative.

In much of the developing world, and even some low-income rural enclaves of the developed world, the population lacks ready access to safe water. Surface water and shallow groundwater supplies are susceptible to contamination from untreated wastewater and failing septic tanks, as well as chemical hazards. The occurrence of waterborne disease is almost certainly greatly underreported.

Marine Resources:

Coastal areas have always been desirable places for human habitation, and population pressure on them continues to increase. Many types of water degradation that affect lakes and rivers also affect coastal zones: industrial effluents, untreated or partially treated sewage, nutrient load from agriculture figure prominently in both cases. Prospects for more extreme storms as a result of global warming, as well as the pervasiveness of poorly planned development in many coastal areas, forebode that catastrophic hurricanes and landslides may increase in frequency in the future. Ongoing rise in sea levels will force remedial measures and in some cases abandonment of currently valuable coastal property.

Fisheries over much of the globe have been overharvested, and immediate conservation measures are required to preserve stocks of many species. Many governments subsidized factory-scale fishing fleets in the 1970s and 1980s, and the resultant catch increase evidently surpassed a sustainable level. It is uncertain how much of the current decline in fish stocks stems from overharvesting and how much from environmental pollution. The deep ocean remains relatively unaffected by human activity, but continental shelves near coastlines are frequently seriously polluted, and these close-to-shore areas are the major biological nurseries for food fish and the smaller organisms they feed on.

6. Environmental Toxins

Toxic chemical pollution exploded on the public consciousness with disclosure of spectacularly polluted industrial areas such as Love Canal near Buffalo, New York. There is no question that pollutants such as organophosphates or radionucleides can be highly deleterious to health, but evidence to date suggests that seriously affected areas are a localized rather than universal problem.

While some explore the possibilities for a lifestyle that fully eschews use of modern industrial chemicals, the most prevalent remediative approach is to focus on more judicious use. The most efficient chemical plants are now able to contain nearly all toxic byproducts of their production processes within the premises, minimizing the release of such substances into the environment.

Techniques such as Integrated Pest Management (IPM) dictate limited rather than broadcast use of pesticides: application only when needed using the safest available chemical, supplemented as much as possible with nontoxic controls.

While heightened public awareness and growing technical sophistication suggest a hopeful outlook on limiting the damage from manmade environmental toxins, one must grant that previous incidents of their misuse and mishandling have already caused environmental damage that will have to be dealt with for many years to come. In the case of the most hazardous radioactive substances, the time scale for successful remediation actually extends beyond that of the recorded history of civilization. Moreover, in this era of high population density and rapid economic growth, quotidian activities such as the transport of chemicals will occasionally, seemingly inevitably result in accidents with adverse environmental consequences.

7. "Islandization" and Biodiversity

With increased awareness regarding the adverse effects of unregulated hunting and habitat depletion upon wildlife species and other aspects of biodiversity, large-scale efforts across the globe have been initiated to reduce and even reverse this trend.

In every region of the world, many species of wildlife and areas of biodiversity have been saved from extinction. Nationally, many countries have adopted policies aimed at preservation and conservation of species, and one of the most tangible measures has been the proliferation of protected habitats. Such habitats exist in the form of wildlife reserves, marine life reserves, and other such areas where biodiversity can be protected from external encroachment and exploitation.

Despite these advances in wildlife and biodiversity protection, further and perhaps more intractable challenges linger. Designated reserves, while intended to prevent further species decline, exist as closed territories, fragmented from other such enclaves and disconnected from the larger ecosystem. This environmental scenario is referred to as "islandization." Habitat reserves often serve as oversized zoos or game farms, with landscapes and wildlife that have effectively been "tamed" to suit. Meanwhile, the larger surrounding ecosystem continues to be seriously degraded and transformed, while within the islandized habitat, species that are the focus of conservation efforts may not have sufficient range and may not be able to maintain healthy genetic variability.

As a consequence, many conservationists and preservationists have demanded that substantially larger portions of land be withheld as habitat reserves, and a network of biological corridors to connect continental reserves be established. While such efforts to combat islandization have considerable support in the [United States](#), how precisely such a program would be instituted, especially across national boundaries, remains a matter of debate. International conservationists and preservationists say without a network of reserves a massive loss of biodiversity will result.

The concept of islandization illustrates why conservation and preservation of wildlife and biodiversity must consider and adopt new, broader strategies. In the past, conservation and preservation efforts have been aimed at specific species, such as the spotted owl and grizzly bear in North America, the Bengal tiger in Southeast Asia, the panda in [China](#), elephants in Africa. Instead, the new approach is to simultaneously protect many and varied species that inhabit the same ecosystem. This method, referred to as "bio-regional conservation," may more efficaciously generate longer-term and more far-reaching results precisely because it is aimed at preserving entire ecosystems, and all the living things within.

More About Biodiversity Issues:

This section is directly taken from the United Nations Environmental Program: "[Biodiversity Assessment](#)"

The Global Biodiversity Assessment, completed by 1500 scientists under the auspices of United Nations Environmental Program in 1995, updated what is known (or unknown) about global biological diversity at the ecosystem, species and genetic levels. The assessment was uncertain of the total number of species on Earth within an order of magnitude. Of its working figure of 13 million species, only 13 percent are scientifically described. Ecological community diversity is also poorly known, as is its relationship to biological diversity, and genetic diversity has been studied for only a small number of species. The effects of human activities on biodiversity have increased so greatly that the rate of species extinctions is rising to hundreds or thousands of times the background level. These losses are driven by increasing demands on species and their habitats, and by the failure of current market systems to value biodiversity adequately. The Assessment calls for urgent action to reverse these trends.

There has been a new recognition of the importance of protecting marine and aquatic biodiversity. The first quantitative estimates of species losses due to growing coral reef destruction predict that almost 200,000 species, or one in five presently contributing to coral reef biodiversity, could die out in the next 40 years if human pressures on reefs continue to increase.

Since Rio, many countries have improved their understanding of the status and importance of their biodiversity, particularly through biodiversity country studies such as those prepared under the auspices of UNEP/GEF. The [United Kingdom](#) identified 1250 species needing monitoring, of which 400 require action plans to ensure their survival. Protective measures for biodiversity, such as legislation to protect species, can prove effective. In the USA, almost 40 percent of the plants and animals protected under the Endangered Species Act are now stable or improving as a direct result of recovery efforts. Some African countries have joined efforts to protect threatened species through the 1994 Lusaka Agreement, and more highly migratory species are being protected by

specialized cooperative agreements among range states under the Bonn Agreement.

There is an emerging realization that a major part of conservation of biological diversity must take place outside of protected areas and involve local communities. The extensive agricultural areas occupied by small farmers contain much biodiversity that is important for sustainable food production. Indigenous agricultural practices have been and continue to be important elements in the maintenance of biodiversity, but these are being displaced and lost. There is a new focus on the interrelationship between agrobiodiversity conservation and sustainable use and development practices in smallholder agriculture, with emphasis on use of farmers' knowledge and skills as a source of information for sustainable farming.

Perhaps even more important than the loss of biodiversity is the transformation of global biogeochemical cycles, the reduction in the total world biomass, and the decrease in the biological productivity of the planet. While quantitative measurements are not available, the eventual economic and social consequences may be so significant that the issue requires further attention.

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Online resources used generally in the Environmental Overview:

Environmental Protection Agency Global Warming Site. URL: <http://www.epa.gov/globalwarming>

Food and Agriculture Organization of United Nations: Forestry. URL: <http://www.fao.org/forestry/site/sofo/en/>

Global Warming Information Page. URL: <http://globalwarming.org>

U n i t e d N a t i o n s E n v i r o n m e n t a l P r o g r a m . U R L : http://www.unep.org/GEO/GEO_Products/Assessment_Reports/

United Nations Global Environmental Outlook. URL: <http://www.unep.org/geo/geo4/media/>

Note on Edition Dates:

The edition dates for textual resources are noted above because they were used to formulate the original content. We also have used online resources (cited above) to update coverage as needed.

Information Resources

For more information about environmental concepts, CountryWatch recommends the following resources:

The United Nations Environmental Program Network (with country profiles)

[<http://www.unep.net/>](http://www.unep.net/)

The United Nations Environment Program on Climate Change

[<http://climatechange.unep.net/>](http://climatechange.unep.net/)

The United Nations Environmental Program on Waters and Oceans

[<http://www.unep.ch/earthw/Pdepwat.htm>](http://www.unep.ch/earthw/Pdepwat.htm)

The United Nations Environmental Program on Forestry: "Forests in Flux"

[<http://www.unep-wcmc.org/forest/flux/homepage.htm>](http://www.unep-wcmc.org/forest/flux/homepage.htm)

FAO "State of the World's Forests"

[<http://www.fao.org/forestry/FO/SOFO/SOFO99/sofo99-e.stm>](http://www.fao.org/forestry/FO/SOFO/SOFO99/sofo99-e.stm)

World Resources Institute.

[<http://www.wri.org/>](http://www.wri.org/)

Harvard University Center for Health and the Global Environment

[<http://www.med.harvard.edu/chge/the-review.html>](http://www.med.harvard.edu/chge/the-review.html)

The University of Wisconsin Center for Sustainability and the Global Environment

<http://sage.aos.wisc.edu/>

International Environmental Agreements and Associations

International Policy Development in Regard to Global Warming:

Introduction

Regardless of what the precise nature of the relationship between greenhouse gas emissions and global warming may be, it seems that there is some degree of a connection between the phenomena. Any substantial reductions in greenhouse gas emissions and global warming trends will likely involve systematic changes in industrial operations, the use of advanced energy sources and technologies, as well as global cooperation in implementing and regulating these transformations.

In this regard, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) stipulated the following objectives:

1. To stabilize "greenhouse gas" concentrations within the atmosphere, in such a manner that would preclude hazardous anthropogenic intervention into the existing biosphere and ecosystems of the world. This stabilization process would facilitate the natural adaptation of ecosystems to changes in climate.
2. To ensure and enable sustainable development and food production on a global scale.

Following are two discussions regarding international policies on the environment, followed by listings of international accords.

Special Entry: The Kyoto Protocol

The UNFCCC was adopted at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992, and entered into force in 1994. Over 175 parties were official participants.

Meanwhile, however, many of the larger, more industrialized nations failed to reach the emissions' reduction targets, and many UNFCCC members agreed that the voluntary approach to reducing emissions had not been successful. As such, UNFCCC members reached a consensus that legally binding limits were necessitated, and agreed to discuss such a legal paradigm at a meeting in Kyoto, [Japan](#) in 1997. At that meeting, the UNFCCC forged the Kyoto Protocol. This concord is the first legally binding international agreement that places limits on emissions from industrialized countries. The major greenhouse gas emissions addressed in the Kyoto Protocol include carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons, sulfur hexafluoride, and methane.

The provisions of the Kyoto Protocol stipulate that economically advanced nations must reduce their combined emissions of greenhouse gases, by approximately five percent from their 1990

levels, before the 2008-2010 deadline. Countries with the highest carbon dioxide emissions, such as the [United States](#) (U.S.), many of the European Union (EU) countries, and [Japan](#), are to reduce emissions by a scale of 6 to 8 percent. All economically advanced nations must show "demonstrable progress" by 2005. In contrast, no binding limits or timetable have been set on developing countries. Presumably, this distinction is due to the fact that most developing countries - - with the obvious exceptions of [India](#) and [China](#) -- simply do not emit as many greenhouse gases as do more industrially advanced countries. Meanwhile, these countries are entrenched in the process of economic development.

Regardless of the aforementioned reasoning, there has been strong opposition against the asymmetrical treatment assigned to emissions limits among developed and developing countries. Although this distinction might be regarded as unfair in principle, associations such as the Alliance of Small Island States have been vocal in expressing how global warming -- a result of greenhouse gas emissions - has contributed to the rise in sea level, and thus deleteriously affected their very existence as island nation states. For this reason, some parties have suggested that economically advanced nations, upon returning to their 1990 levels, should be required to further reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by a deadline of 2005. In response, interested parties have observed that even if such reductions were undertaken by economically advanced nations, they would not be enough to completely control global warming. Indeed, a reduction in the rate of fossil fuel usage by developing nations would also be necessary to have substantial ameliorative effect on global warming. Indeed, a reduction in the rate of fossil fuel usage by developing nations would also be necessary to have substantial ameliorative effect on global warming.

As such, the Protocol established a "Clean Development Mechanism" which permits developed countries to invest in projects aimed at reducing emissions within developing countries in return for credit for the reductions. Ostensibly, the objective of this mechanism is to curtail emissions in developing countries without unduly penalizing them for their economic development. Under this model, the countries with more potential emissions credits could sell them to other signatories of the Kyoto Protocol, whose emissions are forecast to significantly rise in the next few years. Should this trading of emissions credits take place, it is estimated that the Kyoto Protocol's emissions targets could still be met.

In 1999, the International Energy Outlook projected that Eastern Europe, the former Soviet Union and Newly Independent States, as well as parts of Asia, are all expected to show a marked decrease in their level of energy-related carbon emissions in 2010. Nations with the highest emissions, specifically, the U.S., the EU and [Japan](#), are anticipated to reduce their emissions by up to 8 percent by 2012. By 2000, however, the emissions targets were not on schedule for achievement. Indeed, the U.S. Department of Energy estimates forecast that by 2010, there will be a 34 percent increase in carbon emissions from the 1990 levels, in the absence of major shifts in policy, economic growth, energy prices, and consumer trends. Despite this assessment in the U.S., international support for the Kyoto Protocol remained strong, especially among European countries

and island states, who view the pact as one step in the direction away from reliance on fossil fuels and other sources of greenhouse gases.

In 2001, U.S. President, George W. Bush, rejected his country's participation in the Kyoto Protocol, saying that the costs imposed on the global economic system, and especially, on the US, overshadowed the benefits of the Protocol. He also cited the unfair burden on developed nations to reduce emissions, as another primary reasons for withdrawal from the international pact, as well as insufficient evidence regarding the science of global warming. Faced with impassioned international disapproval for his position, the U.S. president stated that his administration remained interested in dealing with the matter of global warming, but would endorse alternative measures to combat the problem, such as voluntary initiatives limiting emissions. Critics of Bush's position, however, have noted that it was the failure of voluntary initiatives to reduce emissions following the Rio Summit that led to the establishment of the Kyoto Protocol in the first place.

In the wake of the Bush administration's decision, many participant countries resigned themselves to the reality that the goals of the Kyoto Protocol might not be achieved without U.S. involvement. Nevertheless, in Bonn, [Germany](#), in July 2001, the remaining participant countries struck a political compromise on some of the key issues and sticking points, and planned to move forward with the Protocol, irrespective of the absence of the U.S. The key compromise points included the provision for countries to offset their targets with carbon sinks (these are areas of forest and farmland which can absorb carbon through the process of photosynthesis). Another compromise point within the broader Bonn Agreement was the reduction of emissions cuts of six gases from over 5 percent to a more achievable 2 percent. A third key change was the provision of funding for less wealthy countries to adopt more progressive technologies.

In late October and early November 2001, the UNFCCC's 7th Conference of the Parties met in Marrakesh, [Morocco](#), to finalize the measures needed to make the Kyoto Protocol operational. Although the UNFCCC projected that ratification of the Protocol would make it legally binding within a year, many critics noted that the process had fallen short of implementing significant changes in policy that would be necessary to actually stop or even slow climate change. They also maintained that the absence of U.S. participation effectively rendered the Protocol into being a political exercise without any substance, either in terms of transnational policy or in terms of environmental concerns.

The adoption of the compromises ensconced within the Bonn Agreement had been intended to make the provisions of the Kyoto Protocol more palatable to the U.S. In this regard, it failed to achieve its objective as the Bush administration continued to eschew participation in the international accord. Still, however, the Bonn Agreement did manage to render a number of other positive outcomes. Specifically, in 2002, key countries, such as [Russia](#), [Japan](#) and [Canada](#) agreed to ratify the protocol, bringing the number of signatories to 178. The decision by key countries to

ratify the protocol was regarded as "the kiss of life" by observers.

By 2005, on the eve of a climate change conference in London, British Prime Minister Tony Blair was hoping to deal with the problems of climate change beyond the provisions set forth in the Kyoto Protocol. Acknowledging that the Kyoto Protocol could not work in its current form, Blair wanted to open the discussion for a new climate change plan.

Blair said that although most of the world had signed on to Kyoto, the protocol could not meet any of its practical goals of cutting greenhouse gas emissions without the participation of the United States, the world's largest polluter. He also noted that any new agreement would have to include India and China -- significant producers of greenhouse gas emissions, but exempt from Kyoto because they have been classified as developing countries. Still, he said that progress on dealing with climate change had been stymied by "a reluctance to face up to reality and the practical action needed to tackle problem."

Blair also touted the "huge opportunities" in technology and pointed toward the possibilities offered by wind, solar and nuclear power, along with fuel cell technology, eco-friendly biofuels, and carbon capture and storage which could generate low carbon power. Blair also asserted that his government was committed to achieving its domestic goal of reducing carbon dioxide emissions by 20 percent by 2010.

In the United States, President George W. Bush has said that global warming remained a debatable issue and despite conclusions reached by his own Environmental Protection Agency, he has not agreed with the conclusion that global warming and climate change are linked with human activities. Bush has also refused to ratify Kyoto on the basis of its economic costs.

Australia, an ally of the United States, has taken a similarly dim view of the Kyoto Protocol. Ahead of the November 2005 climate change meeting in Canada in which new goals for the protocol were to be discussed, Australia's Environment Minister, Ian Campbell, said that negotiating new greenhouse gas emission levels for the Kyoto Protocol would be a waste of time. Campbell said, "There is a consensus that the caps, targets and timetables approach is flawed. If we spend the next five years arguing about that, we'll be fiddling and negotiating while Rome burns." Campbell, like the Bush administration, has also advocated a system of voluntary action in which industry takes up new technologies rather than as a result of compelling the reduction of emissions. But the Australian Conservation Foundation (ACF) has called on its government to ratify the Kyoto Protocol, to establish a system of emissions trading, and to set binding limits on emissions. Interestingly, although it did not sign on to Kyoto, Australia was expected to meet its emissions target by 2012 (an 8 percent increase in 1990 levels in keeping with the country's reliance on coal). But this success has nothing to do with new technologies and is due to state-based regulations on land clearing.

Note: The Kyoto Protocol calls for developed nations to cut greenhouse emissions by 5.2 percent

of 1990 levels by 2012.

Special Entry: Climate Change Summit in Copenhagen (2009) --

In December 2009, the United Nations Climate Change Summit opened in the Danish capital of Copenhagen. The summit was scheduled to last from Dec. 7-18, 2009. Delegates from more than 190 countries were in attendance, and approximately 100 world leaders, including British Prime Minister Gordon Brown and [United States](#) President Barack Obama, were expected to participate. At issue was the matter of new reductions targets on greenhouse gas emissions by 2020.

Despite earlier fears that little concurrence would come from the conference, effectively pushing significant actions forward to a 2010 conference in [Mexico](#) City, negotiators were now reporting that the talks were productive and several key countries, such as [South Africa](#), had pledged to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. The two main issues that could still lead to cleavages were questions of agreement between the industrialized countries and the developing countries of the world, as well as the overall effectiveness of proposals in seriously addressing the perils of climate change.

On Dec. 9, 2009, four countries -- the [United Kingdom](#), [Australia](#), [Mexico](#) and [Norway](#) -- presented a document outlining ideas for raising and managing billions of dollars, which would be intended to help vulnerable countries dealing with the perils of climate change. Described as a "green fund," the concept could potentially help small island states at risk because of the rise in sea level. [Bangladesh](#) identified itself as a potential recipient of an assistance fund, noting that as a country plagued by devastating floods, it was particularly hard-hit by climate change. The "green fund" would fall under the rubric of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, for which developed countries have been committed to quantifying their emission reduction targets, and also to providing financial and technical support to developing countries.

The [United Kingdom](#), [Australia](#), [Mexico](#) and [Norway](#) also called for the creation of a new legal treaty that would replace the Kyoto Protocol. This new treaty, which could go into force in 2012, would focus largely on the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions by 2020. But [Australia](#) went even further in saying that the successor treaty to the Kyoto Protocol, should be one with provisions covering all countries. Such a move would be a departure from the structure of the Kyoto Protocol, which contained emissions targets for industrialized countries due to the prevailing view that developed countries had a particular historic responsibility to be accountable for climate change. More recently, it has become apparent that substantial reductions in greenhouse gas emissions demanded by scientists would only come to pass with the participation also of significant developing nation states, such as [China](#) and [India](#). Indeed, one of the most pressing critiques of the Kyoto Protocol was that it was a "paper tiger" that failed to address the impact of the actions of emerging economies like [China](#) and [India](#), with its focus on the developed economies.

Now, in 2009, [China](#) -- as the world's biggest greenhouse gas emitter -- was responding this dubious distinction by vocalizing its criticism of the current scenario and foregrounding its new commitments. Ahead of the Copenhagen summit, [China](#) had announced it would reduce the intensity of its carbon emissions per unit of its GDP in 2020 by 40 to 45 percent against 2005 levels. With that new commitment at hand, [China](#) was now accusing the [United States](#) and the European Union of shirking their own responsibilities by setting weak targets for greenhouse gas emissions cuts. Senior Chinese negotiator, Su Wei, characterized the goals of the world's second largest greenhouse gas emitter -- the [United States](#) -- as "not notable," and the European Union's target as "not enough." Su Wei also took issue with [Japan](#) for setting implausible preconditions.

On Dec. 11, 2009, [China](#) demanded that developed and wealthy countries in Copenhagen should help deliver a real agreement on climate change by delivering on their promises to reduce carbon emissions and provide financial support for developing countries to adapt to global warming. In so doing, China's Vice Foreign Minister He Yafei said his country was hoping that a "balanced outcome" would emerge from the discussions at the summit. Echoing the position of the Australian government, He Yafei spoke of a draft agreement as follows: "The final document we're going to adopt needs to be taking into account the needs and aspirations of all countries, particularly the most vulnerable ones."

China's Vice Foreign Minister emphasized the fact that climate change was "a matter of survival" for developing countries, and accordingly, such countries need wealthier and more developed countries to accentuate not only their pledges of emissions reduction targets, but also their financial commitments under the aforementioned United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. To that end, scientists and leaders of small island states in the Indian Ocean, the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea, have highlighted the existential threat posed by global warming and the concomitant rise in sea level.

China aside, attention was also on [India](#) -- another major player in the developing world and a country with an industrializing economy that was impacting the environment. At issue was the Indian government's decision to set a carbon intensity target, which would slow emissions growth by up to 25 percent by the 2020 deadline. This strong position was resisted by some elements in [India](#), who argued that their country should not be taking such a strong position when developed wealthy countries were yet to show accountability for their previous commitments to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. The matter grew so heated that the members of the opposition stormed out of the parliament in protest as Indian Environment Minister Jairam Ramesh defended the policy. But the political pressure at home in [India](#) was leaving the Indian delegation in Copenhagen in a state of chaos as well. In fact, India's top environmental negotiator refused to travel to Copenhagen in protest of the government's newly-announced stance.

China and [India](#) were joined by [Brazil](#) and [South Africa](#) in the crafting of a draft document calling for a new global climate treaty to be completed by June 2010. Of concern has been the realization

that there was insufficient time to find concurrence on a full legal treaty, which would leave countries only with a politically-binding text by the time the summit at Copenhagen closed. But Guyana's leader, President Bharrat Jagdeo, warned that the summit in [Denmark](#) would be classified as a failure unless a binding document was agreed upon instead of just political consensus. He urged his cohorts to act with purpose saying, "Never before have science, economics, geo-strategic self-interest and politics intersected in such a way on an issue that impacts everyone on the planet."

Likewise, [Tuvalu](#) demanded that legally binding agreements emerge from Copenhagen. Its proposal was supported by many of the vulnerable countries, from small island states and sub-Saharan Africa, all of whom warned of the catastrophic impact of climate change on their citizens. [Tuvalu](#) also called for more aggressive action, such as an amendment to the 1992 agreement, which would focus on sharp greenhouse gas emissions and the accepted rise in temperatures, due to the impact the rise in seas. The delegation from [Kiribati](#) joined the call by drawing attention to the fact that one village had to be abandoned due to waist-high water, and more such effects were likely to follow. Kiribati's Foreign Secretary, Tessie Lambourne, warned that the people of [Kiribati](#) could well be faced with no homeland in the future saying, "Nobody in this room would want to leave their homeland." But despite such impassioned pleas and irrespective of warnings from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change that the rise in sea level from melting polar ice caps would deleteriously affect low-lying atolls such as such as [Tuvalu](#) and [Kiribati](#) in the Pacific, and the [Maldives](#) in the Indian Ocean, the oil-giant [Saudi Arabia](#) was able to block this move.

Meanwhile, within the developed countries, yet another power struggle was brewing. The European Union warned it would only agree to raise its target of 20 percent greenhouse gas emissions reductions to 30 percent if the [United States](#) demonstrated that it would do more to reduce its own emissions. It was unknown if such pressure would yield results. [United States](#) President Barack Obama offered a "provisional" 2020 target of 17 percent reductions, noting that he could not offer greater concessions at Copenhagen due to resistance within the [United States](#) Congress, which was already trying to pass a highly controversial "cap and trade" emissions legislation. However, should that emissions trading bill fail in the Senate, the [United States](#) Environment Protection Agency's declaration that greenhouse gases pose a danger to human health and the environment was expected to facilitate further regulations and limits on power plants and factories at the national level. These moves could potentially strengthen the Obama administration's offering at Copenhagen. As well, President Obama also signaled that he would be willing to consider the inclusion of international forestry credits.

Such moves indicated willingness by the Obama administration to play a more constructive role on the international environmental scene than its predecessor, the Bush administration. Indeed, ahead of his arrival at the Copenhagen summit, President Barack Obama's top environmental advisors promised to work on a substantial climate change agreement. To that end, [United States](#)

Environmental Protection Agency Administrator Lisa Jackson said at a press conference, "We are seeking robust engagement with all of our partners around the world." But would this pro-engagement assertion yield actual results?

By Dec. 12, 2009, details related to a draft document prepared by Michael Zammit Cutajar, the head of the Ad-hoc Working Group on Long-Term Cooperative Action, were released at the Copenhagen climate conference. Included in the document were calls for countries to make major reductions in carbon emissions over the course of the next decade. According to the Washington Post, industrialized countries were called on to make cuts of between 25 percent and 40 percent below 1990 levels -- reductions that were far more draconian than the [United States](#) was likely to accept. As discussed above, President Obama had offered a provisional reduction target of 17 percent. The wide gap between the released draft and the United States' actual stated position suggested there was much more negotiating in the offing if a binding agreement could be forged, despite the Obama administration's claims that it was seeking greater engagement on this issue.

In other developments, the aforementioned call for financial support of developing countries to deal with the perils of climate change was partly answered by the European Union on Dec. 11, 2009. The European bloc pledged an amount of 2.4 billion euros (US\$3.5 billion) annually from 2010 to 2012. Environment Minister Andreas Carlgren of [Sweden](#) -- the country that holds the rotating presidency of the European Union at the time of the summit -- put his weight behind the notion of a "legally binding deal." Meanwhile, Yvo de Boer, a top United Nations climate change official, focused less on the essence of the agreement and more on tangible action and effects saying, "Copenhagen will only be a success if it delivers significant and immediate action that begins the day the conference ends."

The division between developed and developing countries in Copenhagen reached new heights on Dec. 14, 2009, when some of the poor and less developed countries launched a boycott at the summit. The move, which was spurred by African countries but backed by [China](#) and [India](#), appeared to be geared toward redirecting attention and primary responsibility to the wealthier and more industrialized countries. The impasse was resolved after the wealthier and more industrialized countries offered assurances that they did not intend on shirking from their commitments to reducing greenhouse gases. As a result, the participating countries ceased the boycott.

Outside the actual summit, thousands of protestors had gathered to demand crucial global warming, leading to clashes between police and demonstrators elsewhere in the Danish capital city. There were reports of scattered violence across Copenhagen and more than 1,000 people were arrested.

Nevertheless, by the second week of the climate change summit, hopes of forging a strong deal were eroding as developed and developing nations remained deadlocked on sharing cuts in greenhouse gases, and particularly on the matters of financing and temperature goals. In a bid to

shore up support for a new climate change, [United States](#) President Barack Obama joined other world leaders in Copenhagen. On Dec. 14, 2009, there was a standoff brewing between the [United States](#) and [China](#). At issue was China's refusal to accept international monitoring of its expressed targets for reducing greenhouse gas emissions. The [United States](#) argued that China's opposition to verification could be a deal-breaker.

By the close of the summit, the difficult process eventually resulted in some consensus being cultivated. A draft text called for \$100 billion a year by 2020 to assist poor nations cope with climate change, while aiming to limit global warming to two degrees Celsius compared with pre-industrial levels. The deal also included specific targets for developed countries to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, and called for reductions by developing countries as a share of their economies. Also included in the agreement was a mechanism to verify compliance. The details of the agreement were supported by President Barack Obama, Chinese Premier Wen Jiabao, Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh and Brazilian President Luiz Inacio Lula da Silva.

This draft would stand as an interim agreement, with a legally-binding international pact unlikely to materialize until 2010. In this way, the summit in Copenhagen failed to achieve its central objective, which was to negotiate a successor to the Kyoto Protocol on greenhouse gas emissions.

Editor's Note

In the background of these developments was the growing global consciousness related to global warming and climate change. Indeed, as the Copenhagen summit was ongoing, it was clear there was enormous concurrence on the significance of the stakes with an editorial on the matter of climate change being published in 56 newspapers in 45 countries. That editorial warned that without global action, climate change would "ravage our planet." Meanwhile, a global survey taken by Globescan showed that concern over global warming had exponentially increased from 1998 -- when only 20 percent of respondents believed it to be a serious problem -- to 64 percent in 2009. Such survey data, however, was generated ahead of the accusations by climate change skeptics that some climate scientists may have overstated the case for global warming, based on emails derived in an illicit manner from a British University.

Special Entry: Climate change talks in Doha in [Qatar](#) extend life of Kyoto Protocol (2012)

December 2012 saw climate talks ensue in the Qatari city of Doha as representatives from countries across the world gathered to discuss the fate of the Kyoto Protocol, which seeks to minimize greenhouse gas emissions. The summit yielded results with decisions made (1) to extend the Kyoto Protocol until 2020, and (2) for wealthier countries to compensate poorer countries for the losses and damage incurred as a result of climate change.

In regards to the second matter, Malia Talakai of [Nauru](#), a leading negotiator for the Alliance of Small Island States, explained the necessity of the compensation package as follows: “We are trying to say that if you pollute you must help us.”

This measure was being dubbed the "Loss and Damage" mechanism, and was being linked with [United States](#) President Barack Obama's request for \$60 billion from Congress to deal with the devastation caused by Hurricane Sandy months before. The sight of a hurricane bearing down on the northern Atlantic seaboard, along with the reality of the scope of reconstruction, appeared to have illustrated the economic costs of climate change -- not so much as a distant environmental issue -- but as a danger to the quotidian lives of people. Still, there was blame to be placed on the [United States](#) and European countries -- some of world's largest emitters -- for failing to do more to reduce emissions.

To that latter end, there was in fact little progress made on the central issue of reducing greenhouse gas emissions. Had those emissions been reduced, there would have been less of a need to financially deal with the devastation caused by climate change. One interpretation was that the global community was accepting the fact that industrialization was contributing to global warming, which had deleterious effects on the polar ice caps and concomitantly on the rise of sea level, with devastating effects for small island nations. Thus, wealthier countries were willing to pay around \$10 billion a year through 2020, effectively in "damages," to the poor countries that could be viewed as the "collateral damage" of industrial progress. But damages today could potentially be destruction tomorrow, leaving in place the existential challenges and burdens to be born by some of the world's smallest and least wealthy island countries.

Perhaps not surprisingly, the representative for the small island nation states at the Doha summit responded with ire, characterizing the lack of progress on reducing emissions as follows: "We see the package before us as deeply deficient in mitigation (carbon cuts) and finance. It's likely to lock us on the trajectory to a 3,4,5C rise in global temperatures, even though we agreed to keep the global average temperature rise of 1.5C to ensure survival of all islands. There is no new finance (for adapting to climate change and getting clean energy) -- only promises that something might materialize in the future. Those who are obstructive need to talk not about how their people will live, but whether our people will live."

Indeed, in most small island countries not just in the Pacific, but also the Caribbean and Indian Ocean, ecological concerns and the climate crisis have been dominant themes with dire life and death consequences looming in the background for their people. Small island nations in these region are already at risk from the rise of sea-level, tropical cyclones, floods. But their very livelihoods of fishing and subsistence farming were also at risk as a result of ecological and environmental changes. Increasingly high storm surges can wipe out entire villages and contaminate water supplies. Accordingly, the very existence of island nations, such as [Kiribati](#) and [Tuvalu](#), are at severe risk of being obliterated from the map. Yet even with the existential threat of being wiped

off the map in the offing, the international community has been either slow or restrictive in its efforts to deal with global warming, climate change, economic and ecological damage, as well as the emerging global challenge of environmental refugees.

A 2012 report from the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) and the Pacific Regional Environment Program underlined the concerns of small island nations and their people as it concluded that the livelihoods of approximately 10 million people in Pacific island communities were increasingly vulnerable to climate change. In fact, low-lying islands in that region would likely confront losses of up to 18 percent of gross domestic product due to climate change, according to the report. The report covers 21 countries and territories, including [Fiji](#), [Kiribati](#), [Samoa](#) and [Tonga](#), and recommended environmental legislation intended to deal with the climate crisis facing the small island countries particularly. As noted by David Sheppard, the director general of the Pacific Regional Environment Program that co-sponsored this study: "The findings... emphasize the need more than ever to raise the bar through collective actions that address the region's environmental needs at all levels."

Regardless of the failures of the summit in [Qatar](#) (discussed above), the meeting did facilitate a process starting in 2015, which would bind both wealthy and poor countries together in the mission of forging a new binding treaty that would replace the Kyoto Protocol and tackle the central causes of climate change.

For more information on the threats faced in small island nations by climate change and the measures being undertaken to lobby for international action, please see the Alliance for Small Island States available online at the URL: <http://aosis.org/>

Special Report

COP 21 summit in Paris ends with historic agreement to tackle climate change; rare international consensus formed on environmental crisis facing the planet (2015) --

In mid-December 2015, the highly-anticipated United Nations climate conference of parties (COP) in Paris, [France](#), ended with a historic agreement. In fact, it would very likely be understood as the most significant international agreement signed by all the recognized countries of the world since the Cold War. Accordingly, the Paris Agreement was being distinguished as the first multilateral pact that would compel all countries across the world to cut its carbon emissions -- one of the major causes of increasing greenhouse gas emissions, which contribute to global warming, and its deleterious effects ranging from the dangerous rise in sea level to catastrophic climate change.

The accord, which was dubbed to be the "Paris Agreement," was the work of rigorous diplomacy

and fervent environmental advocacy, and it aimed to address the climate change crisis facing the planet. As many as 195 countries were represented in the negotiations that led to the landmark climate deal. Indeed, it was only after weeks of passionate debate that international concurrence was reached in addressing the environmental challenges confronting the world, with particular attention to moving beyond fossil fuels and reducing greenhouse gas emissions.

The success of the COP 21 summit in Paris and the emergence of the landmark Paris Agreement was, to some extent, attributed to the efforts of France's Foreign Minister Laurent Fabius who presided over the negotiations. The French foreign minister's experience and credentials as a seasoned diplomat and respected statesman paid dividends. He skillfully guided the delegates from almost 200 countries and interest groups along the negotiations process, with ostensibly productive results and a reasonably robust deal to show for it.

On Dec. 12, 2015, French Foreign Minister Fabius officially adopted the agreement, declaring: "I now invite the COP to adopt the decision entitled Paris Agreement outlined in the document. Looking out to the room I see that the reaction is positive, I see no objections. The Paris agreement is adopted." Once Foreign Minister Fabius' gavel was struck, symbolically inaugurating the Paris Agreement into force, the COP delegate rushed to their feet with loud and bouyant cheers as well as thunderous applause.

In general, the Paris Agreement was being hailed as a victory for enviromental activists and a triumph for international diplomats, while at the same time being understood as simply an initial -- and imperfect -- move in the direction of a sustainable future. China's chief negotiator, Xie Zhenhua, issued this message, saying that while the accord was not ideal, it should "not prevent us from marching historical steps forward."

United States President Barack Obama lauded the deal as both "ambitious" and "historic," and the work of strenuous multilateral negotiations as he declared, "Together, we've shown what's possible when the world stands as one." The [United States](#) leader acknowledged that the accord was not "perfect," but he reminded the critics that it was "the best chance to save the one planet we have."

Former [United States](#) Vice President Al Gore, one of the world's most well known environmental advocates, issued a lengthy statement on the accomplishments ensconced in the Paris Agreement. He highlighted the fact that the Paris Agreement was a first step towards a future with a reduced carbon footprint on Planet Earth as he said, "The components of this agreement -- including a strong review mechanism to enhance existing commitments and a long-term goal to eliminate global-warming pollution this century -- are essential to unlocking the necessary investments in our future. No agreement is perfect, and this one must be strengthened over time, but groups across every sector of society will now begin to reduce dangerous carbon pollution through the framework of this agreement."

The central provisions of the Paris Agreement included the following items:

- Greenhouse gas emissions should peak as quickly as possible, with a move towards balancing energy sources, and ultimately the decrease of greenhouse gases in the second half of this century
- Global temperature increase would be limited to 1.5 degrees Centigrade above pre-industrial levels and would be held "well below" the two degrees Centigrade threshold
- Progress on these goals would be reviewed every five years beginning in 2020 with new greenhouse gas reduction targets issued every five years
- \$100 billion would be expended each year in climate finance for developing countries to move forward with green technologies, with further climate financing to be advanced in the years beyond

It should be noted that there both legally binding and voluntary elements contained within the Paris Agreement. Specifically, the submission of an emissions reduction target and the regular review of that goal would be legally mandatory for all countries. Stated differently, there would be a system in place by which experts would be able to track the carbon-cutting progress of each country. At the same time, the specific targets to be set by countries would be determined at the discretion of the countries, and would not be binding. While there was some criticism over this non-binding element, the fact of the matter was that the imposition of emissions targets was believed to be a major factor in the failure of climate change talks in Copenhagen, [Denmark](#), in 2009.

In 2015, the talks faced challenges as several countries, such as [China](#) and [India](#), objected to conditions that would stymie economic and development. In order to avoid that kind of landmine, a system Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs) was developed and formed the basis of the accord. As such, the Paris Agreement would, in fact, facilitate economic growth and development, as well as technological progress, but with the goal of long-term ecological sustainability based on low carbon sources. In fact, the agreement heralded as "the beginning of the end of the fossil fuel era." As noted by Nick Mabey, the head of the climate diplomacy organization E3G, said, "Paris means governments will go further and faster to tackle climate change than ever before. The transition to a low carbon economy is now unstoppable, ensuring the end of the fossil fuel age."

A particular sticking point in the agreement was the \$100 billion earmarked for climate financing for developing countries to transition from traditional fossil fuels to green energy technologies and a low carbon future. In 2014, a report by the International Energy Agency indicated that the cost of that transition would actually be around \$44 trillion by the mid-century -- an amount that would render the \$100 billion being promised to be a drop in the proverbial bucket. However, the general expectation was that the Republican-controlled Senate in the [United States](#), which would have to ratify the deal in that country, was not interested in contributing significant funds for the cause of climate change.

A key strength of the Paris Agreement was the ubiquitous application of measures to all countries. Of note was the frequently utilized concept of "flexibility" with regard to the Paris Agreement. Specifically, the varying capacities of the various countries in meeting their obligations would be anticipated and accorded flexibility. This aspect presented something of a departure from the 1997 Kyoto Protocol, which drew a sharp distinction between developed and developing countries, and mandated a different set of obligations for those categories of countries. Thus, under Kyoto, [China](#) and [India](#) were not held to the same standards as the [United States](#) and European countries. In the Paris Agreement, there would be commitments from all countries across the globe.

Another notable strength of the Paris Agreement was the fact that the countries of the world were finally able to reach consensus on the vital necessity to limit global temperature increases to 1.5 degrees Centigrade. Ahead of the global consensus on the deal, and as controversy continued to surface over the targeted global temperature limits, the leaders of island countries were sounding the alarm about the melting of the Polar ice caps and the associated rise in sea level. Prime Minister Enele Sopoaga of [Tuvalu](#) issued this dismal reminder: "Tuvalu's future ... is already bleak and any further temperature increase will spell the total demise of [Tuvalu](#). No leader in this room carries such a level of worry and responsibility. Just imagine you are in my shoes, what would you do?" It was thus something of a victory for environmental advocates that the countries of the world could find consensus on the lower number -- 1.5 degrees rather than 2 degrees.

A significant weak point with regard to the Paris deal was a "loss and damage" provision, which anticipates that even with all the new undertakings intended to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and move to a low carbon future, there would nonetheless be unavoidable climate change consequences. Those consequences ranged from the loss of arable land for farmers as well as soil erosion and contamination of potable water by sea water, to the decimation of territory in coastal zones and on small islands, due to the rise in sea level, with entire small island countries being rendered entirely uninhabitable. The reality was that peoples' homes across the world would be destroyed along with their way of life.

With that latter catastrophic effect being a clear and present danger for small island countries, the Association of Small Island States (AOSIS) demanded that the developed world acknowledge its responsibility for this irreversible damage.. Despite the fact that greenhouse gas emissions and the ensuing plague of global warming was, indeed, the consequence of development in the West (the [United States](#) and Europe) and the large power house countries, such as [Russia](#), [China](#) and [India](#), there was no appetite by those countries to sign on to unlimited liability. Under the Paris Agreement, there was a call for research on insurance mechanisms that would address loss and damage issues, with recommendations to come in the future.

The call for research was being regarded as an evasion of sorts and constituted the weakest aspect of the Paris Agreement. Not surprisingly, a coalition of small island nations demanded a "Marshall

Plan" for the Pacific. Borrowing the term "Marshall Plan" from the post-World War II reconstruction effort, the coalition of Pacific island nation, which included [Kiribati](#), [Tuvalu](#), [Fiji](#), and the [Marshall Islands](#), called for an initiative that would include investment in renewable energy and shoreline protection, cultural preservation, economic assistance for economies in transition, and a plan for migration and resettlement for these countries as they confront the catastrophic effects of the melting of the Polar ice caps and the concomitant rise in sea level. The precise contours of the initiative remained unknown, unspecified, and a mere exercise in theory at the time of writing. Yet such an initiative would, at some point, have to be addressed, given the realities of climate change and the slow motion calamity unfolding each day for low-lying island nations across the world.

As noted by Vice President Greg Stone of Conservation International, who also functions as an adviser to the government of [Kiribati](#), "Imagine living in a place where you know it's going to go away someday, but you don't know what day that wave's going to come over and wash your home away." He added, "It's a disaster we know is going to happen." Meanwhile, the intervening years promised to be filled with hardship for small island nations, such as [Kiribati](#). Stone explained, "For every inch of sea-level rise, these islands lose 10 feet of their freshwater table to saltwater intrusion," Stone explained. "So it's not just about the day the water finally goes over the island; it's also about the day that there's just not enough water left and everyone has to move off the island." Presaging the future for island nations that could face submersion, Stone said, "If you look ahead 50 years, a country like [Kiribati](#) could become the first aqueous nation. possibility of migration. That is, they own this big patch of ocean, and they administer it from elsewhere."

Foreign Minister Minister Tony Debrum of the [Marshall Islands](#) emerged as the champion advocating on behalf of small island nation states and a loose coalition of concerned countries from the Pacific to the Caribbean, but with support from the [United States](#). He addressed the comprehensive concerns of small island nations regarding the weaknesses of the deal, while simultaneously making clear that the Paris Agreement signified hope for the countries most at risk. In a formal statement, Debrum declared: "We have made history today. Emissions targets are still way off track, but this agreement has the tools to ramp up ambition, and brings a spirit of hope that we can rise to this challenge. I can go back home to my people and say we now have a pathway to survival." Debrum highlighted the imperatives of Pacific island nations, saying, "Our High Ambition Coalition was the lightning rod we needed to lift our sights and expectations for a strong agreement here in Paris. We were joined by countries representing more than half the world. We said loud and clear that a bare-bones, minimalist agreement would not fly. We instead demanded an agreement to mark a turning point in history, and the beginning of our journey to the post-carbon era."

Debrum of the [Marshall Islands](#) espoused the quintessential synopsis of the accord and its effects for those most likely to be affected by climate change as he noted, "Climate change won't stop

overnight, and my country is not out of the firing line just yet, but today we all feel a little safer.”

Editor's Entry on [Environmental Policy](#):

The low-lying Pacific island nations of the world, including [Kiribati](#), [Tuvalu](#), the [Marshall Islands](#), [Fiji](#), among others, are vulnerable to the threats posed by global warming and climate change, derived from carbon emissions, and resulting in the rise in sea level. Other island nations in the Caribbean, as well as poor countries with coastal zones, were also at particular risk of suffering the deleterious effects of climate change.

Political policy in these countries are often connected to ecological issues, which have over time morphed into an existential crisis of sorts. Indeed, ecological concerns and the climate crisis have also been dominant themes with life and death consequences for the people of island nations in the Pacific. Indeed, the very livelihoods of fishing and subsistence farming remain at risk as a result of ecological and environmental changes. Yet even so, these countries are threatened by increasingly high storm surges, which could wipe out entire villages and contaminate water supplies. Moreover, because these are low lying island nations, the sustained rise in sea level can potentially lead to the terrain of these countries being uninhabitable at best, and submerged at worst. Stated in plain terms, these countries are at severe risk of being obliterated from the map and their plight illuminates the emerging global challenge of environmental refugees. In these manifold senses, climate change is the existential crisis of the contemporary era.

Since the time of the 1997 Kyoto Protocol, there have been efforts aimed at extending the life of that agreement, with an eye on minimizing greenhouse gas emissions, and thus minimizing the effects of climate change. Those endeavors have largely ended in failure, as exemplified by the unsuccessful Copenhagen talks in 2009 and the fruitless Doha talks in 2012 respectively. The success of the COP 21 talks in [France](#), with the adoption of the landmark Paris Agreement in 2015, was regarded as the first glimmer of hope. Not only did the Paris Agreement signify the triumph of international diplomacy and global consensus, but it also marked the start of the end of the fossil fuel era, with the path forward toward a low carbon future reliant on greener technologies. Most crucially, the Paris Agreement stood as the first significant response in recent times to the central challenge of climate change and its quotidian effects on the lives of real human beings across the world.

1. Major International Environmental Accords:

General Environmental Concerns

Convention on Environmental Impact Assessment in a Transboundary Context, Espoo, 1991.

Accords Regarding Atmosphere

Annex 16, vol. II (Environmental Protection: Aircraft Engine Emissions) to the 1044 Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation, Montreal, 1981

Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP), Geneva, 1979

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), New York, 1992

Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer, Vienna, 1985 including the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Depleted the Ozone Layer, Montreal, 1987

Accords Regarding Hazardous Substances

Convention on the Ban of the Import into Africa and the Control of Transboundary Movements and Management of Hazardous Wastes within Africa, Bamako, 1991

Convention on Civil Liability for Damage Caused during Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Road, Rail and Inland Navigation Vessels (CRTD), Geneva, 1989

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Convention on the Transboundary Effects of Industrial Accidents, Helsinki, 1992

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Global Conventions

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Convention on the Protection of the Black Sea against Pollution, Bucharest, 1992

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Convention for the Protection, Management, and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the Eastern African Region, Nairobi, 1985

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Marine Living Resources

Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR), Canberra, 1980

International Convention for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas (ICCAT), Rio de Janeiro, 1966

International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling (ICRW), Washington, 1946

Nature Conservation and Terrestrial Living Resources

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Freshwater Resources

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Convention on Early Notification of a Nuclear Accident (Notification Convention), Vienna, 1986

Convention on Nuclear Safety, Vienna, 1994

Vienna Convention on Civil Liability for Nuclear Damage, Vienna, 1963

5. Major Intergovernmental Organizations

Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD)

European Union (EU): Environment

Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

Global Environment Facility (GEF)

International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES)

International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

International Labour Organization (ILO)

International Maritime Organization (IMO)

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

International Oil Pollution Compensation Funds (IOPC Funds)

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), Environment Policy Committee (EPOC)

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)

World Bank

World Food Programme (WFP)

World Health Organization (WHO)

World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

World Trade Organization (WTO)

6. Major Non-Governmental Organizations

Atmosphere Action Network East Asia (AANE)

Climate Action Network (CAN)

Consumers International (CI)

Earth Council

Earthwatch Institute

Environmental Liaison Centre International (ELCI)

European Environmental Bureau (EEB)

Forest Stewardship Council (FSC)

Friends of the Earth International (FoEI)

Greenpeace International

International Chamber of Commerce (ICC)

International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU)

International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF)

International Solar Energy Society (ISES)

IUCN-The World Conservation Union

Pesticide Action Network (PAN)

Sierra Club

Society for International Development (SID)

Third World Network (TWN)

Water Environment Federation (WEF)

Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO)

World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD)

World Federalist Movement (WFM)

World Resources Institute (WRI)

World Wide Fund For Nature (WWF)

7. Other Networking Instruments

Arab Network for Environment and Development (RAED)

Global Legislators for a Balanced Environment (GLOBE)

Regional Environmental Center for Central and Eastern Europe (REC)

United Nations Non-Governmental Liaison Service (UN-NGLS)

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The demographic numbers for cities and national populations listed in CountryWatch content are derived from the Geoba.se website, which analyzes data from the World Bank. The current demographic numbers displayed on the Countrywatch website are reflective of the latest available estimates.

The demographic information for language, ethnicity and religion listed in CountryWatch content is

derived from a mix of sources including the Altapedia, Central Intelligence Agency Factbook, Infoplease, and State Department Background Notes.

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Methodology Notes for Economic Data:

Estimates by CountryWatch.com of GDP in dollars in most countries are made by converting local currency GDP data from the International Monetary Fund World Economic Outlook to US dollars by market exchange rates estimated from the International Monetary Fund International Financial Statistics and projected out by the CountryWatch Macroeconomic Forecast. Real GDP was estimated by deflating current dollar values by the US GDP Implicit Price Deflator.

Exceptions to this method were used for:

- Bosnia-Herzegovina
- Nauru
- Cuba
- Palau
- Holy See
- San Marino
- Korea, North
- [Serbia](#) & Montenegro
- Liberia
- Somalia
- Liechtenstein
- Tonga
- Monaco
- Tuvalu

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Methodology Notes for the HDI:

Since 1990, the United Nations Development Programme, in concert with organizations across the globe, has produced the [Human Development Index](#) (or HDI). According to the UNDP, the index measures average achievement in basic human development in one simple composite index, and produces from this index a ranking of countries. The HDI is a composite of three basic components of human development: longevity, knowledge and standard of living. Longevity is measured by life expectancy. Knowledge is measured by combination of adult literacy and mean

years of schooling. Standard of living is measured by purchasing power, based on real GDP per capita (in constant US\$) adjusted for differences in international living costs (or, purchasing power parity, PPP). While the index uses these social indicators to measure national performance with regard to human welfare and development, not all countries provide the same level of information for each component needed to compute the index; therefore, as in any composite indicator, the final index is predicated on projections, predictions and weighting schemes. The index is a static measure, and thus, an incomplete measure of human welfare. In fact, the UNDP says itself the concept of human development focuses on the ends rather than the means of development and progress, examining in this manner, the average condition of all people in a given country.

Specifically, the index is calculated by determining the maximum and minimum for each of the three components (as listed above) and then measuring where each country stands in relation to these scales-expressed as a value between 0 and 1. For example, the minimum adult literary rate is zero percent, the maximum is 100 percent, and the reading skills component of knowledge in the HDI for a country where the literacy rate is 75 percent would be 0.75. The scores of all indicators are then averaged into the overall index.

For a more extensive examination of human development, as well as the ranking tables for each participating country, please visit: <http://www.undp.org>

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Note: Some or all these news services have been used to research various sections of this Country Review.

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Examples:

Youngblood-Coleman, Denise. *Country Review: France*. 2003. Houston, Texas: CountryWatch Publications, 2003. *Country Review:France*. Online. Available URL : http://www.countrywatch.com/cw_country.asp?vCOUNTRY=61 October, 12, 2003.

Note:

This is the citation format used when the print version is not used in the reference.

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