Poverty Level Assessment of Addis Ababa 2015

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Executive Summary

Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia, occupies a unique position in the Ethiopian urban system in terms of its demographic and economic weight. In 2012, with a population of 3 million it housed about 21% of the total urban population in the country; it accounted for 46.6% of total industrial employment and 21.7% of all employment (formal and informal). Furthermore, Addis Ababa is a political center of the nation and the continent as it is the seat of the national government, the African Union, and several international and diplomatic missions. The immensity of its demographic, economic and political role, however, has to be matched with competitiveness, liveability and inclusivity. The latter two imply that poverty and vulnerability should play no role in the living condition of its population. Though the city has enjoyed a declining trend of poverty incidence in the last decade (32.6% in 2004/05 and 28.1% in 2010/11), the level of poverty in the city still remains high and this compromises its liveability and inclusivity.

The Addis Ababa City Government has designed and implemented integrated urban development program within the framework of the growth and transformation plan over the last five years. These programs are expected to achieve significant improvement in social, environment, economic and governance in the city and bring about poverty reduction.

This study assesses the state of matters pertaining to poverty in the City. The aim is to understand poverty dynamics in the city in its consumption and non-consumption dimension and understand people's perception and satisfaction related to basic features of governance, service provision and development intervention in the city. The study is based on the Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure as well as Welfare and Monitoring Surveys conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia in 2010/11 and afresh data collected on Household Consumption and Expenditure as well as Welfare and Monitoring Situations in all sub-cities in 2015. Both the 2011 and 2015 surveys were based on data obtained from randomly selected 240 EAs (i.e. 24 EAs in each of the 10 sub-cities) and 3840 households in which 16 households were randomly selected from each of the EAs. Qualitative data were collected from each of the sub-cities through in-depth interview, key informant interviews and FGDs in order to explain the poverty situation in the city in detail and triangulate the statistical evidences. The data gathered in this study and the previous data from the CSA were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to identify the levels and determinants of poverty in the City. Both money-metric and non-money metric poverty measures were considered to assess the purchasing and consumption abilities of city residents and their ability to meet basic needs of

household members. Money metric poverty was measured using incidence of poverty (headcount index), depth of poverty (poverty gap) and poverty severity (squared poverty gap) whereas non-monetary dimension of poverty was measured through access to health and education services, and access to other substantial issues of poverty and subjective perceptions of poverty mainly based on self-reporting scale.

According to the study, the projected population size of Addis Ababa has increased from 2,850,499 in 2011 to 3,100,425 in 2015, with an estimated annual population growth rate of 2.1% per annum. Variations have been observed in annual rates of population growth across sub-cities ranging from 4.2% of annual growth in Kolfe Karaniyo Sub-City to 3.0% in Kirkos Sub-City. The average household size in 2015 is about 3.8 persons with reduction in the proportion of large household size (i.e. 7 and above) from 22.6% in 2011 to 16.3% in 2015.

Despite wider variation in unemployment rate among males and females, unemployment rate has declined in the city among both sexes. Male unemployment rate has gone down from 14.5% in 2011 to 10.0% in 2015. Unemployment rate among females has also declined from 22.4% in 2011 to 19.1% in 2015. Male unemployment rate has declined in eight of the sub-cities except Kirkos and Kolfe Karanio sub-cities where it has shown an increasing trend. Female unemployment rate has also shown a declining trend in seven of the sub-cities with the exception of Gulele, Arada and Lideta sub-cities that have shown more female unemployment rate in 2015 than in 2011. Findings from the qualitative data, on the other hand, reveal that unemployment rate among the youth population is still high due to tendency to look for jobs in government offices and non-manual jobs in the private sector. Lack of working space and limited access to working capital were mentioned as major bottlenecks to create own jobs or engage in business activities cooperatively.

In a bid to determine the consumption poverty in the city, the study found out that city level per capita consumption expenditure increased from birr 5601 in 2011 to birr 11,166 in 2015 (99 % increase or a 24% increase per year). Similarly the real per adult consumption expenditure grew from 6523 in 2011 to 13141 in 2015 (101% increase over a period of four years). Both the food and non-food per capita and adult equivalent consumptions also showed an increase during the same period. The per capita consumption shows variations among the sub-cities. Bole followed by Akaki Kaliti has the highest per capita income consumption in 2015. Both Bole and Akaki also depict the highest increase in percentage terms between 2011 and 2015. Addis ketema (7226 birr) and Arada

(8101 birr) have the lowest levels of consumption in 2015. The difference in consumption between the highest and the lowest sub cities also increased with time.

The share of expenditure on food in total consumption expenditure for different sub-cities shows that the share ranges between 38.8% (Bole sub city) and 60.4% (Addis Ketema sub city) with the city average being 48%. The shares however decreased in all sub-cities between 2011 and 2015 implying that non-food expenditure is gaining more weight in the consumption baskets of households. In this study the food and absolute poverty lines for AA for 2015 was found out to be Birr 3657 and Birr 6697 per adult per year respectively. The consumption poverty indices show that the proportion of people who are below absolute poverty in 2015 for AA was estimated to be 18.9% with 95% confidence interval of between 17.3% and 20.4%. For the same year the poverty gap and severity of poverty indices were 5% and 1.8% respectively. The 95% confidence interval is between 4.5% and 5.5% for poverty gap and between 1.6% and 2% for severity of poverty.

The trends in poverty shows that poverty head count index declined substantially from 28.1% in 2011 to 18.9% in 2015, which is more than the decline in the previous periods. Similarly, the poverty gap and severity indices declined substantially between the years 2011 and 2015, which was not the case in the previous periods. In 2011, poverty gap index was 7.3% and poverty severity index was 2.7%. In 2015, these figures declined to 5% and 1.8% respectively.

The sub-city level poverty incidence reveals that first poverty level varies significantly by sub city (46.9% in Addis Ketem and 7.9% in Bole). Second, in the year 2015 there were three sub-cities (Addis ketema with 46.9%, Arada with 34.5% and Lideta with 29.6%) which have higher than the city average poverty level (18.9%). These sub-cities have also shown higher than the city average poverty level in the years 2005 and 2011. Third, poverty head count index declined in all sub cities of Addis Ababa except Arada and Addis Ketema sub cities where poverty did not decline.

In this study, income inequality was measured by Gini coefficient of real consumption per capita. The Gini Coefficient for the year 2015 is estimated to be 0.32, which is quite low compared to many other cities in the world. The trend in Gini coefficient showed that inequality had an increasing trend during the year 1996-2005 after which time it showed a declining trend. The decline in inequality between the year 2005 and 2011 was significant with a difference of 0.119 while the decline in inequality between the years 2011 and 2015 is tempered and the Gini coefficients had a difference of only 0.014.

The characteristics of poverty showed that female headed households (21%) are more vulnerable to poverty than male headed households (17.1%). Households in dissolved marriage such as divorcees (16.9%), separated (14.9%) and widowers (24.8%) have relatively higher poverty incidence. The proportion of households living below poverty line increases with household size. It can be seen that while only 5.7% of the households with single member lives below poverty line, the proportion increases to 11.4 % among those households with 4 members and to 18% among those households having 5 members. Education is found out to decrease the incidence of poverty in the city. In terms of productive work, those who are not engaged in productive work have higher share of the absolute poor (23%) as opposed to those who are engaged in productive work (16%). Poverty by occupation type shows that the highest level of poverty is found among those employed in elementary occupation (29.4%) compared to legislators (6.1%) and professionals (8.3%).

The non-consumption dimension of poverty shows that there are still gender gaps in educational attainment in the City. Literacy rate among population aged 5 and above is about 94% among males while it is about 84% among females. Net enrolment is about three-fourth, slightly over two-third and about two-fifth at first primary cycle (1-4 grades), second primary cycle (5-8 grades) and high schools (9-10), respectively, indicating that the initiatives to build human capital still requires more efforts to produce professionals and skilled personnel among residents of the City. Interestingly, there is a tremendous increase in the proportion of students attending government schools although there are some complaints about the quality of education due to wider expectation of residents from the sector. Improvement in the health sector is also manifested through satisfaction of the majority of the respondents although complaints were raised in some aspect of the health service system. The provision of free medical services to the poor upon production of support letter from local authorities is highly appreciated among residents as it tends to narrow the gap in the access to health services.

The housing characteristics show that only 37.3 % live in own houses, the majority of residents live in congested houses and nearly three-fourth of the households live in slum houses built of wood mud and stone. In terms of housing facilities, toilet facilities have not shown much change between 2011 and 2015 at the city level and about a quarter of the sampled households in the city does not have kitchen at all. Water and energy availability show that households accessing drinking water during dry season from own tab increased from 38.4% in 2011 to 54.4% in 2015 while the percentage distribution of households with lighting from privately owned electricity has shown slight change (from 58.0% in 2011 to 61.8% in 2015) at the City level. Similarly, households using electricity as cooking fuel increased from 17.8% in 2011 to 47.5% in 2015. On the contrary, use of wood/charcoal

as cooking fuel has declined from 57.3% in 2011 to 43.3% in 2015. Electric power interruption is a serious problem in Addis Ababa. Nearly two-fifth of the sampled households complained that they faced electric power interruption more than three times a week preceding the survey. Improvement in the economic conditions and labour productivity in the city has also been manifested through an increase in the proportion of households owning some durable items such as mobile phones, television, radio/tape, chair/table, sofa set, electric *mitad* between 2011 and 2015.

Household livelihood is critical since it determines vulnerability. The bulk of households both in 2011 and 2015 earn their living from salaries as employed persons. Though salaries may imply a predictable income, salaries could be low putting individuals into problems. Households who started their own businesses, engaged in MSEs or take loan from micro finance institutions are small in number though there is an improvement over that of 2011.

Households face different types of shocks such as death, illness, loss of jobs, shortage of food, drought, fire etc due to different reasons. The study revealed that households who experienced shocks in 2015 (33%) have increased compared to those with shocks in 2011 (16%). In some sub-cities such as Kolfe Keranio (49%), Kirkos (48%), Gulele (44%), there are more household reporting shocks. Similarly, females face more number of shocks than males. The incidence of shocks indicates that the most frequently sited shock type at city level is price rise of food items which was reported by nearly 29% of the households in 2015 though this was not reported in 2011. The second most important shock reported by nearly 18% of the households is reduced drinking water.

Households' capability to mobilize resources in order to cope up with shocks revealed that it is only 47% and 53% of the household in 2011 and 2015 respectively who can raise some predetermined money to cope with shocks. Households who suffered from food shortage in the last 12 months have dramatically decreased in the last five years. At city level, the proportion of households decreased from 8.22 per cent to 3.62 per cent.

Governance in this study was examined by looking at institutional effectiveness, service coverage and rule of law and justice. Institutional effectiveness entails accountability and responsiveness on the part of office holders. In this regard households who believe that government considers their suggestion form only one-quarter or 25% implying that office holders need to consider the public decision more carefully in order to ensure accountability and responsiveness. As part of ensuring responsiveness, people's representative must reflect and keep the interests of the public. People's perception in this regard revealed that there is less responsiveness at local level than at city and national level. The majority of people also rated the government's and parliament's performance as

being only fair, an indication of the need to improve the situation. In terms of service delivery, while the majority rated access to health and education services as being acceptable, they mentioned their dissatisfaction regarding the quality of the services. The majority of the households (94%) indicated that access to affordable housing is not easy in the City and this implies that the major task of the city is to create an enabling environment for affordable housing. Similarly, access to gainful employment, access to solid waste management and transport services are rated low and these need to be considered by authorities in the city. With regard to policy and the court in the city, the majority of households have confided trust in both the police and the court.

Qualitative data collected through interviews and FGDs identified several major causes of poverty in the city including lack of job opportunities, lack of marketable education/skill, negative attitude towards manual work, lack of proper implementation of Government Policy and Maladministration, etc. Regarding poverty situation in the past five years, most agreed that it has improved as a result of interventions by government and non-government organizations. However, they also noted that more needs to be done to improve the living condition of residents. They reported that such development interventions are not fully successful because residents face problems in accessing loans and finding working premises.

The study found that several shocks and difficulties were faced by households including death of spouse, parents, children or siblings, divorce and family disintegration, loss of a job, lose of house, and domestic abuse. These shocks and difficulties have had serious economic, social and health impacts. Both positive and negative coping strategies are applied by households. The former include starting new home-based business, involving in saving and credit institutions and SMEs, and accessing assistance of neighbours, relative and family members. The latter include prostitution, dropping out of school, engagement in criminal activities and migration.

Results on quality of social services were mixed. Participants praised improved access to health care, education, utilities, housing, ICT, and road and transport. However serious complaints were raised regarding medical malpractice, quality of education, power and water interruption, unaffordability of housing and ICT services, and transportation shortage. It is also notable that some of the youth participants were of the opinion that their political participation and access to justice has been curtailed. Finally, participants recommended solutions to alleviate poverty and improve services in the city. These are, among others, improving quality of services, proper coordination between various city organs, improving good governance and participation.

The recommendation that emanated from the study included targeting which involves both spatial targeting and socio economic group targeting to address poverty in the city. With regard to services, there is a need to improve such services as water, transport services, electric power, network connections, youth recreation etc. The quality of education and health services also need to be seriously examined as they need considerable attention. Housing and gainful employment are also serious issues that need to be addressed in the city. The City government has to address the issue of the rising cost of commodity particularly the prices of basic food items like *teff*, vegetables, meat etc. The effectiveness of the development intervention has to be enhanced as interventions per se may not bring the desired results. In terms of good governance, there is room for improving accountability and responsiveness in the city. The government must encourage the practice of good governance in the different public service providing institutions and in peoples' representatives.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Ethiopia's development vision is to achieve middle-income status by 2025. In the process, Ethiopia plans to bring about a structural shift in the economy in favour of industry. In this regard, urbanization is one of the most important and potent instruments in the Ethiopian policy makers' arsenal to promote economic growth, create jobs and bring about fast industrialization. Ethiopia is experiencing one of the fastest rates of urbanization with its urban population doubling in 35 years, from 8.5 per cent in 1967 to 17.4 % per cent in 2012.

Though Ethiopian has numerous urban centres, (about 1557 towns in 2014), its urban scene is dominated by the capital city, Addis Ababa. Addis Ababa had a population of 3 million in 2012 forming about 21% of the total urban population. The population of the four largest cities next to Addis Ababa represents only 35% of the Addis Ababa's population. In terms of economic contribution, Addis Ababa has the highest concentration of industrial activity and formal employment. For instance in 2012 Addis Ababa accounted for 46.6% of total industrial employment and 21.7% of all employment (formal and informal). Furthermore, Addis Ababa is a political center of the Nation and the Continent as it is the seat of the national government, the African Union, and several international and diplomatic missions.

In order for Addis Ababa to continue with its economic and political role, it must be liveable, favourable and conducive for its residents by overcoming its problems. One of the problems the city face is poverty. In 2010/11, the poverty incidence in Addis Ababa was 28.1%. Though this is an improvement compared to poverty incidence of the city in the year 2004/05 which was 32.6%, it still shows that poverty is high and this has to be dealt with in order to make its residents follow a decent life.

At national level, the Ethiopian Government has embarked on poverty reduction strategies since 2000/01with the issuance of the first poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs) namely the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Paper (SDPRP) (2000/01-2004/05) to deal with both rural and urban poverty. Since then the country implemented A Plan for Accelerated and Sustainable Development to end Poverty (PASDEP) (2005/06-2009/10) and the Growth and Transformation Plan (2010/11-20014/15). All these national plans have solid poverty reduction strategies. In addition, massive scaling up of efforts to reach MDGs through intensified sectoral

programs such as education, water supply and health are envisaged as the second prong of poverty reduction strategy.

The urban development policy issued in 2005 has the urban development package which, among others, has the objective of reducing unemployment and poverty. The package has five pillars namely micro and small enterprise development program, integrated housing development, youth development program, provision of land, infrastructure, services and facilities and rural urban and urban linkage. The urban development package serves as the basic guiding principles for city level strategies and programs to reduce urban poverty. In particular, the three pillars namely the micro and small enterprises, the integrated housing program and land delivery are those which are widely implemented in almost all cities and towns.

The Addis Ababa City Government has designed and implemented integrated urban development program within the framework of the growth and transformation plan over the last five years. The strategy has focused on several issues including housing development, micro and small enterprises, construction of roads and infrastructure, water resources development, land development and upgrading of slum and good governance. These programs are expected to achieve significant improvement in social, environment, economic and governance in the city and bring about poverty reduction.

In the light of this, it is important to make a study in order to assess the state of matters pertaining to poverty in the City. The study will provide insight, knowledge and information on the extent and nature of poverty in the city. It will identify poverty trends in the last five years and will highlight policy relevant recommendations in order to help design appropriate urban development policies, strategies, programs and plans.

1.1 Objectives

The purpose of the study is to assess the nature, extent and breadth of poverty in Addis Ababa City. The specific objectives of the study are the following:

- To examine the dynamics of poverty and inequality over the last five years (2011-2015) using relevant available CSA survey data;
- To measure the incidence, gap and severity of poverty in 2015;

- To examine the trends of the non-income dimensions of poverty as illustrated through housing, education, health, food security, shocks and coping mechanisms in the last five years (2011-2015);
- To identify underlying causes of poverty as perceived by households;
- To understand the perception of residents on some basic features of governance, service provision and development intervention in the city; and
- To come up with specific policy relevant recommendations for addressing challenges to improve the wellbeing of the residents.

1.2 Scope and Content of the Study

The scope and content of the study was discussed with the client prior to the preparation of the inception report. Accordingly, a common understanding that was reached on the scope of the study is as follows:

1. The study will be a representative study of Addis Ababa. The study will follow the CSA procedures as far as possible;
2. The reporting levels will be both the city level and the sub-city level;
3. Households will be the basic units of data analysis;
4. The dimensions of poverty to be studied in this research include economic, social, environmental and governance. As such it includes both income and non-income dimensions of poverty;
5. The money metric poverty assessment will be based on consumption while the non-money metric poverty measure uses different indicators to measure the level of poverty; and
6. The level of inequality will be measured by the Gini-Coefficient.

1.3 Limitations of the study

This study is based on consumption data in order to arrive at money metric measurement of poverty. Consumption data is preferred to income data due to difficulty of accurately collecting income data. The study is a cross-sectional study that attempts to capture the situation at a point in time and it relies on CSA data to make a comparative analysis. Longitudinal data, however, would have been more useful to study trends of poverty.

1.4 Research Questions

The main research questions to be answered in this study are:

What are the socio economic characteristics of the respondents in the study area?

What are the main sources of income among the household head in the city?

What does the living condition of the respondents look like in terms of education, health, housing, food security and access to basic facilities?

How do poverty and inequality change at the city and sub-city level?

What are the characteristics of the poor in Addis Ababa?

What shocks did households face and what coping strategies do they employ to overcome the shocks?

How do people perceive the causes of poverty in the city?

How do people perceive the state of service provision and good governance in the city?

How do people perceive the different development intervention in the city?

How can poverty and inequality be addressed in the city?

1.5 Urban Poverty- What it is and how it is measured: A Literature Review

The world is becoming increasingly urbanized. The 2006/07 state of the World cities report predicted that for the first time in the world history, the majority of human beings will live in cities by the year 2007 (UN-Habitat, 2007). Urbanization though a beneficial socio-economic phenomenon with far reaching economic, demographic, ecological, political consequences, can also pose great challenges to society. One of the undesirable faces of urbanization is the urbanization of poverty which means that poverty also urbanizes or gets intensified with urbanization.

Urban poverty thus becomes an issue that needs to be tackled with a sense of urgency if urban residents are to enjoy the benefits of urbanization. Despite this, however, there is a tendency to underestimate urban poverty. One of the reasons is the underestimation of poverty line by national statistics which uses a higher poverty line for both rural and urban poor while in actual fact people lack the necessary income needed to cover the cost of basic necessities like safe drinking water, adequate quality housing, adequate sanitation and children's education (Satterthwaite, 1997). Wratten (1995) argues that a distinction between rural and urban poverty is problematic because first the categories of rural and urban are arbitrary and second such distinction may shift attention away

from national and international identification of the structural causes of poverty to city level solutions.

Despite this, it is possible to find certain characteristics of poverty which are closely identified with urban poverty. According to Wratten (1995), these attributes of urban poverty are grouped under four categories: urban environmental and health risks, vulnerability arising from commercial exchange, social diversity, fragmentation and crime, vulnerability arising from the intervention of the state and police. Beall and Fox (2006) identified the followings that characterize urban poverty. These are:

1. Reliance on monetized and informal economy: In urban areas, cash income is needed to pay for different expenditure: transport, schools, housing, water, food, health care, child care etc. These costs are higher in urban areas and form significant parts of the poor's expenditure. In urban settings, people have to pay for their food since they cannot grow their own crop or raise livestock. Similarly, many tenant households spend more than a third of their income on rent (Satterthwaite and Tacoli, 2002). The poor get their income from wage labor forming the latter to become an important determinant of urban poverty. Consequently different characteristics of the labor market such as regulation, minimum wage legislation, hiring and firing, employment protection etc. influence urban poverty. An important aspect of labor market that influences poverty is the informal economy since the poor tend to engage heavily in the informal economy.

2. Inadequate housing and insecure tenure: The poor generally live in substandard housing and informal settlements. Houses in these settlements are makeshift houses which are unhygienic and overcrowded with no connection to the formal structures such as drainage and sewage system. The poor cannot access land in cities, and as a result non-formal occupation of land or informal tenure emerges. Such illegal occupations usually emerge in peripheries, or environmentally risky areas such as steep slopes, ravines, river banks or areas susceptible to landslides and pollution (Pyne, 2002)

Lack of access to basic services: The poor in urban areas suffer from inadequate access to health, education, water, sewerage etc. with its own health burden implication (Tegegne,). Though urban dwellers may be better off than rural dwellers in getting access to services, the poor in urban areas pay high costs for such services. For instance in Addis Ababa the existing water charges favour middle and high income people with own connection compared to the poor who depend on water vendors to access water (Diereg, 1999).

Vulnerability to diseases and environmental hazards: The poor in urban areas live in poor environmental conditions. For instance, because of low income, the poor live in cheap, high density,

environmentally poor and physically dangerous locations near industrial facilities, toxic water, solid waste pumps, railway lines etc. (Meikle, 2002). This situation exposes the poor to several diseases such as cholera, malaria, diarrheal diseases, intestinal worms etc

Social fragmentation: In general cities are socially more fragmented than rural areas with a consequence of poor community and poor social ties (Meikle, 2002). Social disintegration and community breakdown in cities aggravate the conditions of the poor in urban areas and increase their vulnerability.

Exposure to Violence, Crime, War and Terrorism: Crime and violence are major development problems in urban settings. Under this situation, individuals are negatively affected. Though crime happens throughout the city, its intensity is higher in informal settlements where the poor live and work and the poor residents become the main victims. (UN-Habitat, 2002)

While the above provides the features of urban poverty, the causes of urban poverty are controversial. Two views prevail regarding the causes of poverty. These are the 'culture of poverty' hypothesis which attributes poverty to the personal failings of individuals and the marginalization hypothesis which attributes poverty to the failures of structured political and economic system in which the poor find themselves. Empirical evidences have highlighted that the former cannot explain poverty since the poor are found to be socially cohesive and well organized, culturally optimistic and eager to improve their housing situation and education of their children. The poor also make an important contribution to the city's informal economy (Wratten, 1995). Instead poverty is caused due to discriminatory structures which denied the poor to realize their aspirations. This is in line with the structural explanation of poverty and resonates with the World Bank's position that poverty can be attributed to 'structural constraints and inefficiencies in the urban economy including excessive protection of capital intensive industry, ineffective public policies and weak public institutions'. Beyond this, it is also important to note that the causes for individual impoverishment could be associated with a particular point in the life cycle of families caused by sudden shocks, migration etc. Such shocks may include the loss of adult family income earner, the confiscation of street traders stock, the demolishing of housing because of illegality, the high cost of illness in the family etc.

Measuring poverty

Measurement of poverty is critical for policy making. The initial conceptualization of poverty is income based. The justification is that in market based economies, the lack of income is highly correlated with other causes of poverty and is a predictor of future problems of deprivation

(Wrattten, 1995). People are classified as poor when their income (consumption) is less than that required to meet certain defined needs (ibid). The World Bank sets the poverty line as the minimum income level to meet the basic need at US 1.25 a day in 2005 purchasing power parity while the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development used 2200 kcal per day plus essential non-food expenditure as a poverty level. In 2010/11, both types of the poverty levels in Ethiopia were very close. Beginning with the work of Sen (1976) on the axiomatic approach to measurement of poverty, several indices of poverty have been developed. The most widely used poverty indices are the percentage of the poor, the aggregate poverty gap, and the distribution of income among the poor.

The most widely used poverty indices are the percentage of the poor (headcount index), the aggregate poverty gap (poverty gap index), and the distribution of income among the poor (poverty severity index). The poverty measure itself is a statistical function that translates the comparison of the indicator of household well-being and the chosen poverty line into one aggregate number for the population as a whole or a population subgroup. Many alternative measures exist, but the three measures described below are the ones most commonly used indices.

Incidence of poverty (headcount index): This is the share of the population whose income or consumption is below the poverty line, that is, the share of the population that cannot afford to buy a basic basket of goods.

Depth of poverty (poverty gap): This provides information regarding how far households are far from the poverty line. This measure captures the mean aggregate income or consumption shortfall relative to the poverty line across the whole population. It is obtained by adding up all the shortfalls of the poor (assuming that the non-poor have a shortfall of zero) and dividing the total by the population. In other words, it estimates the total resources needed to bring all the poor to the level of the poverty line (divided by the number of individuals in the population).

Poverty severity (squared poverty gap): This takes into account not only the distance separating the poor from the poverty line (the poverty gap), but also the inequality among the poor, that is, a higher weight is placed on those households further away from the poverty line.

More precisely, we use measures that can be defined in terms of the well-known Foster, Greer, and Thorbecke (1984) P_α class of poverty measures namely poverty head count index, poverty gap and poverty severity indices in order to see the extent of poverty. The detail computation and aggregation

of poverty is provided as follows. Defining the per-adult (per capita) consumption expenditure of household *i* by Y_i, and we can rank Y_i, as

$$Y_1 \le Y_2 \le .....Y_q \le Z < {}_{q+1} ..... \le Y_N,$$

where *Z* is poverty line, N is the total population, and *q* is the number of poor. Consequently, we can classify an individual poor if the real per adult consumption expenditure is less than Z (Y<Z) and non-poor if the real per adult consumption expenditure is greater than or equal to Z (Y>=Z). Once we classify an individuals into poor and non-poor, we can aggregate poverty at national and sub-national level using the P_α class of poverty measures given by

$$P_\alpha = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(\frac{Z - Y_i)}{Z}\right)^\alpha \;;\; \alpha \ge 0, \text{ for } Y < Z.$$

When α=0, the corresponding poverty index is called the *headcount index* (P_0). Hence P_0 corresponds to the fraction of individuals falling below the poverty line. If α=1, the poverty index is called the *poverty gap ind*ex (P_1) and it measures the aggregate poverty deficit of the poor relative to the poverty line. Poverty gap ratio can also be interpreted as an indicator of potentials for eliminating poverty by targeting transfers to the poor. The minimum cost of eliminating poverty using targeted transfer is the sum of all poverty gaps in a population - ($Z- Y_o$) x q. The drawback of the poverty gap measure is that it does not capture the differences in the severity of poverty among the poor, that is, it does not capture the transfer of income among the poor. If income is transferred from the poor to the least poor, the poverty gap index will be unaffected. When α>1, the P_0 calculation gives more weight to the average income shortfall of the poorest of the poor. Thus P_2(where α= 2) measures the squared proportional shortfalls from the poverty line, which is commonly known as an index of the severity of poverty. However, it is not easy to interpret.

Poverty reports in developing countries use all three poverty indices described above namely headcount poverty, the poverty gap, and the severity of poverty. The measures of depth and severity of poverty are important complements of the incidence of poverty. It might be the case that some groups have a high poverty incidence but low poverty gap (when numerous members are just below the poverty line), while other groups have a low poverty incidence but a high poverty gap for those who are poor (when relatively few members are below the poverty line but with extremely low levels of consumption or income).

Income measurement however has its own problems. Though income measures a lack of resources, it cannot measure access to services which may depend on other factors such as education, information, legal status (Wratten, 1995). Income measured at household level cannot depict individual's members command over resources. Such incomes may not also differentiate among households with different family sizes. Income measures do not also capture home production or earnings from self-employment. The fact that needs cannot be standardized individually but varies by culture, individual preference, settlement context, etc. is another reason to doubt income measure as a standalone indicator of poverty.

Following these criticisms, Amrty Sen's capability approach is developed and this focuses on deprivation arguing that income is not the only instrument in generating capabilities (Chibuye, 2014). In general the 1990's brought a wider discussion of poverty beyond consumption based definitions to include lack of basic services and other deprivations (Chibuye, 2014) As a result, a wide ranging social indicators such as life expectancy, infant mortality, nutrition, the proportion of household budget spent on food, literacy, school enrolment rate etc. are used to define and measure poverty

The use of different indicators also poses a problem since different indicators may tell conflicting stories. As a result composite indices have been developed to measure poverty. One such index is the Human Development Index (HDI) developed by UNDP. The HDI aggregates income, literacy and life expectancy into a single measure of standard of living with a scale of values ranging between zero and one (Wratten, 1995). Other indices include the Physical Quality of Life index, the Food Security Index and the Relative Welfare Index (ibid).

All the above ways of conceptualizing and measuring poverty view poverty from a professional point of view. Anthropological studies, however, revealed that people's own conception of poverty differs from the professional experts as they attach great value to qualitative dimension such as independence, security, self-respect, identity, non-exploitative social relations, decision making freedom, legal and political rights (Wratten, 1995). These led to the thinking that adequate definition of poverty requires the inclusion of the poor or participatory definitions. Currently there is a tendency to mix methods and measure poverty as interlinked phenomenon by employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches (see the following table for summary of poverty measurement)

Table 1.1: Urban poverty: meaning, measurement and policy implications

Meaning of urban poverty	**Implications for measurement**	**Implications for urban poverty programs**
Conventional economic definition: poverty is a lack of income (or consumption), defined in absolute or relative terms*.	Quantitative approach, using a common scale of measurement (usually a poverty line based on household budget surveys); measurement of the extent of poverty (number affected) and the depth of poverty (how far incomes are below the poverty line).	Focus on redistribution at the macro level. Increase urban productivity and incomes through job creation; deal with residual poverty through transfer payments, social safety nets, subsidies on basic items.
Participatory social development definition: poverty is multi-faceted and its definition varies between individuals.	Qualitative analysis of the processes underlying poverty and the ways in which poverty affects different sub- groups among "the poor"(such as Young and old people, women and men, different household types, castes and ethnic groups). Uses a range of "bottom-up" participatory methods such as focus groups, life histories, wealth-ranking and mapping to examine people's perceptions of poverty, vulnerability, and intra-household and community level entitlements.	Focus on micro-level support to enable individuals to participate socially and economically and strengthen their ability to stay out of poverty. May include community-level interventions to strengthen health, education, communications, credit for small enterprises, people's capacity to make decisions affecting their own lives, political participation and legal literacy; decentralization of decision-making to local levels (the poor know best how to use resources in their own neighbourhoods); and the differentiation of special needs of particular groups among "the poor".
Integrated development approach: causes of poverty are interlinked (environment, housing, health, income generation, education etc.) and must be tackled in a coordinated way.	Quantitative and qualitative assessments are complementary. Quantification includes social indicators such as life expectancy, incidence of disease, education levels, as well as income and expenditure. Need to understand the spatial distribution of poverty at the city-wide level in order to target resources at the poorest groups; within poor areas, need to understand priorities of different sub-groups.	Holistic, integrated approach to urban development and poverty alleviation– redistribute resources to provide for basic needs of the poor, coordinating interventions in primary health care, water and sanitation, pollution control, housing, income generation, education, crime control, domestic violence, leisure facilities. Acknowledge linkages between national economic and social policies and poverty in urban and rural areas.

Source: Wratten (1995)

***** The conventional approach of urban poverty includes expenditures on education, health and others in quantitative terms

Chapter 2: Methodology

2.1 Data Sources

The sources of data for the study include the Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure (CSA, 2012a) as well as Welfare and Monitoring Surveys conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia in 2010/11 (CSA 2012b) and afresh data on Household Consumption and Expenditure as well as Welfare and Monitoring Situations of the sampled households collected by the Institute of Development and Policy Research of Addis Ababa University. The CSA data served as baseline information whilst the data collected afresh were used to observe changes over time and assess the current poverty situation of city residents. Qualitative data collected through key informant and in-depth interviews as well as focus group discussion were also used to triangulate the statistical data and explain the survey results in detail.

2.2 Sample Size and Sampling Design

2.2.1 Approach

A mix of approaches was used to meet the objectives of the study. Quantitative approach was used to estimate the incidence and severity of poverty and to identify the living condition of respondents on the basis of social indicators. The qualitative approach was used to understand deeply the nature of poverty, learn about the perception of people and understand the policy initiatives to reduce poverty. The use of qualitative and quantitative approaches is in line with integrated approach of measuring poverty and provides a full picture of poverty situation.

2.2.2 Sample Design

Both survey design and case study design was used to collect data and answer the research questions.

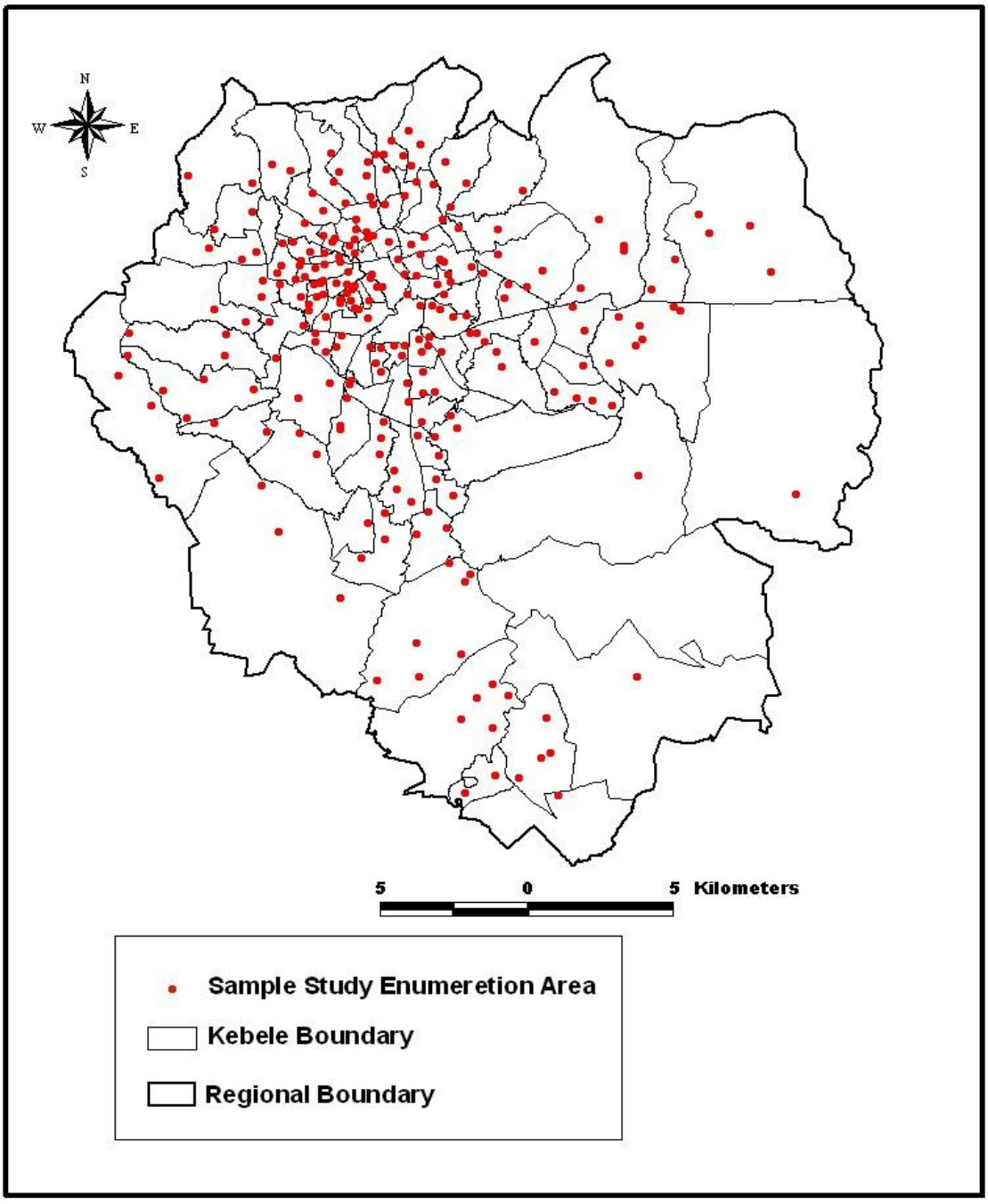
2.2.2.1 Survey Design: Quantitative Study

The survey design mainly forms the quantitative part of the study. The following describes the different components of the survey design

Coverage: The study has covered all of the ten sub-cities in the City Government of Addis Ababa.

Sampling Size and Method: The sampling process used in this study is a two stage sampling process. In order to come up with a representative and comparable sample size of similar surveys conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia in the 2010/11, Enumeration Areas (EAs) were selected in the first stage as the primary sample unit. There were 3722 EAs in the city which were used in the 2007 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia. Out of these EAs and in line with the previous CSA study, 24 Enumeration Areas (EAs) were randomly selected from each of the sub-cities (see Figure 2.1). In the second stage, 16 households were randomly selected from each of the EAs. Systematic random sampling technique was employed to choose households from a newly constructed sampling frame. The overall sample size was 3840 households; about 0.5 percent of the total estimated households in the city indicating a sample of one per 200 households.

Figure 2.1: Distribution of Sampled EAs in 2015 Addis Ababa Poverty Assessment Survey



Source: Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia's Cartographic file

***Sampling Frame**:* The sampling frame for the primary sample (i.e. EAs in the city) was generated from the list of EAs compiled during the 2007 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia. The sampling frame for the households was generated by listing the names of households in the selected EAs at the beginning of the survey.

Survey Instruments: The quantitative data was collected using a structured questionnaire that was designed to collect information on:

- Basic characteristics of household members: age, sex, education, marital status, etc.
- Livelihood status of the household and its members,
- Demographic characteristics and economic activity of household and its members
- Household consumption and expenditure patterns of non-durable goods and more frequent services in the last 3 and 4 days, as well as last month
- Expenditures on clothing and footwear, renting and furnishing of residences and equipment, medical expenses, purchase of transport and communication tools as well as personal goods, financial services and non-consumption in the 3 and 12 months preceding the survey,
- Schooling and health conditions of household members,
- Housing standards and amenities,
- Access, utilization and satisfaction of basic facilities including household dietary score indicators,
- Ownership of fixed assets and major shocks faced by the household members, and
- Good governance including basic political and civil rights and political participation and justice.

Household heads or any member of the household who could provide the information on household conditions responded to the questionnaire. Attempts were, however, made to collect the information from the head of the household at his/her convenience. The questionnaire was initially prepared in English and was then translated into Amharic, the widely spoken language in the City.

2.3 Data Collection Procedures

The Institute of Development and Policy Research of the Addis Ababa University employed the necessary field staff to collect, compile and process data. Data were collected over the course of four weeks. A data collection team comprising of 6 experienced data collectors and a supervisor for each of the sub-cities was deployed for the fieldwork. Their task is described under section 2.3.2.

The Institute was responsible for financial and logistical arrangements whilst the Wereda Finance and Economic Development Office in which the sampled EAs were located had played vital roles in facilitating fieldwork through identifying and familiarizing the selected households. Members of the study team had also made frequent field visits to support the data collection team and provided solutions to any unforeseen difficulties and problems.

To ensure the robustness of the data and check their validity, various recall periods were set for some of the variables. For example, each of the households was asked to estimate their total rent expenditure in the last 3 months as well as in the last 12 months. Table 2.1 summarizes the data categories and respective recall periods.

Table 2.1: Data categories and required recall periods

Data Category	**Reference Period**
Household demographic and socio-economic characteristics	At survey date only
Non-durable goods and more frequent services including:	Last 3 and 4 days, separately
Water	and
Fuel and Power	last one month
Household operation	
Pharmaceutical products and herbicides	
Public transport	
Communication	
Entertainment, recreational and cultural services	
Newspapers and magazines	
Personal care	
Clothing and footwear	Last 3 and 12 months separately
Dwelling rent, furnishing, equipment and maintenance	Last 3 and 12 months separately
Medical expenses, transportation and communication	Last 3 and 12 months separately
Education, recreation and entertainment	Last 3 and 12 months separately
Personal goods, financial services and non-consumptions	Last 3 and 12 months separately

A market price survey was also administered simultaneously in markets located within or nearby each of the sampled EAs. Household-reported purchasing values were then compared with nearby market prices. This has served as a potential source to compute expenditure values when households could not report the value of items produced for home consumption by themselves.

2.3.1 Recruitment of field staff and training: As collection of data on household consumption expenditure and welfare situation of household members requires careful attention and commitment to visit the sampled households repeatedly until all the required information were obtained, efforts were made to recruit those who have prior experience in similar exercise and have adequate data collection knowledge. Intensive classroom and field training were also offered to familiarize the data collection team with the survey instruments. The training focused on survey objectives, fundamental concepts of poverty indicators and their determinants, as well as the art of posing questions and recording responses to each of the questions. The training included class room lectures, mock interview among enumerators, field practice and pilot testing of the questionnaire and revision on the basis of feedback to be obtained from filed practices and pilot testing.

2.3.2 Field Work Supervision and Questionnaire Editing: As strict and regular supervision was crucial to ensure the quality of the data, a data collection team was organized for each of the sub-cities. Each field team included a supervisor who was responsible for coordination and supervision of the data collection. In addition, an experienced data editor was assigned for each of the field team in order to check and validate the completeness of each of the questionnaires and the internal consistency of responses given by each of the respondents. Members of the study team had also observed the fieldwork, and followed up the data collection, supervision, compilation, and editing activities during the survey period.

2.4 Data Processing: Entry and Validity Checking

2.4.1 Data Coding and Processing: Each and every activity related to data processing was undertaken by the Institute of Development and Policy Research of Addis Ababa University. Completed questionnaires were returned to the Institute for edition and internal consistency checks on daily basis. Additional data processing activities such as coding of open-ended questions and estimation of sampling weights were carried out at the Institute in consultation with a statistician having a relevant experience in the field.

2.4.2 Data Entry and Compilation: Information collected using the survey questionnaire was entered into computer by experienced data entry clerks using CSPro software, a special data entry program prepared to handle survey and census questionnaires (US Census Bureau, 2008). The questionnaire was manually edited before entering the information into a computer. Training was given to the survey questionnaire editing team members on how to check internal consistency between responses given by each of the respondents and validity of the information. Training was also given to a team of data entry clerks on how to put the information into a computer. About 10 data entry clerks were employed to enter the data into computer. The data entry program was designed in such a way that each of the questionnaires was entered twice by different data entry clerks to avoid and minimize entry errors. The double-entry system helped to identify discrepancies between information entered for a given questionnaire. Reviewing and correcting the entry errors has enhanced the quality of the survey data. Data entry was commenced three weeks after the beginning of the field work and was completed in about a month period.

2.4.3 Data Validation and Cleaning: Data validation and cleaning was carried out by members of the study team and the data programmers. Even though systematic validity checks was conducted during the field data collection, thorough investigation of each of the responses and checking the coherence between each of the variables was also conducted before data analysis and production of results. Activities related to internal consistency and validity checks as well as completeness of questionnaires included:

a. Imputation of missing observations on consumption goods (in quantity or value) using the market price survey that was collected at the time of the study;
b. Validity and consistency of quantity and value of consumption items was checked by comparing the figures obtained during household visits and the market price survey;
c. Estimation of the value of consumption of own production using the household-provided quantities and market survey prices; and
d. Comparison of household expenditure on durable goods using different recall periods (i.e., 3 and 12 months). After analyzing the annualized values using each of the reference periods, it was then decided to use whichever period resulting in the largest expenditure depending on the recall period. The exercise has helped to minimize the likelihood that household heads would forget to include items consumed long time ago.

2.5 Quantitative Data Analysis and Interpretation:

The data gathered in the study and the previous data on poverty issues that were obtained from the Central Statistical Agency were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to identify the levels and determinants of poverty in the City.

Analysis of the data was carried out to capture all dimensions of poverty and their associated indicators. Both money metric and non-money metric poverty measures were considered to respectively assess the purchasing and consumption abilities of city residents and their ability to meet basic needs of household members. Money metric poverty was measured using incidence of poverty (headcount index), depth of poverty (poverty gap) and poverty severity (squared poverty gap) whereas non-monetary dimension of poverty was measured through access to health and education services, and access to other substantial issues of poverty and subjective perceptions of poverty mainly based on self-reporting scale. The money metric poverty assessment has focused on measurements based on per capita income and consumption whilst the non-money metric measures

was based on welfare or income indices of poverty that have the advantage of ready comparison of the incidence of poverty over time or between groups.

2.6: Case Study Design: Qualitative Data

The study also employed qualitative approach to collect qualitative data. A case study design was applied for this purpose. Case studies provided opportunities to study processes and mechanisms in detail. Investigation of a case or multiple cases has helped to understand and answer questions related to the essential qualities of phenomena. In this study purposively selected qualitative respondents from each of the sub-cities were used as cases to acquire an in-depth perspective of the poverty situation, shocks and coping mechanisms, and how individuals may have benefited from poverty reduction policies.

Four cases were selected from each of the sub-cities and an in-depth interview was conducted with them. Two of the selected cases are poor residents while two of them are those who are participating in poverty reduction strategies.

The in-depth interview of cases was supplemented by focus group discussion. Two focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted in each sub-city with youth and women. In selecting FGD participants, efforts were made to include vulnerable members of the community.

In addition, as part of the qualitative study, key informants were selected to learn about government policy and its effects. Key informant interviews were conducted with three key informants in each sub-city. These key informants were government officials, development partner representatives and influential community leaders particularly youth, women and elderly persons.

The qualitative data collection had focused on:

- The view of city residents on causes of poverty and changes in poverty and inequality in the city;
- Success stories and shortcomings of poverty reduction development interventions run by the Government;
- Perception of city residents about service provision in basic facilities: health, education, water, housing, transport and the like infrastructure,

- Views on the governance system and access to resources including loan/credit and capital formation and utilization,
- Environmental protection issues considered whilst implementing development projects,
- Coping strategies of the poor to withstand major shocks and difficulties in life, and
- Measures taken and to be taken by the City Government to alleviate poverty in the city

2.7 Report Writing and Dissemination of Results

The study report that focuses on the assessment of poverty situations in the city were produced on the basis of statistical findings from the quantitative survey data and qualitative investigations. Economic and non-economic dimensions of poverty in the city were measured using the Households Consumption Expenditure as well as Welfare and Monitoring Survey data already collected and compiled by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia and new data that were collected by the Institute. Efforts were also made to triangulate the statistical data with the qualitative investigation conducted to explore the magnitude of poverty in the city.

Chapter 3: Background Characteristics of the Study Population

3.1 Demographic Characteristics

3.1.1 Population Size

The total population size of Addis Ababa that was estimated to be 2,850,499 in 2011 had increased to 3,100,425 in 2015 (Table 3.1). Kolfe Keranio has the largest population size (420,231), followed by Yeka (429,846), Nefas Silk Lafto (311,191) and Bole (309,012) Sub-cites. Kolfe, Nefas Silk and Bole Sub-cities have shown tremendous increase whilst Kirkos and Addis Ketema Sub-cities have shown a decline in population size mainly due to the relocation of residents to other Sub-cities by providing them with new residential condominium houses. The increases in population size in Kolfe, Nefas Silk and Bole Sub-cities are also believed to be due to resettlement of new residents in the recently built condominium houses.

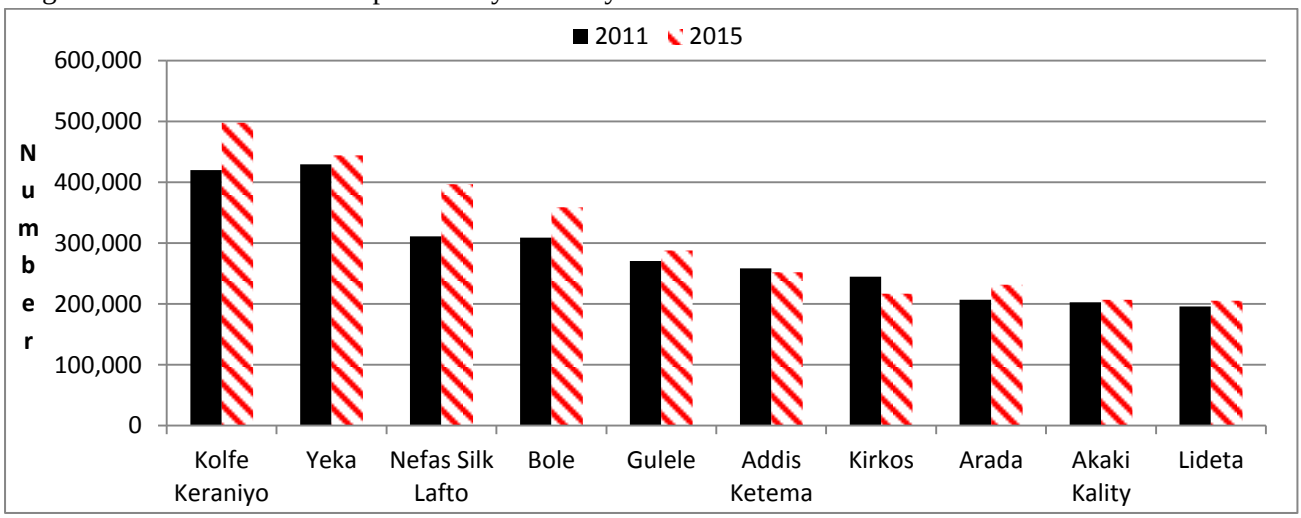
According to the survey data collected in 2011 and 2015, the population size of Addis Ababa City Government has increased by 2.1% per annum. The increase in population size is mainly due to city-ward migration in search of employment and educational opportunities as the effect of natural growth is scanty due to low level of fertility in the city which is below replacement level (CSA and ICF International, 2012). The fastest population growth rate was observed in Nefas Silk Lafto Sub-City where the annual population growth rate was 6.1%, followed by Kolfe Karaniyo Sub-city with an annual growth rate of 4.2%, Bole and Arada Sub-Cities with 3.7% and 2.8% per annum, respectively (Table 3.1). Unlike this, Kirkos and Addis Ketema Sub-Cities has shown negative annual growth rates of 3.0% and 0.6%, respectively, whilst Akaki Kality and Yeka Sub-cities have shown the lowest annual growth rate of 0.5% and 0.8%, respectively.

Table 3.1: Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sub-City and Sex in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-City	2011		2015		Annual population Growth rate (%)
	Number	%	Number	%	
Kolfe Keraniyo	420,231	14.7	498,047	16.1	4.2
Yeka	429,846	15.1	444,359	14.3	0.8
Nefas Silk Lafto	311,191	10.9	397,234	12.8	6.1
Bole	309,012	10.8	358,925	11.6	3.7
Gulele	270,737	9.5	288,335	9.3	1.6
Addis Ketema	258,818	9.1	252,343	8.1	-0.6
Kirkos	245,000	8.6	217,143	7.0	-3.0
Arada	206,982	7.3	231,966	7.5	2.8
Akaki Kality	202,715	7.1	206,782	6.7	0.5
Lideta	195,967	6.9	205,292	6.6	1.2
Addis Ababa	2,850,499	100.0	3,100,425	100.0	2.1

An increase in population size in Arada Sub-city despite relocation of residents to other places by providing them with new residential condominium houses could probably be due to different business establishments in the central part of the city that still attracts people to move in although some of the residents have already relocated having given new residential condominium houses elsewhere (Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Distribution of Population by Sub-City and Sex in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015



As shown in Table 3.2, the population of Addis Ababa City is dominated by the young persons aged 15-30 years irrespective of sex. This is actually due to high in-migration rate into the city in search for job and other opportunities such as education/training, health care and the like (see the details in the qualitative section). Unlike this, elderly persons (65+ years) are very few: less than 5% of the total population and children under the age of 5 constitute less than 10% of the total population due to the very low fertility rate in the city. The very large proportion of young population in the City could be a cause for high unemployment rate although the Ethiopian Government is making maximum efforts to create job opportunities in all sectors including the informal sector.

Table 3.2: Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Age Group and Sex in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	109,290	8.34	101,608	6.60	128,100	9.08	114,430	6.77
5 -9	102,877	7.85	122,145	7.93	103,161	7.32	104,680	6.19
10-14	114,906	8.77	144,038	9.35	133,679	9.48	140,091	8.29
15-19	133,100	10.16	210,406	13.66	127,245	9.02	210,540	12.46
20-24	167,077	12.75	219,013	14.22	150,700	10.69	220,435	13.04
25-29	178,153	13.59	214,462	13.93	167,353	11.87	237,578	14.06
30-34	117,558	8.97	124,817	8.10	141,597	10.04	147,424	8.72
35-39	99,887	7.62	106,566	6.92	135,521	9.61	139,374	8.25
40-44	71,978	5.49	54,094	3.51	81,033	5.75	75,266	4.45
45-49	50,406	3.85	60,788	3.95	62,588	4.44	65,265	3.86
50-54	39,818	3.04	50,108	3.25	46,609	3.31	63,184	3.74
55-59	32,738	2.50	38,424	2.49	32,528	2.31	47,650	2.82
60-64	32,875	2.51	32,280	2.10	33,797	2.40	45,787	2.71
65+	59,538	4.54	61,314	3.98	65,744	4.66	72,872	4.31
Not Stated	235	0.02			449	0.03	5,744	0.34
Total	1,310,436	100.00	1,540,064	100.00	1,410,106	100.00	1,690,319	100.00

Table 3.3 provides population distribution by sex across sub-cities. Some of the sub-cities such as Nefas Silk Lafto, Bole and Kolfe Karaniyo have shown an increase in male population at least by 15 percentage points while much increase in female population is observed in Nefas silk Lafto (32.0%), Kolfe Karaniyo (21.2%) and Bole Sub-cities. A decline in the number of male population is, however, observed in Kirkos (13.3%), Addis Ketema (6.1%) and Akaki Kality (0.6%) while the decrease in female population size is only seen in Kirkos (9.7%) and Yeka (0.6%) sub-cities. Apart from the relocation of population through provision of new residential quarters in the newly constructed condominium houses in some selected sub-cities, the difference in the percentage points change in male and female population reveals that there are sex differentials in the in- and out-migration of population in the sub-cities due to variation in economic activities and settlement patterns across the sub-cities.

Table 3.3: Distribution and Per cent of Change of Population by Sub-City and Sex in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	Male			Female		
	2011	2015	% change	2011	2015	% change
Kolfe Keraniyo	199,072	230,027	15.5	221,159	268,021	21.2
Yeka	187,690	203,728	8.5	242,156	240,631	-0.6
Nefas Silk Lafto	143,403	175,807	22.6	167,789	221,427	32.0
Bole	141,615	169,870	20.0	167,397	189,054	12.9
Gulele	125,275	129,770	3.6	145,462	158,565	9.0
Addis Ketema	122,519	115,025	-6.1	136,299	137,318	0.7
Kirkos	111,386	96,532	-13.3	133,614	120,611	-9.7
Arada	91,232	101,005	10.7	115,750	130,961	13.1
Akaki Kality	96,143	95,537	-0.6	106,571	111,245	4.4
Lideta	92,102	92,806	0.8	103,866	112,486	8.3
Total	1,310,436	1,410,106	7.6	1,540,064	1,690,319	9.8

3.1.2 Household Size

Average household size in Addis Ababa has declined from 3.9 in 2011 to 3.8 in 2015. Addis Ketea, Gulele, Lideta, Akaki Kility and Kirkos Sub-cities have shown marked decline in average household size whilst Kolfe Karaniyo, Yeka and Bole Sub-cities remained the same. An increase in household size was observed in Nifas silk Lafto and Arada Sub-cities (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Distribution of Average Household Size and Female Headed Households by Sub-city in Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

Sub City	**2011**	**2015**
Addis Ketema	4.6	4.2
Gulele	4.2	4.1
Lideta	4.2	4.0
Akaki Kality	4.0	3.4
Kirkos	3.9	3.4
Kolfe Keraniyo	3.9	3.9
Yeka	3.9	3.9
Bole	3.6	3.5
Nefas Silk Lafto	3.3	3.6
Arada	4.0	4.2
Total	**3.9**	**3.8**

Over one-fifth (22.6%) of the households in Addis Ababa has more than 7 household members whilst households comprising such size has declined to 16.3% in 2015 (Table 3.5). Although only 3.5% of the households in the City are living in single member household in 2011 this proportion has declined to 3.0% in 2015. The percentage distribution of households with large household size (i.e. 7 and more members) has also declined for all Sub-cities but Arada and Nefas Silk Lafto between 2011

and 2015. Tremendous decline (i.e. more than 10 percentage points) was observed in Kirkos, Akaki Kality and Bole Sub-cities indicating that some of the households living in extended families has rescheduled to live in nuclear families.

Table 3.5: Percentage Distribution of Household Size in Addis Ababa by Sub City - Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

	2011								2015							
	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7+	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7+
Addis Ababa	729,664	3.5	7.0	14.0	19.2	19.1	14.6	22.6	818770	3.0	7.3	17.2	22.5	19.2	14.4	16.3
Addis Ketema	56,902	1.4	5.0	10.9	16.0	19.6	15.6	31.5	60414	1.9	6.4	12.6	19.7	21.5	15.8	22.2
Lideta	46,571	2.1	7.2	11.8	18.2	17.9	14.5	28.4	52037	2.2	5.9	19.7	21.4	20.5	11.5	18.8
Kirkos	62,242	3.3	7.4	13.6	21.0	17.1	12.1	25.5	64708	5.2	10.3	17.3	25.4	20.2	11.9	9.7
Akaki Kality	50,674	3.0	7.7	12.7	19.2	18.8	14.4	24.2	61718	4.1	9.8	25.3	21.2	20.1	12.0	7.4
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	4.2	5.6	13.9	17.2	20.2	15.7	23.2	127934	3.0	5.9	18.4	22.6	11.9	17.9	20.4
Yeka	109,101	2.9	6.6	15.8	21.1	17.6	13.0	23.0	111615	2.3	6.0	14.5	20.4	26.8	15.3	14.7
Arada	52,364	3.5	7.1	12.3	18.5	19.6	16.3	22.6	55518	2.2	5.7	15.6	20.2	16.3	13.4	26.7
Gulele	64,528	1.7	6.6	11.0	21.1	21.4	17.2	21.0	70903	2.2	5.6	15.8	23.0	16.0	16.9	20.5
Bole	86,094	4.6	7.6	18.0	20.7	20.4	12.1	16.6	103028	3.6	9.9	18.7	25.6	21.1	14.4	6.7
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	6.7	10.4	16.2	18.5	18.3	16.0	13.9	110896	4.1	8.6	17.2	24.4	18.6	11.4	15.6

3.1.3 Female Headed Households:

At the City level, the proportion of female headed has increased from 39% in 2011 to 43.8% in 2015 (Table 3.6). Much change in the proportion of female headed households was observed in Akaki Kality, Kolfe Karaniyo and Kirkos Sub-cities whilst no change was observed among those living in Nefas Silk Lafto and Lideta Sub-cities. More than half of the households in Arada (53.7%) and Kirkos (51.2%) sub-cities are headed by females in 2015 while the lowest female headed households is, however, observed in Akaki Kality Sub-city (36.0%)

Table 3.6: Distribution of Proportion of Male and Female Headed Households by Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	Number of households		Sex of Household			
			Male		Female	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
Addis Ababa	729,664	818,770	61.0	56.2	39.0	43.8
Arada	52,364	55,518	49.5	46.3	50.5	53.7
Kirkos	62,242	64,708	59.6	48.8	40.4	51.2
Addis Ketema	56,902	60,414	55.6	50.4	44.4	49.6
Gulele	64,528	70,903	57.6	53.9	42.4	46.1
Lideta	46,571	52,037	54.4	54.4	45.6	45.6
Bole	86,094	103,028	60.5	57.5	39.5	42.5
Yeka	109,101	111,615	56.6	58.7	43.4	41.3
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	110,896	59.4	59.3	40.6	40.7
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	127,934	76.5	59.5	23.5	40.5
Akaki Kality	50,674	61,718	71.8	64.0	28.2	36.0

3.1.4 Marital Status

Although the proportion of never married among male population 10 years and above has declined from 53.9% in 2011 to 54.5% in 2015, more than half of the males aged 10 years and above living in all of the sub-cities have not yet married except in Akaki Kality where the proportion is 49.9% (Table3.7a). More than 60% of the males in Lideta and Kirkos Sub-cities, where housing problem is still acute, have not yet married (Table 3.7a). On the other hand proportion married at the City level has increased from 37.5% in 2011 to 54.5% in 2015. Progressive change in family formation has also been observed for most of the sub-cities.

Table 3.7a: Percentage Distribution of Marital Status among Male Population 10 years and above by Sub City - Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	Male														
	2011								2015						
	Number of cases	Never Married	Currently Married	Divorced	Separated	Widow	Living Together	Not Stated	Number of cases	Never Married	Currently Married	Divorced	Separated	Widow	Living Together
Addis Ababa	1,098,269	57.9	37.5	1.2	1.1	2.0	0.2	0.1	1,178,84	54.5	40.5	1.7	0.9	2.1	0.3
Akaki Kality	79,663	52.8	42.0	2.6	0.7	1.4	0.6	0.0	80,663	49.9	46.9	1.6	0.2	1.4	0.0
Nefas Silk Lafto	120,997	53.3	42.5	2.1	0.2	1.3	0.4	0.2	148,415	52.5	41.8	1.2	1.9	2.5	0.2
Kolfe Keraniyo	159,947	53.5	43.2	0.5	1.0	1.7	0.0	0.0	178,877	50.6	45.9	1.7	0.8	1.1	0.0
Gulele	103,854	59.9	36.9	1.3	0.6	1.3	0.0	0.0	110,366	55.2	39.2	1.5	1.2	2.3	0.7
Lideta	81,324	65.6	30.8	0.5	0.4	2.7	0.0	0.0	81,212	62.5	32.6	1.0	1.0	2.7	0.2
Kirkos	93,768	60.1	35.2	1.2	2.1	1.3	0.0	0.2	84,688	60.9	32.4	2.8	1.9	2.2	0.0
Arada	76,755	63.8	30.7	1.4	1.2	2.2	0.4	0.3	88,059	59.4	32.7	2.6	0.5	4.5	0.4
Addis Ketema	105,465	69.6	27.1	0.5	0.3	1.8	0.0	0.6	97,696	61.1	35.2	0.9	0.7	1.9	0.4
Yeka	159,808	54.9	37.3	0.8	2.5	4.1	0.3	0.0	163,173	52.9	42.1	2.4	0.9	1.7	0.0
Bole	116,688	52.6	42.4	1.9	1.1	1.6	0.4	0.0	145,695	49.3	45.6	1.8	0.4	1.8	0.9

Following same pattern, the proportion of never married women aged 10 and above at City level has declined from 51.5% in 2011 to 49.1% in 2015. Proportion of currently married female population has, however, shown slight change: 32.0% in 2011 to 32.9% in 2015 (Table 3.7b). Unlike this, the proportion of divorced and widowed females has shown some increase: 4.1% vs 5.5% and 9.1% vs 10.5%, respectively, indicating that female headed households has shown tremendous increase due to dissolution of marriage as result of marital disagreement and death of the marriage partners.

Table 3.7b: Percentage Distribution of Marital Status among Female Population 10 years and above by Sub City - Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	Female														
	2011									2015					
	Number of cases	Never Married	Currently Married	Divorced	Separated	Widow	Living Together	Not Stated	Number of cases	Never Married	Currently Married	Divorced	Separated	Widow	Living Together
Addis Ababa	1,316,310	51.5	32.0	4.1	2.9	9.1	0.2	0.2	1,471,209	49.1	32.9	5.5	1.8	10.5	0.3
Akaki Kality	88,990	47.7	37.5	5.8	1.9	6.4	0.7	0.0	97,824	44.1	39.3	5.1	1.9	9.4	0.2
Nefas Silk Lafto	144,407	50.9	34.2	4.6	2.1	7.5	0.4	0.3	198,460	51.8	32.0	3.4	1.9	10.7	0.1
Kolfe Keraniyo	177,895	48.9	39.1	3.0	2.7	6.3	0.0	0.0	219,594	46.1	37.7	5.8	2.7	7.7	0.0
Gulele	128,055	49.9	33.8	2.6	3.9	9.8	0.0	0.0	136,012	49.6	31.5	4.5	1.8	12.2	0.4
Lideta	92,724	52.3	27.2	6.1	1.7	12.4	0.0	0.3	101,605	52.9	26.2	3.8	2.1	14.6	0.4
Kirkos	119,535	53.0	28.9	5.7	3.0	9.3	0.0	0.1	107,939	50.0	25.8	8.4	2.4	13.2	0.2
Arada	101,287	55.4	23.6	4.9	3.9	11.1	0.3	0.8	118,650	52.5	23.9	7.9	0.8	14.6	0.4
Addis Ketema	120,365	54.9	24.6	2.5	3.1	14.2	0.0	0.7	121,001	53.2	28.9	5.5	1.0	11.2	0.1
Yeka	203,510	53.6	30.1	3.6	3.6	9.0	0.1	0.0	206,800	46.9	35.1	6.5	2.3	9.2	0.0
Bole	139,542	48.1	37.0	3.9	2.9	7.4	0.5	0.2	163,326	46.4	40.1	4.8	0.8	6.9	1.0

3.2 Socio-Economic Situations

3.2.1 Unemployment rate:

Despite wider variation in unemployment rate among males and females, unemployment rate has declined in the city among both sexes. Male unemployment rate has gone down from 14.5% in 2011 to 10.0% in 2015. Unemployment rate among females has also declined from 22.4% in 2011 to 19.1% in 2015 (Table 3.8). Male unemployment rate has declined in eight of the sub-cities except Kirkos and Kolfe Karanio sub-cities where it has shown an increasing trend. Female unemployment rate has also shown a declining trend in seven of the sub-cities with the exception of Gulele, Arada and Lideta sub-cities that have shown more female unemployment rate in 2015 than in 2011.

Table 3.8: Distribution of Unemployment Rate among Population age 10 Years and above by Sex and Sub City - Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

Sub-City	Male				Female			
	2011		2015		2011		2015	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Addis Ababa	1,098,269	14.5	1,178,845	10.0	1,316,310	22.4	1,471,209	19.1
Akaki Kality	79,663	10.8	80,663	7.8	88,990	23.2	97,824	16.3
Nefas Silk Lafto	120,997	17.2	148,415	8.1	144,407	30.5	198,460	14.9
Kolfe Keraniyo	159,947	9.4	178,877	12.1	177,895	23.4	219,594	18.3
Gulele	103,854	15.1	110,366	14.3	128,055	16.6	136,012	28.9
Lideta	81,324	15.6	81,212	12.0	92,724	21.2	101,605	29.4
Kirkos	93,768	11.8	84,688	14.4	119,535	20.7	107,939	17.6
Arada	76,755	16.1	88,059	12.5	101,287	19.8	118,650	25.4
Addis Ketema	105,465	22.4	97,696	8.8	120,365	27.8	121,001	14.1
Yeka	159,808	13.7	163,173	7.0	203,510	19.6	206,800	15.6
Bole	116,688	15.1	145,695	6.0	139,542	20.7	163,326	16.6

3.2.2. Reason for not working:

Among population age 10 and above, attending school (i.e. being a student), engagement in domestic work, being unemployed and living on pension (i.e. retirement) are the main reasons for not working in 2011 and 2015. Although there are slight changes in the contribution of each of the factors mentioned above, the pattern is almost the same for all of the sub-cities (Table 3.9).

Table 3.9: Percentage Distribution of Reasons for Not Working by Sub city in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Reason for not working	Addis Ababa	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole
	2011										
Student	45.1	47.8	40.9	50.5	45.1	41.2	39.6	44.1	40.9	47.6	48.9
Domestic Service	17.5	19.1	14.0	20.2	22.0	12.2	14.0	19.4	19.5	16.3	16.5
Unemployed	20.0	15.8	26.4	17.0	14.9	18.6	21.4	17.8	26.0	19.2	21.6
Pensioner	4.5	6.6	4.4	2.0	4.8	6.3	8.1	4.1	2.2	5.0	4.4
Remittance	1.2	0.7	0.8	1.2	2.7	1.4	0.3	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.2
Old Age	4.7	3.0	4.7	3.4	6.0	6.4	7.2	6.6	5.6	3.2	2.8
Illness	3.1	1.8	1.6	2.3	2.0	5.6	3.8	3.5	4.1	4.3	2.5
Too Young	0.9	0.4	4.0	1.0	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.3	0.2	0.6	0.4
Others	3.1	4.6	3.3	2.4	2.3	8.1	4.4	3.4	0.4	2.4	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of cases	1,272,650	91,734	142,880	175,253	29,303	94,505	101,306	97,904	126,097	185,175	128,493
	2015										
Student	42.9	43.5	48.9	42.2	36.1	43.7	31.3	42.8	44.4	45.9	45.2
Domestic Service	24.0	25.1	20.2	30.7	24.6	18.5	24.9	16.5	23.9	25.1	23.5
Unemployed	14.9	12.0	12.8	12.3	19.5	22.4	20.3	21.3	12.9	11.0	12.9
Pensioner	7.7	10.3	11.4	4.3	4.6	2.9	10.3	8.8	7.0	10.2	8.0
Remittance	1.7	2.0	1.3	2.3	1.3	3.6	2.3	1.6	2.6	0.4	0.9
Old Age	3.5	1.0	1.8	1.7	6.7	5.9	3.6	4.2	4.3	2.8	5.2
Illness	2.4	2.2	1.8	1.5	1.3	2.6	3.9	4.4	3.5	2.5	2.3
Too Young	1.9	3.2	0.7	1.4	5.6	0.4	3.1	0.3	1.6	2.0	1.3
Others	0.9	0.7	1.0	3.9	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of cases	1,389,762	93,116	172,700	231,357	140,973	97,113	92,994	107,873	108,410	195,845	149,381

Findings from the qualitative data, on the other hand, reveal that unemployment rate among the youth population is still high due to tendency to look for jobs in government offices and non-manual jobs in the private sector. There is negative attitude towards engagement in manual labour. Lack of working space and limited access to working capital have also been mentioned as major bottlenecks to create own jobs or engage in business activities cooperatively.

3.1.3 Main occupation

Employment in private enterprises, self-employment and employment in public institutions are the first three main occupations of residents in the city in 2011 and 2015 (Table 3.10). The three occupations stated above account for more than three-fourth of the employment opportunities in the city and all of the sub-cities. Other employment opportunities such as employment in private households, working as employer and member of cooperatives have little contributions: less than 15% in most of the sub-cities.

Table 3.10: Percentage Distribution of Main Occupation by Sub-city in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Main Occupation	Addis Ababa	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole
	2011										
Employed - in private enterprise	34.8	50.2	41.2	24.4	25.7	44.0	35.8	38.7	28.6	33.7	37.4
Own-Account work (Self Employed)	27.6	18.3	26.6	32.1	34.1	24.2	23.7	28.3	40.6	20.9	27.4
Employed - in public service	12.6	14.2	12.2	8.6	18.8	10.6	10.7	8.2	11.6	18.8	9.6
Employed - in public enterprise	4.4	5.5	3.6	5.2	5.4	2.6	4.2	7.4	3.2	4.9	2.9
Employed in others	3.8	3.1	3.4	3.1	5.3	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.3	5.3	4.5
Employed - for private Household/person	11.0	5.5	8.0	14.4	7.0	9.3	17.1	8.3	7.0	12.9	14.4
Unpaid family work	3.0	1.0	1.3	8.2	1.6	2.3	0.7	2.8	5.4	2.4	2.2
Employer (working employer)	0.5	0.8	1.6	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.5	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.4
Unpaid/Free service-	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Apprentice (un paid)	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Member of cooperatives	0.3	1.2	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0
Others	0.5	0.3	1.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	1.8	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3
Not Stated	1.1	0.0	1.0	1.6	0.8	2.9	2.1	0.2	0.7	0.8	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of cases	1163455	78184	125432	166837	105979	80149	112710	80138	102354	181112	130559
	2015										
Employed - in private enterprise	34.8	37.5	44.5	26.9	29.2	32.7	39.3	39.7	37.7	34.7	28.3
Own-Account work (Self Employed)	32.5	30.0	23.6	43.4	40.7	37.3	24.9	27.7	37.6	26.9	33.9
Employed - in public service	14.0	14.3	11.8	10.1	14.7	12.6	14.3	17.3	9.3	20.4	14.6
Employed - for private Household/person	4.1	7.9	7.4	7.7	4.9	4.6	12.8	6.2	8.5	12.1	11.1
Employed - in public enterprise	2.3	4.9	6.2	3.1	5.4	1.7	3.3	4.1	2.7	2.9	4.2
Employed in others	8.7	1.2	2.0	3.0	3.0	5.0	1.3	2.9	1.6	2.1	3.3
Employer (working employer)	0.4	0.7	1.1	1.6	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.4	0.0	1.0
Unpaid family work	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.0	1.2
Unpaid/Free service	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Apprentice (un paid)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Member of cooperatives	0.3	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3
Others	1.2	2.0	1.3	2.8	0.7	0.8	1.5	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.8
Not Stated	1.2	0.4	1.7	0.8	1.2	4.3	1.5	0.9	0.4	0.3	1.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of cases	1255834	85528	171741	165831	105589	85704	99634	97388	110287	174490	159640

Chapter 4: Profile and Changes in Household Consumption

4.1 City level per capita and per adult consumption expenditure

There is a need to measure consumption expenditure in real terms so that the consumption expenditure of different regions measures the same standard of living. Therefore, once the nominal daily expenditure amount is computed for food and non-food items, adjustment is made to the nominal expenditure figures using food and non-food spatial prices indices in order to measure real daily household consumption expenditure at national average prices (MoFED, 2103). Allowance has to be made for regional levels unit of consumption of food and non-food items to reflect the same standard of living. Consequently, the real daily consumption expenditure is computed by dividing the nominal daily consumption expenditure by the spatial price index provided by the Ministry of Finance (MoFED, 2013). Finally, the real per capita expenditure is obtained by dividing consumption expenditure by household size, while the per adult equivalent consumption is obtained by dividing consumption expenditure by household size adjusted for nutritional calorie based adult equivalence conversion factor. This conversion factor accounts for a difference in age and gender.

The real consumption per capita for 2011 and 2015 is provided in Table 4.2. The average real per capita income measured by the per capita consumption expenditure is given to be Birr 11166 Birr, which was Birr 5601 in 2011 indicating that per capita income has increased by 99% in four year time and by 24% per year. Similar to the increase in total real per capita consumption, the real per capita food consumption has also increased from Birr 2954 in 2011 to Birr 4782 Birr in 2015 while the real per capita non-food consumption expenditure increased from Birr 2647 in 2011 to Birr 6384 in 2015.

Similar analysis has been done for real per adult consumption expenditure (see table 4.1). The total real consumption expenditure per adult has grown from 6523 in 2011 to 13141 in 2015 with a total per cent change of 101% in four year time. The real non-food consumption expenditure per adult has also grown from 3083 birr to 7520 birr while the real food consumption expenditure per adult grew from 3440 birr to 5620 birr in 2015. In general in comparison to the growth of real per capita consumption, the growth of real per adult consumption is higher. The share of real food consumption in total real consumption was 54.4 % in 2011 and this has declined to 48% because of increased real income of people.

Table 4.1: Real annual consumption Expenditure per adult and per capita at December 2011 constant prices (Birr)

Per adult	Y2011	Y2015	% Change
Real food consumption expenditure per adult	3440	5620	63
Real non-food consumption expenditure per adult	3083	7520	144
Real total consumption expenditure per adult	6523	13141	101
Per capita			
Real food consumption expenditure per capita	2954	4782	62
Real non-food consumption expenditure per capita	2647	6384	141
Real total consumption expenditure per capita	5601	11166	99
Share of food in total consumption	54.4	48.0	-12

Source: Own computation

4.2 Consumption by sub city and share of food and non-food consumption

Table 4.2 provides the per capita income (consumption) of sub-cities for 2011 and 2015. The highest per capita income (consumption) is registered in Bole both in 2011 and 2015. Akaki Kaliti sub city has the second highest level of consumption. Both Bole and Akaki also depict the highest increase in percentage terms between 2011 and 2015. Addis ketema (7226 birr) and Arada (8101 birr) have the lowest levels of consumption in 2015. The difference in consumption between the sub cities with the highest and the lowest level of consumption is 8957 in 2015 while the same difference was 2362 in the year 2011. This is an indication that the difference in the levels of consumption between the sub cities with the lowest and highest has increased over time.

The rank ordering of the sub-cities by consumption per capita shows that between 2011 and 2015 some sub-cities have improved their ranks while others have lost in the rank. The sub-cities which improved their ranks are Kirkos, Yeka, Akaki, Gulele and Lideta. The highest shift in the rank ordering is shown by Akaki which jumped from the seventh level in 2011 to the second level in 2015. Those sub-cities which have lost in their consumption ranks are Kolfe, Nefas silk, Arada and Addis Ketema. Bole as indicated above has maintained its first rank both in 2011 and 2015.

Table 4.2: Changes in per capita income (consumption) of AA by sub city

	Y2011	Y2015	% change	Rank 2011	Rank 2015
Akaki Kality	5200	13448	159	7	2
Nefas Silk Lafto	5999	10264	71	3	7
Kolfe Keraniyo	6503	11059	70	2	5
Gulele	4999	11008	120	8	6
Lideta	4232	8448	100	10	8
Kirkos	5596	12265	119	5	3
Arada	5824	8101	39	4	9
Addis Ketema	4362	7226	66	9	10
Yeka	5354	12146	127	6	4
Bole	6594	15551	136	1	1
Total	5601	11166	99		

Source: Own computation

The real per adult and per capita consumption was further disaggregated into food and non-food for the years 2015 and 2011 and shown in tables 4.3 and table 4.4. Bole has the highest food and non food expenditure both in per capita and per adult terms while Addis Ketema has the lowest in both food and non-food expenditure. Arada which has the second lowest total per capita consumption however has higher food expenditure than Lidea in 2015 although its non-food consumption remains to be the second least in the city. In all cases the non-food per capita consumption is higher than the food per capita consumption except Arada where the food expenditure is higher.

Table 4.3 Real annual consumption expenditure of Addis Ababa year 2015 at 2011 prices by sub city

Sub city	Per adult consumption expenditure			Per capita consumption expenditure		
	Food	non-food	Total	food	non-food	Total
Akaki kality	6084	9566	15650	5228	8220	13448
Nefas silk lafto	5486	6503	11989	4714	5550	10264
Kolfe keraniyo	6055	7274	13330	5031	6028	11059
Gulele	5586	7356	12942	4751	6258	11008
Lideta	4792	4971	9763	4159	4289	8448
Kirkos	6323	7962	14285	5446	6819	12265
Arada	5070	4417	9487	4333	3767	8101
Addis ketema	4747	3706	8453	4072	3155	7226
Yeka	5404	8983	14387	4558	7588	12146
Bole	6212	12009	18221	5297	10253	15551
Total	5620	7520	13141	4782	6384	11166

Source: Own computation

Table 4.4: Real consumption expenditure of Addis Ababa for 2011 at 2011 constant price by sub city

Sub city	per adult consumption expenditure			Per capita consumption expenditure		
	food	non-food	Total	food	non-food	Total
Akaki Kality	3137	2906	6043	2696	2504	5200
Nefas Silk Lafto	3246	3743	6988	2787	3212	5999
Kolfe Keraniyo	3878	3679	7557	3324	3179	6503
Gulele	3194	2680	5874	2720	2279	4999
Lideta	2562	2273	4835	2245	1987	4232
Kirkos	3743	2721	6464	3240	2355	5596
Arada	3787	2975	6762	3257	2567	5824
Addis Ketema	3518	1521	5039	3045	1317	4362
Yeka	3406	2882	6289	2900	2455	5354
Bole	3452	4278	7730	2959	3636	6594
Total	3440	3083	6523	2954	2647	5601

Source: Own computation

The share of expenditure on food in total consumption expenditure for different sub-cities shows that the share ranges between 38.8% and 60.4% with the city average being 48% (table 4.5). Bole has the least (38.8%) and Addis Ketema (60.4%) has the highest. It is however important that the shares has

decreased in all sub-cities between 2011 and 2015. This obviously is an indication that non-food expenditure is gaining more weight in the consumption baskets of households which in turn implies the increase in real income of people.

Table 4.5: Share of expenditure on food in total consumption expenditure

Sub city	Y2011	Y2015
Akaki Kality	53.9	42.2
Nefas Silk Lafto	47.4	50.8
Kolfe Keraniyo	52.7	49.8
Gulele	56.1	46.5
Lideta	57.0	53.3
Kirkos	59.5	49.7
Arada	58.9	57.8
Addis Ketema	69.9	60.4
Yeka	53.6	40.5
Bole	47.3	38.8
Total	54.4	48.0

Source: Own computation

Chapter 5: Status and trends of consumption poverty and inequality

5.1 Status and changes in poverty

In Ethiopia, the methods described in chapter one were first applied in the context of the 1995/96 poverty analysis report. This was based on the cost of 2,200 kcal per day per adult food consumption with an allowance for essential non-food items. The food and total poverty lines used since 1995/96 in the country are 648 and 1075 birr at national average prices, respectively (Table 5.1). In order to use these poverty lines and compute poverty indices, the per adult consumption expenditure has been updated by deflating all food and non-food consumption items by spatial price indices (disaggregated at the regional level relative to national average prices) and temporal price indices (relative to 1995/96 constant prices).

To calculate the 1999/00 and 2004/05 poverty indices, first the nominal values of per adult food and non-food consumption items were deflated by the spatial price indices (disaggregated at regional level relative to national average prices) and temporal price indices (relative to 1995/96 constant prices) to arrive at real per adult consumption. Second the 1,075 Birr poverty line is applied to real per adult household consumption expenditure in order to calculate head count, poverty gap and squared poverty gap indices. To compute the 2010/11 poverty indices, the 1995/96 consumption baskets from which poverty line was computed at 2010/11 prices was used. Consequently, the groups of consumption items defined in 1995/96 that generate 2200 kilo calories were valued at 2010/11 national average prices in order to obtain food poverty line of 2010/11. Then this food poverty line is divided by the food share of the poorest 25 per cent of the population to arrive at the absolute poverty line for the year 2010/11. The food and absolute poverty lines for 2010/11 are determined to be Birr 1985 and 3781, respectively (Table 5.1). Similarly, we computed the 2015 poverty line for Addis Ababa. The estimated food and absolute poverty line is found to be Birr 3657 and 6697 Birr per adult per year. These poverty lines and the real per adult consumption expenditure are used to aggregate consumption poverty indices.

Table 5.1: Total (absolute) and food poverty line in Birr (at national average price)

	1995/96	2010/11	2015 (AA)
Kilocalorie per adult per day (Kcal)	2,200	2,200	2,200
Food poverty line per adult person per year (Birr)	648	1,985	3657
Total poverty line per adult person per year (Birr)	1,075	3,781	6697

Source: HICE survey 1995/96 and 2010/11, and own compilation

The level of poverty for Addis Ababa for 2015 is provided in Table 5.2. The proportion of people who are below absolute poverty are estimated to be 18.9% with 95% confidence interval of between 17.3% and 20.4%. For the same year the poverty gap and severity of poverty indices are 5% and 1.8%, respectively. The 95% confidence interval is between 4.5% and 5.5% for poverty gap and between 1.6% and 2% for severity of poverty.

The trends in poverty are given in table 5.3 and figure 5.1. The data shows that poverty head count index declined substantially from 28.1% in 2011 to 18.9% in 2015, which is more than the decline in the previous periods (Table 5.3). The graph for the head count index shows first an increase between the years 1996-2000 and then a consistent decline with the slopes being much steeper between the years 2011-2015. Similarly, to the poverty head count, the poverty gap and severity indices declined substantially between the years 2011 and 2015, which was not the case in the previous periods. In 2011, poverty gap index was 7.3% and poverty severity index was 2.7%. In 2015, these figures declined to 5% and 1.8% respectively. The previous trends however show different patterns for different years. For instance poverty gap rose between the period 1996-2000, it then declined between 2000 and 2005, and then decreased slightly between 2005 and 2011. The severity of poverty showed the same pattern though at lower levels.

Table 5.2. Estimated poverty indices of Addis Ababa for 2015

Mean	Estimate	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
p0	0.189	0.008	0.173	0.204
p1	0.050	0.003	0.045	0.055
p2	0.018	0.001	0.016	0.020

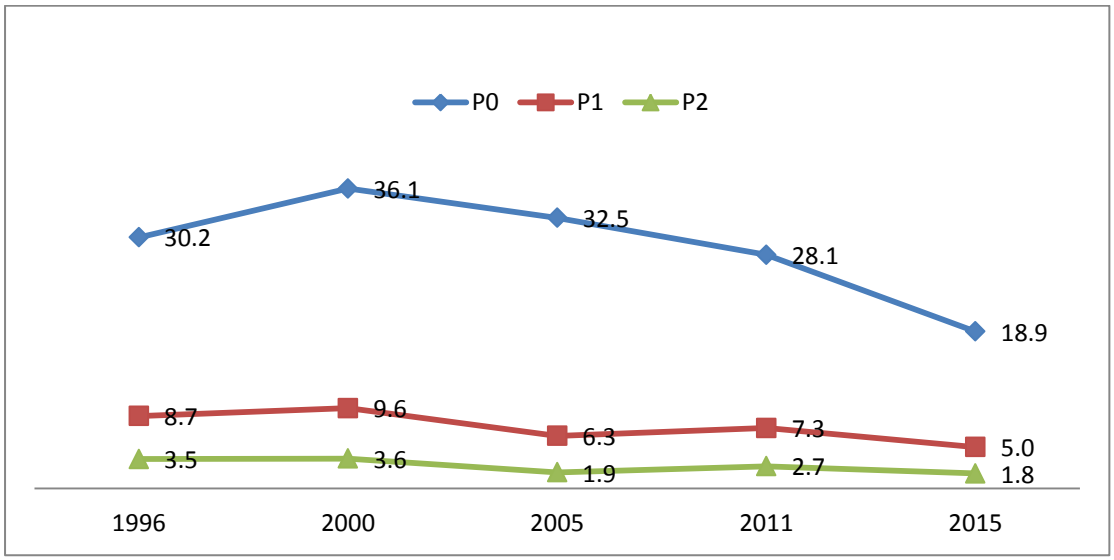
Source: own computation

Table 5.3. Trends in poverty indices (%) in Addis Ababa (1996-2014)

Year	P0	P1	P2
1996	30.2	8.7	3.5
2000	36.1	9.6	3.6
2005	32.5	6.3	1.9
2011	28.1	7.3	2.7
2015	18.9	5.0	1.8

P0=Head count index; P1=Poverty gap index; p2=Poverty severity index
Source: own computation

Figure 5.1 Trends in poverty indices in AA



P0=Head count index; P1=Poverty gap index; p2=Poverty severity index

5.2 Status and Trends of Poverty by Sub-cities

The trends in poverty by sub-city is provided in table 5.4 and figures 5.2,5.3 and 5.4 for the years 2005, 2011 and 2015. The table and figures show that first poverty level varies significantly by sub city. In the year 2015, poverty head count in the city varies between 46.9 % (Addis Ketmea) and 7.9% (Bole). It is to be noted that Addis Ketema has consistently shown a very high poverty level in the years 2005(35.9%), 2011 (46.8%) and 2015 (46.9%). The increase in poverty level in the sub city between 2011 and 2015 however was only 0.1 %. Second, in the year 2015 there are three sub-cities which have higher than the city average poverty level (18.9%). These sub-cities are Addis Ketema (46.9%), Arada (34.5%) and Lideta (29.6%). These sub-cities have also shown higher than the city average poverty level in the years 2005 and 2011. Kirkos and Akaki kality which had poverty levels worse than the city average in 2011 have improved in their poverty status in 2015 and performed better than the city average.

Third, poverty head count index declined in all sub cities of Addis Ababa except Arada and Addis Ketema sub cities where poverty did not decline. For Arada, poverty head count index declined slightly compared to 10 years ago (in 2005), but increased compared to 2011, which requires further investigation. For Addis Ketema sub city, poverty head count index increased since 2005, perhaps because of the influx of migrants from all over the country to this sub city.

The same declining pattern is observed for poverty gap except for Arada and Addis Ketema sub cities. Unlike the poverty head count index and poverty gap, poverty severity declined in all sub cities.

Table 5.4. Trends in poverty indices by sub city (2004-2015) in %

	P0			P1			P2		
	2005	2011	2015	2005	2011	2015	2005	2011	2015
Arada	37.7	28.2	34.5	7.5	9.4	9.9	2.2	3.9	3.8
Addis Ketema	35.9	46.8	46.9	7.5	14.7	14.7	2.6	6.2	5.9
Lideta	35.4	53.8	29.6	6.2	18.2	8.6	1.6	8.3	3
Kirkos	39.6	33.8	14.8	7.2	9.3	3.4	2.0	3.6	1.1
Yeka	31.2	27.8	9.6	6.3	6.0	2.0	2.0	1.7	0.6
Bole	15.3	14.4	7.8	2.1	3.2	1	0.5	0.9	0.3
AkakiKaliti	31.6	30.6	9.5	6.6	8.0	2.2	2.1	2.8	0.6
Nefas Silk Lafto	35.4	21.9	17.8	7.4	4.0	5.3	2.4	1.1	2.1
KolfeKeranyo	29.2	18.9	18.1	5.3	3.5	4.4	1.6	0.9	1.5
Gulele	34.0	26.6	14.9	7.0	6.5	3.2	2.2	2.3	1
AA total	32.5	28.1	18.9	6.3	7.3	5	1.9	2.7	1.8

P1=Poverty head count index; P2= Poverty gap index; P3= Poverty severity index
Source: MoFed, 2013 for 2005 and 2011, Own computation for 2014

Figure 5.2 Trends in poverty head count index in Addis Ababa (2005,2011,2015)

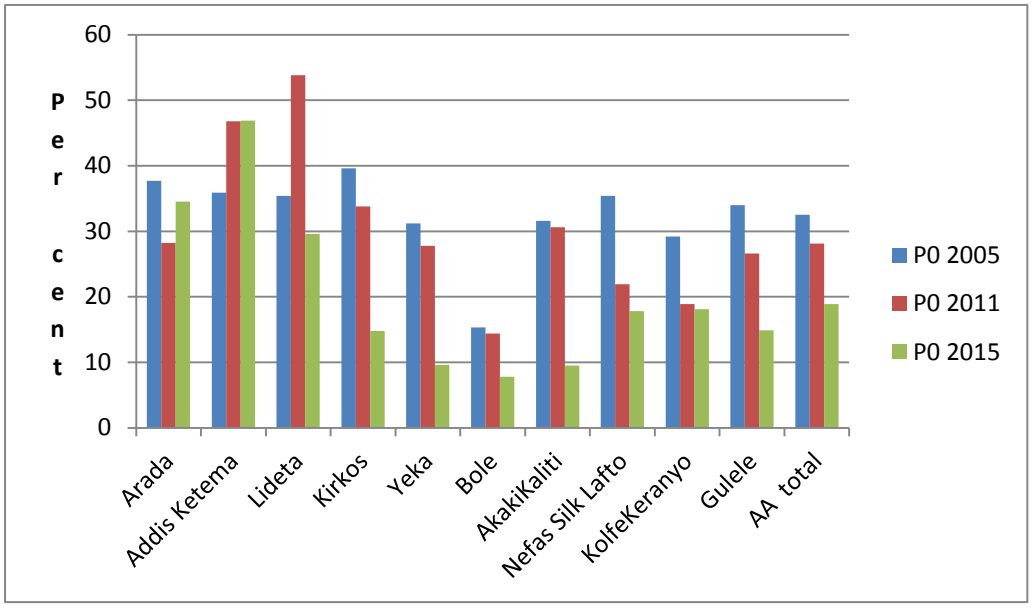


Figure 5.3 Trends in poverty gap in Addis Ababa (2005,2011,2015)

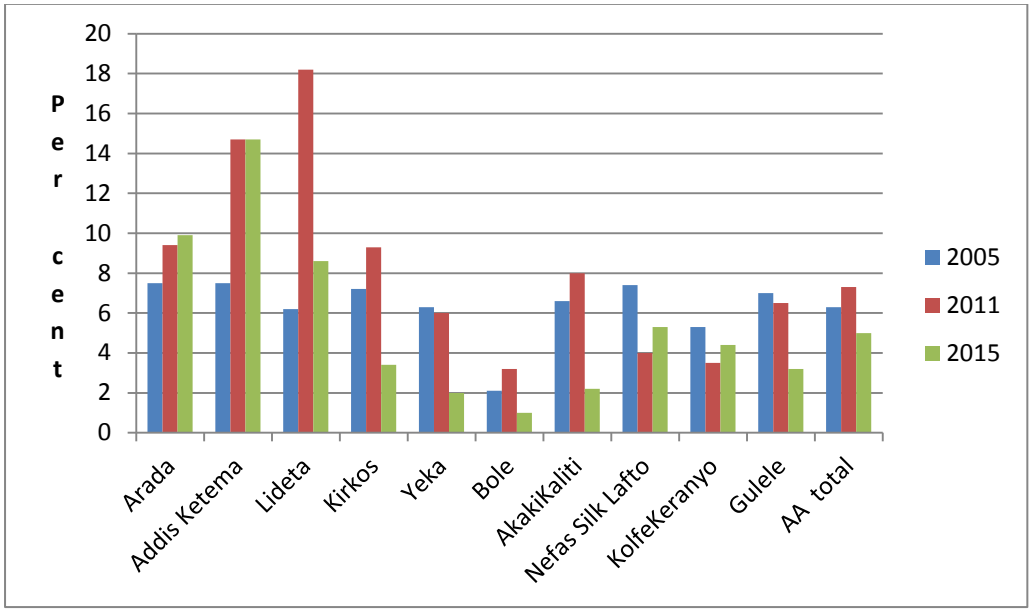
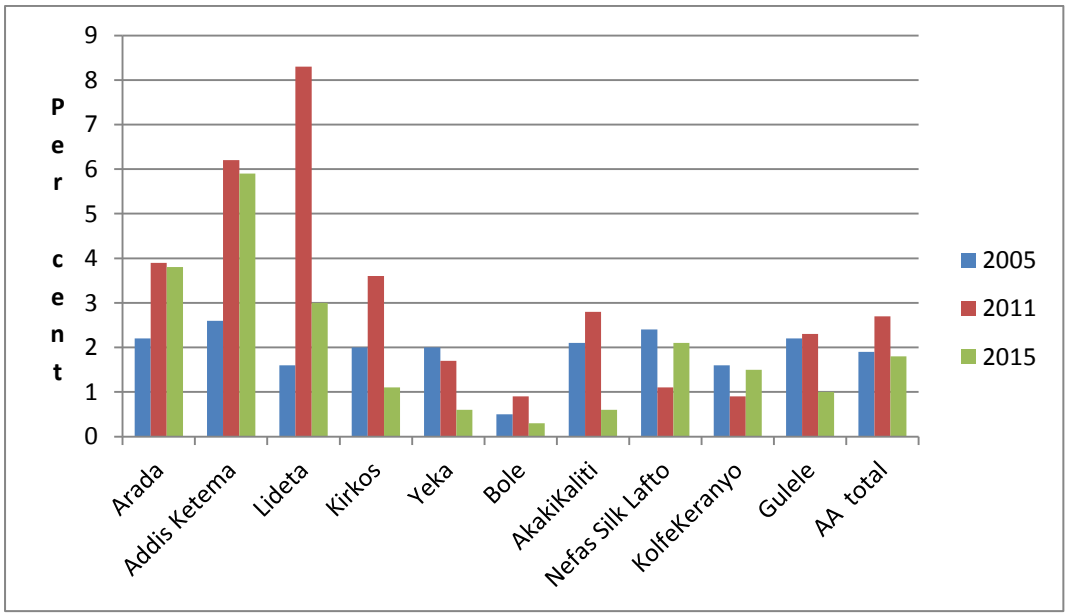


Figure 5.4 Trends in poverty severity in Addis Ababa (2005,2011,2015)



5.3 Status and trends in consumption inequality

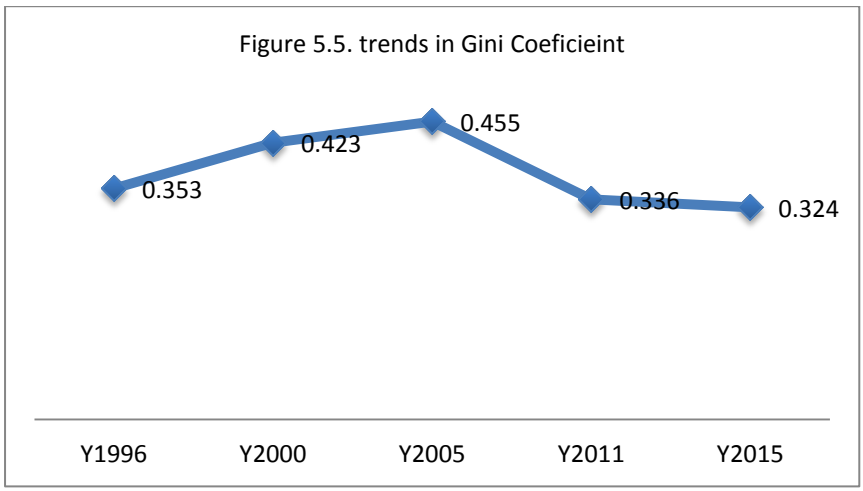
The trend in inequality is provided in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.5. The income inequality measured by Gini coefficient of real consumption per capita for the year 2015 is estimated to be 0.32, which is quite low compared to many other cities in the world. The trend in Gini coefficient showed that

inequality had an increasing trend during the year 1996-2005 after which time it showed a declining trend. The decline in inequality between the year 2005 and 2011 was significant with a difference of 0.119 while the decline in inequality between the years 2011 and 2015 is tempered and the Gini coefficients had a difference of 0.014.

Table 5.5: Trends in income inequality in Addis Ababa (1996-2015)

Year	Gini coefficient
1996	0.353
2000	0.423
2005	0.455
2011	0.336
2015	0.324

Source: Own computation



Chapter 6: Characteristics of the Poor

In any poverty study it is critical to identify the characteristics of the poor or give answer to the question who are the poor? The answer for the question forms the basis for targeting households in a bid to reduce poverty. The following examines the relation between poverty prevalence and different characteristics such as demographic characteristics, education status and occupational nature.

6.1 Poverty and demographic characteristics

The incidence of poverty can show some differentiation on the basis of the demographic characteristics of households such as the sex of the household head, the marital status of the household head and the size of the household. Table 6.1 shows the relation between the sex of household head and the incidence of poverty. The result shows that female headed households are more vulnerable to poverty than male headed households. The incidence of poverty is 21% among female headed households while it is 17.1% for those households headed by male. This result is in line with the 2013 national level study which found higher poverty levels among female headed households than male headed households in urban Ethiopia. In general women in Ethiopia tend to have completed less schooling and may have lower levels of physical capital (MoFED, 2013). Consequently the prevalence of poverty among female headed will be relatively higher than male headed.

Table 6.1: Proportion of poverty by sex of household head in Addis Ababa, 2015.

Sex of head	% of absolute poverty
Male	17.1
Female	21.4
Total	18.9

The incidence of poverty by marital status shows that those in dissolved marriage are prone to poverty. In particular as the data presented in table 6.2 shows about a fourth (24.8%) of the Households headed by widowers is living below poverty line. This could be due to fact that income earner may have died and this puts the households in shocks and in the state of poverty. Other households in dissolved marriage such as divorcees (16.9%) and separated (14.9%) and widowers (24.8%) have high proportion in poverty.

Table 6.2 Incidences of poverty by head of household's marital status, 2015

Marital status	% of absolute poverty
Never married	15.6
Currently married	17.9
Divorced	16.9
Separated	14.9
Widowed	24.8

The question whether household size is related to poverty is an important but tricky question. The reason is partly because a household is composed of children and adults and these have different requirements and needs that can influence the state of household poverty. In addition bigger households may enjoy economies of scale compared to smaller households. Previous study in Ethiopia has shown that the scale economy in Ethiopian households is less since most of the consumption is individual consumption rather than collective consumption such as lighting (FDRE, 2003). Similarly, the consumption expenditure used for measuring poverty in this study is adjusted for age equivalents. As a result of these two factors, the poverty incidence by household size gives a reasonable result. Table 6.3 shows that the proportion of households living below poverty line increases with household size. It can be seen that while only 5.7% of the households with single member lives below poverty line, the proportion increases to 11.4 % among those households with 4 members and 18% among those households having 5 members. The data shows with further increase of family size, the incidence of poverty becomes more prevalent. As a result, the incidence of poverty among households with six members is 29.6% or a little less than one-third while the poverty incidence rises to 44.1% or more than two-fifth for households with 7 and more members.

Table 6.3 Incidence of poverty by Household Size, 2015

Household size	% of absolute poverty
1	5.7
2	3.7
3	5.2
4	11.4
5	18.0
6	29.6
7+	44.1
Total	18.9

6.2 Poverty and Education

Education is the basis of human capital and it can serve as instrument to come out of poverty. In general educated people command higher income and resources than the non-educated people. In line with this expectation, education appears to have an inverse relationship with poverty incidence in the city (Table 6.4). The proportion of population living below poverty line is 30.9% among those households headed having no education and also among with informal education. Thus households out of the formal education system are more vulnerable to poverty. There is also a difference in the incidence of poverty even among those with formal education depending on their levels of training. Those with lower level of formal training such as Grades 1-4 completed and Grades 5-8 completed or the first and second cycle of elementary education have poverty incidence of 24.2 % and 19.3% respectively. This indicates that elementary education is not very useful in the cities to reduce poverty. Secondary education however decreases poverty incidence in the city to 15.7%. The incidence of poverty is much lower for those households with higher education such as certificate level training (11.1%) and university education (6.3%) in the city. A higher level of education thus increases a chance of getting out of poverty in the city.

Table 6.4: Incidence of poverty by education status of the household head

Highest grade completed b the head of the household	% of absolute poverty
No education	30.9
Informal education	30.9
Grade 1-4 completed	24.2
Grade 5-8 completed	19.3
Grade 9-12 completed	15.7
Certificate training	11.1
University degree	6.3
Total	18.9

6.3 Poverty, employment and occupation

Table 6.5 shows that absolute poverty is affected by employment in productive work. The data presented in the table clearly indicates that those who are not engaged in productive work have higher share of the absolute poor (23%) as opposed to those who are engaged in productive work (16%). Productive work helps households earn income which is the main vehicle to lift people out of poverty.

Poverty by occupation type is given in table 6.6. The data in the table indicates that the highest level of poverty is found among those employed in elementary occupation (29.4%). Elementary

occupations are low levels of occupations with limited income and mostly irregular in their nature. Crafts and related occupation has the second highest levels of poverty (18.2%). The occupations with least poverty incidence are the legislators (6.1%) and professionals (8.3%). This result is consistent with the national level poverty study of the 2013 (FDRE, 2013). Professionals are people who have adequate educational background that enables them to be employed in well-paying activities. The probability for these people to find themselves in poverty is very low. The result confirmed the relation between education and poverty described above. Other professions which have moderate poverty levels include technicians, clerks, service workers and skilled agricultural workers.

Table 6.5: Share of poverty among those engaged and not engaged in productive work

	% of absolutely poor
Heads not engaged in productive work over last 12 months	23.0
Heads Engaged in productive work over the last 12 months	16.7
Total	18.9

Table 6.6: type of occupation and poverty

Occupation	% of absolutely poor
Legislators and senators	6.1
Professionals	8.3
technicians and	14.4
Clerks	16.0
service workers	16.2
skilled agriculture	14.2
craft and related work	18.2
plant and machinery	15.6
elementary occupation	29.4

Chapter 7: Non-Consumption Dimensions of Poverty in the City

The non-consumption dimensions of poverty in Addis Ababa is assessed using residents' access to educational, health and housing facilities and their satisfaction to the services made available in each of these sectors. Although there are other sectors that could help assessing the non-consumption dimension of poverty, access and satisfaction to the aforementioned facilities are believed to clearly indicate the magnitude of poverty among residents of the City

7.1 Education

7.1.1 Literacy Rate

Literacy rate is over 90% for males but reduced to over 80% for most of the females aged 5 and above (Table 7.1). There is slight increase in literacy rate for both males and females at the City level and all of the sub-cities except Kirkos Sub-city where there has been a declining trend in literacy rate between 2011 and 2015.

Table 7.1: Distribution of Literacy rate among Population aged 5 and above by Sex and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-City	*Male*				*Female*			
	2011		*2015*			*2011*		*2015*
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*
Addis Ababa	1,200,631	92.0	1,276,292	93.5	1,437,958	80.2	1,565,992	83.9
Akaki Kality	87,402	86.3	89,295	91.4	97,868	75.2	104,322	82.7
Nefas Silk Lafto	132,405	90.7	157,807	95.0	156,641	81.8	206,308	86.5
Kolfe Keraniyo	177,772	93.0	198,610	92.1	200,412	79.4	241,940	83.1
Gulele	115,056	92.8	119,787	94.0	137,638	78.4	145,443	82.5
Lideta	86,663	92.7	86,863	92.7	99,260	78.6	106,979	81.0
Kirkos	102,062	95.8	89,161	93.8	126,465	85.2	114,152	82.2
Arada	84,517	92.4	93,626	95.0	109,796	84.8	122,649	86.6
Addis Ketema	114,289	92.8	105,563	91.7	129,321	75.0	128,756	80.1
Yeka	172,514	93.8	182,091	94.3	227,362	82.4	220,741	83.5
Bole	127,953	88.5	153,488	94.5	153,195	79.2	174,701	87.9

7.1.2 Net Enrolment Rate:

Net enrolment rate has shown a slight declining trend in the first primary cycle (grade 1-4) and high school (grade 9-10) but increased in the second primary cycle (grade 5-8) at the city level both among males and females. The trend is nearly the same for most of the sub-cities with few exceptions where the rate remained constant or has shown slight change (Table 7.2). Net enrolment rate is about three-fourth for both males and females at first primary cycle schools (grade 1-4); 70% vs 65% for males and females at second primary cycle schools (grade 5-8); and 32% vs 21% for males and females, respectively, at high school (grade 9-10) in 2015. Despite variation in the net

enrolment rates at the sub-cities level, wider gender gap in school enrolment is observed in high school (grade 9-10) across all sub-cities and the City (Table 7.2).

Table 7.2: Distribution of Net Enrolment Rate among population age 5 and above by level of education, Sex and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-City	Male						Female					
	1-4		5-8		9-10		1-4		5-8		9-10	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
Addis Ababa	81.00	76.1	68.9	70.5	39.2	31.7	77.0	75.5	60.0	64.7	24.3	21.9
Akaki Kality	84.4	78.4	76.4	72.6	44.4	38.4	82.1	69.4	55.6	69.5	37.3	38.0
Nefas Silk Lafto	73.8	76.5	54.5	60.9	30.0	39.9	72.3	68.8	64.0	63.1	27.9	24.0
Kolfe Keraniyo	84.8	68.0	55.5	72.2	36.8	36.2	82.2	74.7	54.9	80.6	12.9	27.3
Gulele	84.0	69.5	70.8	69.8	49.7	34.4	66.5	87.1	56.7	71.2	26.3	17.9
Lideta	80.5	72.3	68.9	60.0	36.6	30.6	79.1	73.0	60.4	50.3	29.8	29.3
Kirkos	80.3	79.3	83.5	75.5	51.6	48.4	80.3	87.2	66.0	56.1	19.9	23.4
Arada	84.4	74.4	78.4	75.8	43.8	31.9	83.4	78.9	64.1	73.5	33.9	33.6
Addis Ketema	74.0	83.7	82.7	73.0	29.4	31.2	76.9	72.1	58.8	54.8	12.7	20.4
Yeka	81.9	79.2	73.3	76.8	28.8	29.0	71.4	63.3	60.2	60.1	24.9	18.3
Bole	80.1	84.5	65.7	63.5	43.9	40.3	80.2	90.8	65.3	58.0	24.5	24.8

7.1.3 School attendance: Government, Private and others

As shown in Table 7.3, the percentage distribution of students attending government schools has increased at all school levels between 2011 and 2015. At the moment, government schools accounted for 62.1% of students attending the first primary cycle (grade 1-4) school, 70.0 % of those attending the second primary cycle (grade 5-8) school, and 78.5% of those enrolled in the high school (grade 9-10). The change in the percentage distribution of students attending government schools is quite large in some of the sub-cities. For instance, enrolment in government high schools (grade 9-10) has increased from 56.2% in 2011 to 80.3% in 2015 in Bole Sub-city; from 23.6% o 58.4% of the first primary cycle school (grade 1-4) and from 31.3% to 63.9% of second primary cycle (grade 5-8) in Kirkos Sub-City. Consequently, students attending privately owned schools and other schools run by different institutions (i.e. non-government organizations, missionaries, churches/mosques and the like) have dropped significantly. This is mainly due to expansion of public schools both in size and number in the city.

Table 7.3: Percentage Distribution of Students Attending Government, Private and Other Schools by Level of Education and Sub City in Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	Number of cases		Government		Private		Others	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
1-4								
Addis Ababa	212,954	252,072	42.9	62.1	44.8	35.5	12.3	2.5
Akaki Kality	18,029	18,309	43.2	61.3	41.3	34.4	15.5	4.2
Nefas Silk Lafto	19,467	26,809	39.2	52.0	46.1	48.0	14.8	0.0
Kolfe Keraniyo	36,719	47,247	47.0	53.0	48.8	47.0	4.2	0.0
Gulele	21,045	23,070	48.8	74.6	39.1	21.9	12.2	3.5
Lideta	13,158	13,933	34.9	67.8	42.5	28.9	22.5	3.3
Kirkos	11,646	17,781	23.6	58.4	56.0	37.5	20.5	4.2
Arada	12,614	17,971	37.5	56.8	50.4	39.8	12.2	3.5
Addis Ketema	17,596	19,395	52.0	80.2	38.2	17.2	9.7	2.6
Yeka	36,086	40,222	47.1	66.0	38.8	32.5	14.1	1.6
Bole	26,594	27,336	41.9	56.5	47.7	38.5	10.4	5.0
5-8								
Addis Ababa	239,394	247,635	53.7	70.0	32.5	27.5	13.8	2.5
Akaki Kality	18,105	20,118	61.3	66.8	23.3	28.9	15.4	4.2
Nefas Silk Lafto	23,834	24,697	54.3	67.9	27.3	28.5	18.5	3.6
Kolfe Keraniyo	44,372	36,195	57.9	64.4	36.7	35.6	5.4	0.0
Gulele	24,715	21,517	69.7	79.1	23.4	17.9	6.9	3.0
Lideta	16,288	16,864	45.9	75.1	36.1	19.6	18.0	5.3
Kirkos	12,079	18,845	31.3	63.9	43.5	33.4	25.2	2.7
Arada	17,403	17,931	47.7	71.4	32.3	27.0	20.0	1.6
Addis Ketema	18,910	23,981	53.8	82.8	36.3	15.6	9.9	1.6
Yeka	42,708	40,327	58.4	67.6	28.5	29.2	13.1	3.3
Bole	20,980	27,160	46.9	68.2	38.5	29.3	14.7	2.5
9-10								
Addis Ababa	72,547	111,789	69.0	78.5	23.8	20.5	7.1	1.1
Akaki Kality	3,668	11,420	70.4	73.8	18.7	17.9	11.0	8.3
Nefas Silk Lafto	12,974	12,651	64.8	72.9	18.7	27.1	16.5	0.0
Kolfe Keraniyo	13,508	16,729	72.3	70.4	26.2	29.6	1.5	0.0
Gulele	4,977	10,750	84.6	77.8	12.1	18.5	3.3	3.7
Lideta	5,978	7,392	73.8	91.1	21.2	9.0	4.9	0.0
Kirkos	5,496	7,187	62.8	76.3	35.1	23.7	2.2	0.0
Arada	3,357	9,087	61.3	82.9	20.3	8.7	18.5	8.4
Addis Ketema	7,232	8,173	80.1	97.9	16.5	2.1	3.5	0.0
Yeka	9,924	16,048	66.9	75.6	27.3	24.4	5.8	0.0
Bole	5,433	12,354	56.2	80.3	38.9	19.7	4.9	0.0

7.1.4 School Dropouts

As shown in Table 7.4, school dropout rates are very little at all levels of the educational system in the City and sub-cities. The largest dropout rate is observed in Yeka Sub-city among those attending high schools (6.2%), followed by those in Akaki Kality again attending high school (5.0%) and the Bole Sub-City's second primary level attendees (3.5%). Measures taken by the Government to let every child attend school and the campaign against school drop-outs by teachers seems to be effective in keeping most of the children in the school system.

Table 7.4: Dropout rates by Level of Education and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-City	1-4		5-8		9-10	
	2011	**2015**	**2011**	**2015**	**2011**	**2015**
Addis Ababa	1.2	1.0	1. 9	1.1	2.4	0.5
Akaki Kality	1.3	3.1	1.7	1.9	5.0	0.0
Nefas Silk Lafto	2.7	0.0	1.8	0.0	2.2	0.0
Kolfe Keraniyo	0.6	1.7	1.7	0.8	1.7	0.0
Gulele	0.7	0.8	0.0	2.1	0.0	0.0
Lideta	1.8	0.9	2.0	3.2	3.0	0.0
Kirkos	0.9	1.2	1.6	1.3	0.0	3.0
Arada	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Addis Ketema	0.0	1.8	1.2	2.4	2.2	2.5
Yeka	0.6	0.0	3.1	0.7	6.2	0.0
Bole	***3.0***	***0.0***	***3.5***	***0.0***	***1.7***	***0.0***

7.1.5 Satisfaction in School Facilities

Satisfaction in school facilities at the City level has in general declined from about 95% in 2011 to about 85% in 2015 across different level of schools (Table 7.5). Same trend is also observed across sub-cities showing that residents are expecting much improvement in the management of schools and provision of education in the city. Results of the qualitative study have also shown that there is great dissatisfaction on the part of the city residents on the quality of education and deterioration of student disciplines in the school since recently. Positive assessment is, however, observed among residents of Lideta Sub-City where the change in the level of satisfaction is consistently increasing at all school levels.

Table 7.5: Percentage Distribution of Households Satisfied in School Facilities by Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-City	Number of Households		Grade 1-4		Grade 5-8		Grade 9-10	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
Addis Ababa	729,664	818,770	96.0	87.6	94.8	86.2	95.2	84.6
Akaki Kality	50,674	61,718	97.6	93.4	97.5	86.2	84.2	85.8
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	110,896	96.8	86.6	96.5	86.3	97.0	87.2
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	127,934	97.4	89.3	96.8	87.9	95.0	89.9
Gulele	64,528	70,903	92.7	82.0	88.7	81.1	94.1	82.2
Lideta	46,571	52,037	92.1	97.8	93.7	96.4	94.6	96.3
Kirkos	62,242	64,708	92.3	92.5	88.0	90.8	84.4	89.9
Arada	52,364	55,518	96.3	90.0	99.1	95.5	98.6	95.9
Addis Ketema	56,902	60,414	96.8	86.6	98.5	84.0	97.0	82.7
Yeka	109,101	111,615	98.2	96.4	98.3	95.3	99.1	86.2
Bole	86,094	103,028	95.6	64.5	84.8	56.6	100.0	55.7

7.1.6 Change in the Quality of Services in Schools

With regard to residents' opinion on the change in the quality of services in the schools in the City, results of the survey showed that nearly one-third of the respondents in the 2015 survey claimed to observe the same service as it had been in the previous year whilst about 60% of them acknowledged the fact that the services are getting better as compared to the situation in the previous year (Table 7.5).

Table 7.6: Percentage Distribution of Households by Change in Quality of Services in Grades 1-4, 5-8 and 9-10 by Sub City in Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

	2011						2015				
	Number of cases	Worse now	same	better now	do not know	Not Stated	Number of cases	Worse now	same	better now	do not know
		1-4									
Addis Ababa	235,411	1.3	17.4	79.1	1.5	0.7	256,203	2.9	30.7	64.4	2.1
Akaki Kality	11,305	0.0	22.5	76.1	1.4	0.0	18,653	1.7	34.8	61.9	1.6
Nefas Silk Lafto	35,249	0.0	11.6	85.7	2.0	0.7	49,661	0.6	31.4	64.2	3.8
Kolfe Keraniyo	34,671	1.8	23.6	72.6	2.0	0.0	34,656	1.0	24.7	71.3	3.0
Gulele	31,120	0.5	5.2	92.5	1.8	0.0	22,516	2.4	54.1	42.6	0.8
Lideta	12,245	3.0	9.9	79.3	4.0	3.9	18,122	10.2	39.7	49.4	0.7
Kirkos	16,321	5.6	49.0	44.4	0.9	0.0	15,200	2.4	26.2	69.3	2.2
Arada	14,290	0.9	18.7	76.7	0.0	3.7	14,691	1.0	13.7	84.2	1.1
Addis Ketema	17,150	0.0	5.6	93.5	0.0	0.8	28,975	12.3	21.3	65.9	0.5
Yeka	43,643	0.6	21.5	77.3	0.6	0.0	30,875	0.0	17.5	81.6	0.9
Bole	19,417	3.1	12.0	80.4	3.2	1.3	22,854	0.0	48.2	48.3	3.5

	5-8										
Addis Ababa	220,299	2.1	18.0	78.1	1.3	0.6	250,411	4.0	32.5	61.7	1.8
Akaki Kality	11,091	0.0	19.0	79.6	1.4	0.0	16,996	3.0	39.1	51.2	6.8
Nefas Silk Lafto	31,316	1.4	13.3	82.6	1.9	0.8	48,662	0.6	34.3	60.7	4.4
Kolfe Keraniyo	30,004	4.1	25.9	68.0	2.0	0.0	39,381	4.4	23.7	71.1	0.8
Gulele	28,788	0.6	7.9	89.1	1.9	0.6	20,466	3.6	50.5	45.9	0.0
Lideta	13,449	4.5	14.4	77.5	1.8	1.8	19,245	9.6	41.9	47.8	0.7
Kirkos	15,970	2.9	49.9	47.2	0.0	0.0	12,429	2.9	33.3	62.4	1.3
Arada	13,983	1.9	15.7	82.4	0.0	0.0	15,820	0.9	13.5	83.8	1.9
Addis Ketema	18,334	0.0	3.8	95.5	0.0	0.8	27,282	12.5	23.0	63.9	0.6
Yeka	43,869	0.6	20.6	77.7	0.6	0.5	30,187	0.9	29.0	70.1	0.0
Bole	13,495	8.3	10.5	76.3	2.7	2.2	19,942	4.0	44.7	50.0	1.3
	9-10										
Addis Ababa	140,932	1.0	17.1	79.5	1.8	0.5	178,847	5.0	34.5	58.6	1.9
Akaki Kality	7,830	6.5	25.0	66.5	2.0	0.0	10,988	5.7	43.0	48.5	2.8
Nefas Silk Lafto	23,397	0.0	12.3	81.4	6.3	0.0	43,283	0.7	37.2	57.1	4.9
Kolfe Keraniyo	16,568	0.0	30.0	66.6	1.6	1.8	19,650	8.6	33.2	56.6	1.6
Gulele	22,052	0.7	5.1	93.4	0.0	0.8	13,461	4.1	53.4	42.5	0.0
Lideta	6,676	1.8	3.6	87.3	3.6	3.6	14,451	11.0	38.4	50.6	0.0
Kirkos	10,501	3.0	56.6	40.4	0.0	0.0	8,031	6.5	37.0	56.4	0.0
Arada	9,338	0.0	14.9	83.7	1.4	0.0	11,065	0.0	16.8	81.9	1.3
Addis Ketema	9,333	0.0	5.9	94.1	0.0	0.0	24,194	14.1	15.1	69.5	1.3
Yeka	28,392	0.9	14.0	85.1	0.0	0.0	16,231	0.0	19.2	80.8	0.0
Bole	6,845	0.0	16.3	78.8	4.8	0.0	17,493	1.5	57.0	40.0	1.5

Variation was, however, observed across sub-cities ranging from 45.9% of appreciation of the services provided at the second primary cycle in Gulele Sub-City in 2015 to 83.8% of acknowledging the improvement in the same system in Arada Sub-City in 2015. Qualitative information gathered through in-depth interviews and FGDs have also shown that satisfaction in the quality of service in the schools is mainly attributable to the efforts made to build several schools in the City to give better access to residents, and the subsequent reduction in the class size that has improved the student-teacher interaction on daily basis.

7.2 Health

7.2.1 Self-reported Health Problems

As shown in Table 6.7, stomach ache, diarrhoea headache, ear-nose-throat (ENT), blood pressure, ophthalmic and dental problems are the most widely faced health problems among residents of Addis Ababa (Table 7.7). Other health problems such as diabetes, backache, vomiting, malaria and injury are also reported health difficulties in the City. The reported health problems are also nearly the same across sub-cities despite variation in the percentage distribution (see Appendix).

Table 7.7: Percentage Distribution of Population with Self-reported Health Problems by Type of Disease and Sex in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Type of Disease	Addis Ababa			
	Male		Female	
	2011	2015	2011	2015
Stomach Ache	9.1	15.3	7.5	10.3
Diarrheal	7.4	4.3	4.5	5.2
Head Ache	6.7	5.1	10.1	6.1
Ear, Nose, Throat (ENT)	6.2	4.4	6.9	4.1
Ophthalmic Problem	3.5	6.1	3.1	4.6
Blood Pressure	3.1	6.1	5.7	5.5
Dental	2.9	4.7	2.9	5.1
Uric acid	2.9	1.3	3.6	2.5
Diabetes	2.6	5.4	2.5	4.7
Injury	2.3	3.1	2.2	2.4
Malaria	2.1	4.1	1.1	3.9
Asthma	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.9
Backache	1.5	0.6	2.5	4.9
Tuber closes	1.1	1.5	0.9	1.4
Vomiting	1.0	3.9	1.2	3.2
HIV/AIDS	0.8	1.3	1.1	0.4
Skin Diseas	0.7	1.1	1.7	1.9
Hyphothesis-B	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.8
Others	43.1	29.6	39.7	31.1
Not Stated	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of cases	148,810	65,586	210,027	119,472

7.2.2 Satisfaction in Health Facilities: Hospitals and Health Centres

As shown in Table 7.8, nearly 80% of the residents in the City are satisfied with the services rendered at hospitals and health canters. Even though the trend across the sub-cities are more or less similar to the situation at the City level, a declining trend in the level of satisfaction in hospitals were observed in Gulele (from 79.3% in 2011 to 51.4% in 2015) and Kolfe Karaniyo (from 94.7% in 2011 to 66.1% in 2015). Considerable reduction in the level of satisfaction in services rendered at the health centres is observed in Lideta (from 87.7% in 2011 to 70% in 2015) and Bole sub-cities (from 66.3% in 2011to 55.8% in 2015). Qualitative information collected through in-depth interviews and FGDs also reveal that complaints over the services in the health facilities in the City range from shortage of qualified and committed health professionals in health centres to unjustified referrals to private clinic and pharmacies while the services and drugs are available at the government health institutions.

Unlike this, a worthwhile increase in the level of satisfaction in services provided at the hospital level is observed in Nifas Silk Lafto (from 66.7% in 2011 to 86.5% in 2015) and Bole (from 44.5% in 2011 to 61.3%) sub-cities. This is a reflection of expansion and renovation of several hospitals in the city recently. Residents of Addis Ketema Sub-city have also been observed to have an increasing level of satisfaction in serviced provided at the health centres: 68.8% in 2011 vs 88.9% in 2015.

Table 7.8: Percentage Distribution of Households Who is satisfied in Hospitals and Health Centres by Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	Number of cases (2011)		Number of cases (2015)		Hospital		Health Centre	
	Hospital	Health Centre	Hospital	Health Centre	2011	2015	2011	2015
Addis Ababa	468,583	587,777	516,897	671,272	**79.5**	**77.2**	**83.3**	**81.9**
Akaki Kality	16,645	40,596	52,065	54,743	94.5	86.0	88.0	88.0
Nefas Silk Lafto	74,023	84,065	60,584	88,990	66.7	86.5	81.5	95.5
Kolfe Keraniyo	81,822	93,041	69,463	103,733	94.7	66.1	90.5	87.3
Gulele	43,465	40,936	29,587	60,208	79.3	51.4	74.6	71.2
Lideta	20,438	39,439	44,723	50,536	87.0	76.4	87.7	70.0
Kirkos	46,416	52,231	35,237	45,490	74.1	73.3	84.7	81.9
Arada	43,106	42,861	38,316	39,940	81.9	78.5	90.1	83.1
Addis Ketema	29,990	33,330	37,306	50,288	77.2	80.8	68.8	88.9
Yeka	74,756	95,033	88,425	97,385	91.2	93.6	90.6	90.5
Bole	37,922	66,244	61,191	79,959	44.5	61.3	66.3	55.8

7.2.3 Change in Quality of Health Services: Hospitals and Health Centres

With regard to change in the quality of services in hospitals and health centers, about 60% of residents have said that the services provided both at the hospitals and health canters in the City are getting better. However, about 25% of them stating that the services have remained the same when compared to the situation in the previous year (Table 7.9). Variations are, however, observed in the change of quality of services in hospitals and health centres across sub-cities. Over 70% of residents in Nefas Silk Lafto and Yeka sub-cities have expressed their appreciation of change in the quality of serviced in the hospitals and health centres whilst the proportion of residents making similar appreciation are less than 50% in Akaki Kality, Lideta and Bole sub-cities. These statistical results have also been supported by responses obtained from qualitative data indicating that expansion of health centres and hospitals is benefiting women seeking reproductive health services, residents looking for treatment of emergency cases, laboratory tests and the like. Above all, the poor are found out to be extremely happy for getting wider and free medical access by producing a simple letter from local authorities.

Table 7.9: Percentage Distribution of Households by Change in Quality of Services in Hospitals and Health Centres by Sub City - Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

	2011						2015				
	Number of cases	Worse now	same	better now	do not know	Not Stated	Number of cases	Worse now	same	better now	do not know
Hospitals											
Addis Ababa	468,583	3.9	30.2	59.7	5.2	1.0	518,475	3.2	32.6	59.4	4.8
Akaki Kality	16,645	0.9	16.3	61.2	21.6		52,065	2.2	52.4	37.7	7.7
Nefas Silk Lafto	74,023	1.9	38.4	50.1	9.0	0.6	61,700	0.4	11.0	85.8	2.8
Kolfe Keraniyo	81,822	1.1	19.3	70.6	8.3	0.7	69,784	2.0	42.7	52.8	2.5
Gulele	43,465	1.5	16.5	74.1	7.6	0.4	29,587	0.6	50.0	40.6	8.8
Lideta	20,438	3.6	15.4	73.4	5.9	1.8	44,723	7.1	40.0	47.8	5.1
Kirkos	46,416	10.2	53.0	34.5	0.3	2.0	35,237	3.2	39.8	50.8	6.1
Arada	43,106	2.8	31.6	63.5	1.5	0.6	38,458	2.6	30.0	66.4	1.1
Addis Ketema	29,990	0.9	23.7	72.1	2.3	0.9	37,306	12.1	22.2	65.3	0.4
Yeka	74,756	5.8	29.0	63.9	1.0	0.3	88,425	2.7	16.5	78.9	1.9
Bole	37,922	10.8	44.9	38.2	1.9	4.0	61,191	2.7	39.1	45.2	13.0
Health Centres											
Addis Ababa	587,777	3.1	25.8	66.8	3.6	0.7	672,013	2.6	31.5	62.5	3.3
Akaki Kality	40,596	6.7	14.8	77.4	1.2		54,743	0.6	57.2	40.2	2.1
Nefas Silk Lafto	84,065	1.5	12.7	75.9	9.0	0.8	88,990	0.6	15.9	81.8	1.6
Kolfe Keraniyo	93,041	2.0	20.2	74.4	2.0	1.3	104,054	2.6	26.4	68.9	2.0
Gulele	40,936	0.8	22.4	69.6	6.8	0.4	60,208	0.9	34.6	62.0	2.5
Lideta	39,439	2.5	18.1	70.9	8.0	0.6	50,536	8.4	44.4	43.3	4.0
Kirkos	52,231	3.5	46.0	48.5	1.2	0.9	45,490	1.4	36.9	57.2	4.4
Arada	42,861	0.6	32.3	65.8	1.2		40,081	1.8	33.2	64.6	0.4
Addis Ketema	33,330	0.9	34.0	63.5	0.8	0.8	50,288	7.1	24.1	68.5	0.3
Yeka	95,033	5.2	27.6	64.8	2.1	0.2	97,664	1.8	24.4	72.6	1.2
Bole	66,244	5.6	36.6	53.3	3.2	1.2	79,959	3.4	37.2	46.5	12.9

7.3 Housing

7.3.1 Types of Housing Tenure

Despite building condominium housing and distributing to residents, the proportion of households living in owned houses has increased only from 33.4% in 2011 to 37.3% in 2015. Still three-fifth (60.6%) of the respondents of the survey said that they are living in rented houses. Over 50% of the respondents are currently living in owned houses only in Yeka sub city followed by Akaki Kality (48.6%), Bole (44.2%), Nefas Silk Lafto (43.1%) and Kolfe Karaniyo (43.0%) (Table 7.10), and these are sub-cities where the constructed condominium houses have already been distributed to residents. About three-fourth of the residents in Addis Ketema (83.2%), Arada (78.7%), Kirkos (77.3%) and Lideta (73.5%) are still living in rented houses. These sub-cities are actually located in the inner side of the city where residents are currently relocated to other places to renovate the city.

Qualitative information gathered through in-depth interviews and FGDs also reveal that although condominium houses are given to the poor to improve their living standards, a number of the housing units have been sold off since the down payment is unaffordable for low income earners given the increased cost of living in the city from time to time. In addition, the study noted that only a smaller proportion of the condominium house owners are currently residing in owned houses as renting out to gain more income is commonly practiced among residents of the City irrespective of residential location.

Table 7.10: Percentage Distribution of Households by type of Tenure and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Number of cases	Owned	Rented	Others	Number of cases	Owned	Rented	Others
Addis Ababa	729,664	33.4	64.5	2.2	818,770	37.3	60.6	2.1
Akaki Kality	50,674	38.0	59.9	2.1	61,718	48.6	50.6	0.8
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	36.9	61.1	2.0	110,896	43.1	54.9	2.0
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	44.0	52.1	4.0	127,934	43.0	54.0	3.1
Gulele	64,528	37.4	60.8	1.8	70,903	34.6	64.4	1.0
Lideta	46,571	19.0	79.2	1.8	52,037	23.7	73.5	2.8
Kirkos	62,242	25.7	72.8	1.6	64,708	20.4	77.3	2.3
Arada	52,364	17.7	78.9	3.3	55,518	19.2	78.7	2.1
Addis Ketema	56,902	27.6	72.1	0.2	60,414	14.0	83.2	2.8
Yeka	109,101	35.7	63.6	0.6	111,615	52.1	46.4	1.5
Bole	86,094	33.9	62.5	3.6	103,028	44.2	53.5	2.4

7.3.2 Number of Rooms

As shown in Table 7.11, residents of the City are still living in congestion as the proportion of households living in single room has declined from 37.6% in 2011 to only 33.3% in 2015 and the proportion of occupants of 2 rooms is nearly the same during 2011 and 2015. Slight change has, however, been observed among occupants of 3 and 4 rooms that has shown changes of some percentage points. Considerable decline in occupants of single room is, nonetheless, observed among residents of Nefas Silk Lafto (from 50.6% in 2011 to 34.4% in 2015), Bole (from 43.1% in 2011 to 36.3% in 2015) and in Yeka (from 34.9% in 2011 to 29.8% in 2015) sub-cities (Table 7.11). Progressive change had also been observed among occupants of 2 rooms in the above mentioned sub-cities. Distributing the newly built condominium houses to some residents of the City seems to have positive effect in reducing congestion rate in some part of Addis Ababa though not in all of the sub-cities.

Table 7.11: Percentage Distribution of Households by Number of Rooms of a Dwelling Unit and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011							2015						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7+	1	2	3	4	5	6.00	7+
Addis Ababa	37.6	28.5	17.8	7.8	4.0	1.7	2.6	33.3	28.6	21.9	9.4	4.0	1.3	1.4
Akaki Kality	39.1	26.2	18.9	8.2	4.1	1.7	1.9	32.8	32.7	25.2	6.4	2.2	0.9	
Nefas Silk Lafto	50.6	25.0	13.2	3.9	3.1	1.4	2.7	34.4	20.8	24.8	12.5	3.7	2.4	1.4
Kolfe Keraniyo	38.2	23.1	20.5	9.6	4.7	2.0	2.1	36.0	24.3	23.8	7.5	4.8	1.1	2.6
Gulele	25.8	32.9	26.5	8.2	4.7	0.8	1.0	27.5	36.7	20.2	7.6	3.9	2.1	2.1
Lideta	30.9	41.8	16.9	5.0	3.1	1.0	1.3	30.1	36.2	20.6	10.0	1.5	0.8	0.8
Kirkos	34.2	27.3	18.7	7.0	5.0	2.7	5.0	42.7	33.9	15.8	4.3	1.3	0.6	1.4
Arada	32.4	36.5	19.9	6.1	2.8	1.8	0.5	26.9	38.1	25.2	5.0	2.6	0.8	1.4
Addis Ketema	37.5	34.7	17.0	5.4	3.1	1.5	1.0	32.3	43.5	13.4	7.4	1.9	0.5	1.0
Yeka	34.9	28.1	14.7	11.0	4.3	2.3	4.7	29.8	21.9	25.0	14.4	6.2	1.3	1.3
Bole	43.1	22.8	15.6	9.6	4.2	1.7	2.9	36.3	20.9	20.4	12.7	7.1	1.3	1.3

7.3.3 Construction Material of Wall

Results of the quantitative survey prevail that about three-fourth of the households in Addis Ababa are living in slum houses built of wood mud and stone. Households living in houses built of cement, stone, block and brick are still under a quarter (only 22.8%). Much improvement in building residential houses from durable materials is observed in Akaki Kality Sub-city where the change is from 11.3% in 2011 to 49.2% in 2015 to be followed by Bole Sub-City as the change goes from 28.0% in 2011 to 35.5% in 2015 (Table 7.12). Worst situation is still observed in Addis Ketma and Gulele sub-cities where about 90% of the households are still living in houses built of stone, wood and mud.

Table 7.12: Percentage Distribution of Households by Construction Material of Wall in a Dwelling Unit and Sub City - Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Number of cases	Wood, mud and stone	Cement, Stone, Block and Brick	Others	Number of cases	Wood, mud and stone	Cement, Stone, Block and Brick	Others
Addis Ababa	729,664	77.0	20.3	2.8	818,770	74.9	22.8	2.3
Akaki Kality	50,674	82.9	11.3	5.8	61,718	49.2	49.2	1.5
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	69.5	28.6	1.9	110,896	74.9	22.5	2.6
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	72.1	26.0	1.9	127,934	73.2	24.2	2.6
Gulele	64,528	91.3	7.1	1.5	70,903	89.9	9.9	0.3
Lideta	46,571	86.8	9.9	3.4	52,037	70.7	27.2	2.1
Kirkos	62,242	69.2	24.9	5.9	64,708	82.2	14.3	3.5
Arada	52,364	82.2	15.5	2.3	55,518	82.8	14.3	2.9
Addis Ketema	56,902	83.9	12.9	3.2	60,414	91.6	7.1	1.3
Yeka	109,101	76.7	21.3	2.0	111,615	76.3	19.1	4.5
Bole	86,094	69.6	28.0	2.5	103,028	63.7	35.5	0.8

7.3.4 Construction Material of Floor

According to Table 7.13, there is significant improvement in the construction material of floor of the houses in which the respondents were living in in 2011 and 2015. The proportion of households living in houses with bamboo/reed, wood or parquet had reduced from 55.5% in 2011 to 3.8% in 2015. On the contrary, proportion of households living in cement screed floor had increased from 2.6% in 2011 to 54.8% in 2015, showing a radical change probably due to the wider availability of locally produced cement in recent days. Households living in floor made up of tiles, cement brick, ceramic and marble has also increased from 3.9% in 2011 to 12.2% in 2015. Similar trends were more or less observed in each of the sub-cities although 46.4% of residents in Gulele sub-city are still living in houses having wood/dung floor to be followed by those in Yeka (33.8%) and Kirkos, Arada and Addis Ketma, each constituting about 30% of the floor made up of wood/dung (Table 7.13).

Table 7.13: Percentage Distribution of Households by Construction Material of Floor in a Dwelling Unit and Sub City - Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015				
	Wood/ Dung	Bamboo/ Reed, Wood, Parquet	Cement Screed	Tiles, Cement Brick, Ceramic, marble	Wood/ Dung	Bamboo/ Reed, Wood, Parquet	Cement Screed	Tiles, Cement Brick, Ceramic, marble	Others
Addis Ababa	38.0	55.5	2.6	3.9	28.4	3.8	54.8	12.2	0.7
Akaki Kality	48.6	48.3	0.2	2.8	13.2	1.6	63.4	21.3	0.5
Nefas Silk Lafto	41.4	53.7	2.5	2.4	23.9	3.8	57.0	14.8	0.5
Kolfe Keraniyo	41.2	52.5	2.3	4.0	32.1	1.1	52.9	10.2	3.8
Gulele	38.5	53.1	6.3	2.2	46.4	3.4	41.9	8.3	
Lideta	30.0	66.9	0.8	2.3	22.8	7.7	48.2	20.8	0.5
Kirkos	18.2	69.8	3.4	8.6	30.9	7.9	54.3	6.9	
Arada	27.1	66.9	0.8	5.2	30.9	7.3	55.2	6.7	
Addis Ketema	36.6	57.3	0.5	5.6	30.4	5.8	50.4	13.4	
Yeka	42.9	55.1	0.8	1.2	33.8	2.9	47.2	16.1	
Bole	44.1	42.8	7.0	6.0	18.4	2.1	73.0	6.5	

7.3.5 Type of Toilet Facilities

Distribution of households by type of toilet facilities has not shown much change between 2011 and 2015 at the city level. Only the proportion of households defecating in open air has reduced from 5.3% in 2011 to 1.8% in 2015. Use of flash toilet is still limited to about a quarter of the households in the city whilst use of pit latrine accounted to nearly three-fourth of them (Table 7.14). Access to flash toilet has, however, increased from 9.3% in 2011 to 26.9% in 2015 in Akaki Kality and from 8.8% in 2011 to 22.8% in Lideta Sub-cities. Production of sanitary materials locally since recently

seem to improve residents access to some of the toilet facility equipment at reasonable and affordable prices.

Table 7.14: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Toilet Facility and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Number of cases	Flash Toilet	Pit Latrine	Others	Number of cases	Flash Toilet	Pit Latrine	Others
Addis Ababa	729,664	26.4	68.3	5.3	818,770	24.7	73.6	1.8
Akaki Kality	50,674	9.3	82.0	8.8	61,718	26.9	72.6	0.5
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	35.2	59.5	5.4	110,896	32.4	67.3	0.3
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	23.3	73.9	2.8	127,934	21.0	77.6	1.3
Gulele	64,528	10.4	83.7	5.8	70,903	6.5	89.9	3.6
Lideta	46,571	8.8	87.3	3.9	52,037	22.8	75.9	1.3
Kirkos	62,242	39.3	58.1	2.6	64,708	30.4	69.3	0.2
Arada	52,364	35.9	61.9	2.3	55,518	38.3	59.3	2.3
Addis Ketema	56,902	18.4	78.6	2.9	60,414	17.4	82.6	0.0
Yeka	109,101	25.8	65.6	8.6	111,615	16.4	78.1	5.5
Bole	86,094	43.4	48.8	7.9	103,028	35.1	63.6	1.3

7.3.6 Type of Kitchen

As shown in Table 7.15, about a quarter of the sampled households in the city do not have kitchen at all. At the moment about a third of the households living in Nefas Silk Lafto (32.0%), Addis Ketema (30.1%) and Yeka (29.9%) do not have kitchen while the proportion of sampled households that do not have kitchen rose up to 46.2% in Kirkos Sub-city. On the other hand, the proportions of households that use traditional kitchen have, of course, declined from 60.4% in 2011 to 50.2% in 2015. Use of modern kitchen is, however, still under 10.0% of the sampled households. Looking at the data across sub-cities reveal that use of traditional kitchen has decreased in Akaki Kality (from 75.2% in 2011 to 55.7% in 2015), Gulele (from 85.1% in 2011 to 67.3% in 2015), Addis Ketema (from 68.6% in 2011 to 30.1% in 2015) and Bole (from 60.8% in 2011 to 39.5% in 2015) sub-cities. Results of the qualitative data also show that condominium houses have got most of the necessary facilities including modern kitchen, flash toilet, privately owned tap water source and the like.

Table 7.15: Percentage Distribution of Household by Type of Kitchen by Sub-city in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2,011					2,015				
	No Kitchen	A room used for traditional kitchen inside the house	A room used for traditional kitchen outside the house	A room used for modern kitchen inside the house	A room used for modern kitchen outside the hose	No Kitchen	A room used for traditional kitchen inside the house	A room used for traditional kitchen outside the house	A room used for modern kitchen inside the house	A room used for modern kitchen outside the house
Addis Ababa	22.2	6.5	60.4	6.4	4.6	27.1	7.6	50.2	9.5	5.6
Akaki Kality	16.2	3.8	75.2	4.2	0.5	22.6	7.4	55.7	8.1	6.2
Nefas Silk Lafto	30.7	14.7	47.6	4.7	2.3	32.0	9.2	49.7	6.1	3.1
Kolfe Keraniyo	17.0	2.6	69.4	8.3	2.7	20.5	8.5	58.5	6.2	6.3
Gulele	9.7	2.1	85.1	1.0	2.0	13.9	9.4	67.3	6.0	3.4
Lideta	38.1	3.7	52.0	4.7	1.6	20.2	3.9	44.3	11.3	20.2
Kirkos	21.5	8.5	52.2	14.9	2.9	46.2	3.9	42.2	6.4	1.3
Arada	36.5	3.5	41.0	2.9	16.0	22.7	8.3	46.1	21.5	1.4
Addis Ketema	18.5	4.1	68.6	8.3	0.5	30.1	6.5	46.3	8.1	9.0
Yeka	16.7	11.6	54.0	8.0	9.6	29.9	12.5	48.8	7.6	1.3
Bole	24.7	3.9	60.8	4.7	5.9	30.9	2.9	39.5	17.8	8.8

7.3.7 Mode of Kitchen Usage

As given in Table 7.16, the proportion of sampled households that use private/unshared kitchen has increased from 49.4% in 2011 to 60.7% in 2015 at the City Level. At the moment only 39.3% of the sampled households use shared kitchen with neighbourhoods. Although similar trend is observed across sub-cities, less than half (i.e. 47.8%) of the residents in Lideta Sub-city has private/unshared kitchen. The proportion of sampled households with private/unshared kitchen is 53.2% in Kirkos and 56.5% in Yeka Sub-cities at the moment. It is necessary to note that most of the residential houses in slum areas of the City do not have modern kitchen facilities, and cooking places are often shared among neighbourhoods.

Table 7.16: Percentage Distribution of Household by Kitchen Usage, and Sub City in Addis Ababa:2011 and 2015

	2011				2015		
	Number of cases	Shared	Private/ unshared	None/Not Stated	Number of cases	Shared	Private/ unshared
Addis Ababa	567,813	49.4	49.9	0.7	596,181	39.3	60.7
Akaki Kality	42,482	55.3	44.7		47,759	37.3	62.7
Nefas Silk Lafto	64,804	54.6	45.4		75,451	35.2	64.8
Kolfe Keraniyo	89,427	49.0	51.0		101,662	38.7	61.3
Gulele	58,245	51.6	48.4		60,730	43.2	56.8
Lideta	28,828	58.4	41.6		41,413	52.2	47.8
Kirkos	48,835	37.3	54.9	7.8	34,844	46.8	53.2
Arada	33,225	49.8	49.8	0.4	42,935	37.5	62.5
Addis Ketema	46,270	46.1	53.9		42,201	35.3	64.7
Yeka	90,849	45.4	54.6		78,017	43.5	56.5
Bole	64,847	51.4	48.6		71,170	30.0	70.0

7.3.8 Source of Drinking Water in Dry Season

The percentage distribution of households accessing drinking water during dry season from own tab has increased from 38.4% in 2011 to 54.4% in 2015 (Table 7.17). Much improvement in accessing drinking water from own tab is observed in Nefas Silk Lafto Sub-city where the change is from 22.2% in 2011 to 77.6% in 2015. This is partly be due to relocating a large number of City residents to condominium houses built in the Nefas Silk Lafto Sub-city in the past couple of years. Unlike this, modest change in access water from own tab is observed in Bole, Gulele, Kolfe Karaniyo and Yeka Sub-Cities. The percentages of households that access water from own tab is still less than 50% in the aforementioned sub-cities (Table 7.17). The percentage distribution of households that obtain water during dry season from public tab or shared with neighbourhoods has, however, declined from 61.0% in 2011 to 44.5% in 2015.

Table 7.17: Percentage Distribution of Households by Source of Drinking Water in Dry Season by Sub City - Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Number of cases	Own Tap	Public Tab/Shared	Others	Number of cases	Own Tap	Public Tab/ Shared	Others
Addis Ababa	729,664	38.4	61.0	0.6	818,770	54.4	44.5	1.1
Akaki Kality	50,674	36.4	63.6	0.0	61,718	56.9	41.9	1.3
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	22.2	77.3	0.6	110,896	71.6	27.9	0.5
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	32.5	67.1	0.5	127,934	47.8	52.0	0.2
Gulele	64,528	38.4	59.4	2.2	70,903	45.0	53.4	1.6
Lideta	46,571	42.2	57.6	0.3	52,037	57.6	42.2	0.2
Kirkos	62,242	49.8	49.9	0.2	64,708	54.8	45.0	0.2
Arada	52,364	53.0	45.8	1.3	55,518	64.8	33.6	1.5
Addis Ketema	56,902	56.0	44.0	0.0	60,414	61.4	38.3	0.3
Yeka	109,101	34.9	64.9	0.2	111,615	48.4	50.8	0.8
Bole	86,094	38.3	60.8	0.9	103,028	43.9	52.3	3.8

7.3.9 Source of Energy for Lighting

As shown in Table 7.18, the percentage distribution of households having obtained energy for lighting from privately owned electricity has shown slight change (from 58.0% in 2011 to 61.8% in 2015) at the City level. Although over 70% of the households in Arada, Lideta, Akaki Kality and Nefas Silk Lafto Sub-cities have access electricity owned privately, worthwhile change in accessing electricity privately was observed only in Nefas Silk Lafto Sub-city again partly due to wider access to condominium houses in the sub-city. According to qualitative data collected to triangulate the findings from statistical results, residents in the condominium houses have better access to facilities such as privately owned electricity as government have given such sector a priority. Access to

electricity ownership privately; in general, appear to remain the same among residents in Gulele, Kirkos, Yeka and Bole Sub-cities.

Table 7.18: Percentage Distribution of Households by Source of Energy for Lighting and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015.

	2011				2015			
Sub-City	Number of cases	Electricity Private	Electricity Shared	Others	Number of cases	Electricity Private	Electricity Shared	Others
Addis Ababa	729,664	58.0	40.4	1.62	818,770	61.8	36.7	1.5
Akaki Kality	50,674	49.7	48.9	1.38	61,718	55.2	44.3	0.5
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	42.1	57.4	0.48	110,896	72.3	26.9	0.8
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	49.0	50.4	0.53	127,934	49.5	46.6	4.0
Gulele	64,528	59.2	39.2	1.62	70,903	58.3	38.8	2.9
Lideta	46,571	75.0	24.5	0.52	52,037	72.6	26.4	1.0
Kirkos	62,242	69.8	30.0	0.24	64,708	63.4	34.8	1.8
Arada	52,364	74.0	24.4	1.52	55,518	83.0	15.9	1.0
Addis Ketema	56,902	75.4	24.6		60,414	72.4	27.1	0.5
Yeka	109,101	62.0	35.2	2.88	111,615	63.5	35.5	0.8
Bole	86,094	46.2	48.3	5.49	103,028	45.9	53.3	0.8

7.3.10 Source of Energy for Cooking

The percentage distribution of households currently using electricity as cooking fuel has increased from 17.8% in 2011 to 47.5% in 2015 (Table 7.19). On the contrary, use of wood/charcoal as cooking fuel has declined from 57.3% in 2011 to 43.3% in 2015. At the moment over 50% of residents using electricity as cooking fuel are found only in Lideta (64.4%), Akaki Kality (61.9%), Arada (52.5%) and Bole (51.3%) sub-cities. Unlike this, slightly over a third of households in Kolfe Karaniyo (36.4%) and less than a third of households in Addis Ketema (30.4%) sub-cities are using electricity as cooking fuel. For three-fifth of the households in Addis Ketma (62.5%) and half of the households in Kolfe Karaniyo (50.3%) sub-cities wood/charcoal is still serving as cooking fuel. The fact that a majority of the residents in the City are using wood/charcoal for cooking at the moment is a reflection of shortage of electric supply in Addis Ababa despite its wider contribution to reduce deforestation and accelerate environmental protection.

Table 7.19: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Cooking Fuel currently using and Sub City - Addis Ababa - 2011 and 2015

Sub-city	2011				2015			
	Number of cases	Wood/ Charcoal	Electricity	Others	Number of cases	Wood/ Charcoal	Electricity	Others
Addis Ababa	729,664	57.3	17.8	24.9	818,770	43.2	47.5	9.2
Akaki Kality	50,674	50.0	16.0	34.1	61,718	23.5	61.9	14.6
Nefas Silk Lafto	93,492	55.1	19.0	25.9	110,896	39.1	49.7	11.2
Kolfe Keraniyo	107,696	68.9	11.5	19.6	127,934	50.3	36.4	13.2
Gulele	64,528	75.1	14.2	10.7	70,903	43.0	46.9	10.2
Lideta	46,571	47.8	28.5	23.7	52,037	30.3	64.4	5.3
Kirkos	62,242	48.2	19.7	32.2	64,708	45.3	45.4	9.4
Arada	52,364	55.7	16.5	27.8	55,518	43.0	52.5	4.5
Addis Ketema	56,902	60.5	21.5	18.0	60,414	62.5	30.4	7.0
Yeka	109,101	53.4	25.3	21.3	111,615	46.2	47.2	6.6
Bole	86,094	51.7	19.8	28.5	103,028	41.9	51.3	6.8

7.3.11 Electric Power Failure/Interruption

As indicated in Table 7.20, electric power interruption is still a serious problem in Addis Ababa. Nearly two-fifth the sampled households complained that they faced electric power interruption more than three times in a week preceding the survey. Despite a slight change in the percentage points, the trend is nearly the same for most of the sub-cities. Exception to this, however, is Yeka Sub-City where interruption of electric power more than three times in the week preceding the survey had declined from 54.7% in 2011 to 21.8% in 2015; and Nefas Silk Lafto Sub-City where the repeated interruption had instead increased from 29.3% of the sampled households in 2011 to 55.9% in 2015 (Table 7.20).

Table 7.20: Percentage Distribution of Households by Frequency of Electric Power Failure/Interruption during a week and Sub City in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011						2015					
	No interruption	Once	Twice	Three times	More than three times	Not using/Not Stated	No interruption	Once	Twice	Three times	More than three times	Not using/Not Stated
Addis Ababa	12.0	12.7	19.6	14.8	40.8	0.0	9.0	17.8	20.7	15.6	36.9	0.0
Akaki Kality	4.5	13.7	15.0	15.3	51.5	0.0	4.7	16.8	12.8	12.4	53.3	0.0
Nefas Silk Lafto	12.2	22.6	20.2	15.8	29.3	0.0	4.5	9.9	13.4	16.2	55.9	0.0
Kolfe Keraniyo	7.9	9.3	26.3	13.4	43.2	0.0	5.5	17.2	25.5	22.6	29.2	0.0
Gulele	7.1	12.6	21.0	18.2	41.1	0.0	9.5	18.8	24.2	13.3	34.2	0.0
Lideta	9.6	8.1	17.4	14.9	49.8	0.3	8.0	27.7	24.9	20.3	19.2	0.0
Kirkos	32.1	14.9	17.5	16.1	19.4	0.0	12.5	29.0	22.5	15.9	20.1	0.0
Arada	19.5	6.5	18.2	16.7	39.1	0.0	12.0	17.0	15.9	14.5	40.6	0.0
Addis Ketema	12.3	9.7	14.2	9.5	54.3	0.0	1.6	1.5	11.3	15.6	69.9	0.0
Yeka	12.9	11.7	12.5	8.2	54.7	0.0	17.4	24.3	23.1	13.4	21.8	0.0
Bole	6.1	14.1	28.4	22.2	28.9	0.3	12.7	17.8	26.8	10.4	32.1	0.3

Results of the qualitative data have also shown that one of the serious complaints of the residents of Addis Ababa City is the intermittent disruption of electric power. According to such sources of information, interruption of power is creating serious trouble to bake injera in most of the households, operate small and heavy industries that need electric power supply and even run bars and cafeterias that are engaged in selling hot drinks.

It is interesting to note that the majority of the Addis Ababa residents (i.e. more than three-fifth of the sampled households) do not have fixed places to take bath. The percentage of households taking bath in shower had increased from 18.0% in 2011 to 24.1% in 2015, and those reserving a room for bath had also increased from 3.8% in 2011 to 9.3% in 2015 (Table 7.21). Although the trend is similar for most of the sub-cities, considerable change in having shower is observed in Akakai Kality (from 13.9% in 2011 to 35.2% in 2015), Nifas Silk Lafto (from 23.6% in 2011 to 35.3%) and Bole Sub-Cities (from 25.0% in 2011 to 45.1% in 2015).

Table 7.21: Percentage Distribution of Household by Type of Bathing Facility, Sub City - Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Bathtub	Shower	A room reserved	No fixed place	Bathtub	Shower	A room reserved	No fixed place
Addis Ababa	5.9	18.0	3.8	72.3	3.5	24.1	9.3	63.1
Akaki Kality	2.3	13.9	5.0	78.7	2.0	35.2	17.5	45.3
Nefas Silk Lafto	5.9	23.6	5.3	65.2	3.0	35.3	3.9	57.8
Kolfe Keraniyo	8.1	12.1	7.4	72.3	3.3	19.1	14.3	63.4
Gulele	18.0	15.8	4.5	61.7	1.8	10.7	1.3	86.2
Lideta	1.6	9.6	0.8	88.1	2.5	15.3	4.3	77.9
Kirkos	12.2	22.8	1.2	63.7	6.5	22.5	3.3	67.7
Arada	4.3	14.5	0.5	80.7	3.1	15.8	2.0	79.1
Addis Ketema	1.6	13.5	3.2	81.7	2.0	10.3	5.6	82.0
Yeka	1.9	21.8	3.7	72.7	3.2	18.4	21.5	56.9
Bole	2.8	25.0	2.4	69.8	6.4	45.1	8.6	39.9

7.4 Ownership of Durable Items

Information given in Table 7.22 reveals that at least half of the sampled households in the City claim to own households assets such as mobile phones, television, radio/tape recorder, chair/table, wardrobe, sofa set, electric stove, and electric mitad among others. Despite an increasing trend in the proportion of households owning the aforementioned items between 2011 and 2015, the change in percentage points vary across sub-cities and each of the specific items. For instance, it is amazing to observe that as a result of an increase in the possession of electric stove, there is a significant decrease in the proportion of those who owned kerosene stove in all of the sub-cities. A striking point is also the variation in the ownership of butane gas stove in the sub-cities where repeated

electric power interruption was reported by the majority of the respondents. Another interesting observation is the decline in the ownership of fixed telephone line as a result of wider accessibility of mobile phones, and the reduction in the proportion of sampled households owning power-saving *mitad* vis-à-vis electric *mitad*.

Table 7:22 Percentage Distribution of Household Who Own Asset by Type of Asset and Sub city in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

	Akaki Kality		Nefas Silk Lafto		Kolfe Keraniyo		Gulele		Lideta	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
Mobile telephone	83.6	91.2	89.6	90.1	89.3	94.0	85.0	93.0	89.3	90.3
Television	68.1	86.5	64.8	86.6	72.3	82.6	80.3	78.3	83.6	89.0
Radio/tape	77.9	81.9	73.3	76.2	76.4	67.9	85.6	76.5	75.4	68.6
Chair and table	59.7	73.5	35.3	69.7	45.6	46.5	73.5	62.7	39.2	66.6
Wadrobe	46.3	72.2	43.1	59.0	49.3	55.8	57.0	56.3	55.5	59.9
Sofa set	48.5	66.6	46.9	63.1	46.9	46.6	59.0	59.2	61.7	52.9
Electric stove	18.2	66.4	20.8	67.5	17.6	52.4	17.1	56.9	23.2	67.8
Mitad-electric	40.2	59.7	42.1	63.4	41.8	53.4	44.2	57.7	70.0	67.9
Jewels	51.8	51.3	36.0	48.5	28.7	46.4	57.6	37.3	42.8	30.7
Kerosene stove	51.8	34.6	76.3	10.7	45.7	24.4	28.9	12.6	73.2	10.4
Fixed line telephone	38.8	25.4	27.7	29.9	36.7	16.3	51.6	24.5	48.1	21.8
Butane gas stove	8.9	11.8	4.5	36.2	28.2	10.3	37.8	14.9	13.8	12.6
Mitad-power saving	10.0	10.0	11.5	18.5	4.5	5.7	20.3	6.3	7.0	4.5
Telephone- wireless	0.5	8.0	1.2	9.8	2.8	4.5	0.3	4.7	1.8	4.6
Number of cases	50,674	61,718	93,492	110,896	107,696	127,934	64,528	70,903	46,571	52,037

Table 7:22 Percentage Distribution of Household Who Own Asset by Type of Asset …. (cont'd)

	Kirkos		Arada		Addis Ketema		Yeka		Bole	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
Mobile telephone	91.5	87.6	91.0	92.9	88.0	93.0	90.4	92.7	90.1	91.1
Television	82.8	81.4	87.5	86.7	80.4	79.4	69.9	81.5	64.8	86.1
Radio/tape	81.3	69.5	88.4	85.0	82.2	75.3	81.3	74.1	79.7	71.8
Chair and table	63.1	53.1	46.4	61.7	69.0	70.2	55.7	49.0	57.0	55.7
Wadrobe	69.9	59.8	58.4	55.6	60.4	44.2	59.9	58.9	49.0	59.2
Sofa set	67.0	56.3	62.5	63.2	47.2	52.0	55.8	67.7	43.1	56.8
Electric stove	31.9	56.7	25.9	60.6	19.5	59.1	37.7	62.1	23.4	51.4
Mitad-electric	65.8	57.4	55.2	71.0	55.6	68.9	51.0	60.1	41.8	52.7
Jewels	50.2	27.6	39.3	38.3	28.0	25.7	38.8	22.9	42.2	37.4
Kerosene stove	67.1	5.7	39.9	16.0	43.7	16.9	58.5	12.1	83.9	12.5
Fixed line telephone	48.8	23.6	44.8	21.7	43.1	13.3	33.5	25.5	31.7	20.0
Butane gas stove	35.8	27.4	47.8	18.8	32.7	10.0	23.0	22.6	9.7	24.5
Mitad-power saving	7.3	2.8	5.3	5.6	1.9	6.2	7.4	4.1	6.1	5.2
Telephone- wireless	4.1	3.6	3.5	3.6	1.7	19.6	0.5	4.6	2.0	5.2
Number of cases	62,242	64,708	52,364	55,518	56,902	60,414	109,101	111,615	86,094	103,028

Chapter 8: Livelihood, Shocks, Coping Mechanisms and Food Shortages

8.1 Households' Sources of Livelihood

The source of livelihood for households is critical because it determines households' vulnerability and resilience**.** Such sources of livelihood could be related to capital endowments, and the livelihood strategies households choose to pursue. Figure 8.1 shows that the bulk of households earn their living from salaries as employed persons. This is true both in 2011 and 2015. Households could be employed both in private and government agencies. The fact that salaries form the main form of livelihood indicates that households earn a predictable income. Salaries however could be low putting individuals into problems. The figure shows other sources of livelihood are less important as they account for a very small proportion.

Remittance from relatives and friends (8.2%), wholes sale and retail trade in the formal sector (6.9%), renting of house and land (6.10%), casual labor/daily laborer (5.75%) , service trade in the formal sector (5.07%) are the next five important sources of livelihood in that order. The sources of household livelihood by sub-city are similar to that followed at city level (Table 8.1). In Gulele and Kolfe Kernanio however nearly 14% of the households earn livelihood from the informal manufacturing and construction sector and the formal whole sale and retail trade sector respectively. This is different from the city level picture with regard to these two types of activities.

Figure 8.1: Household distribution by sources of livelihood

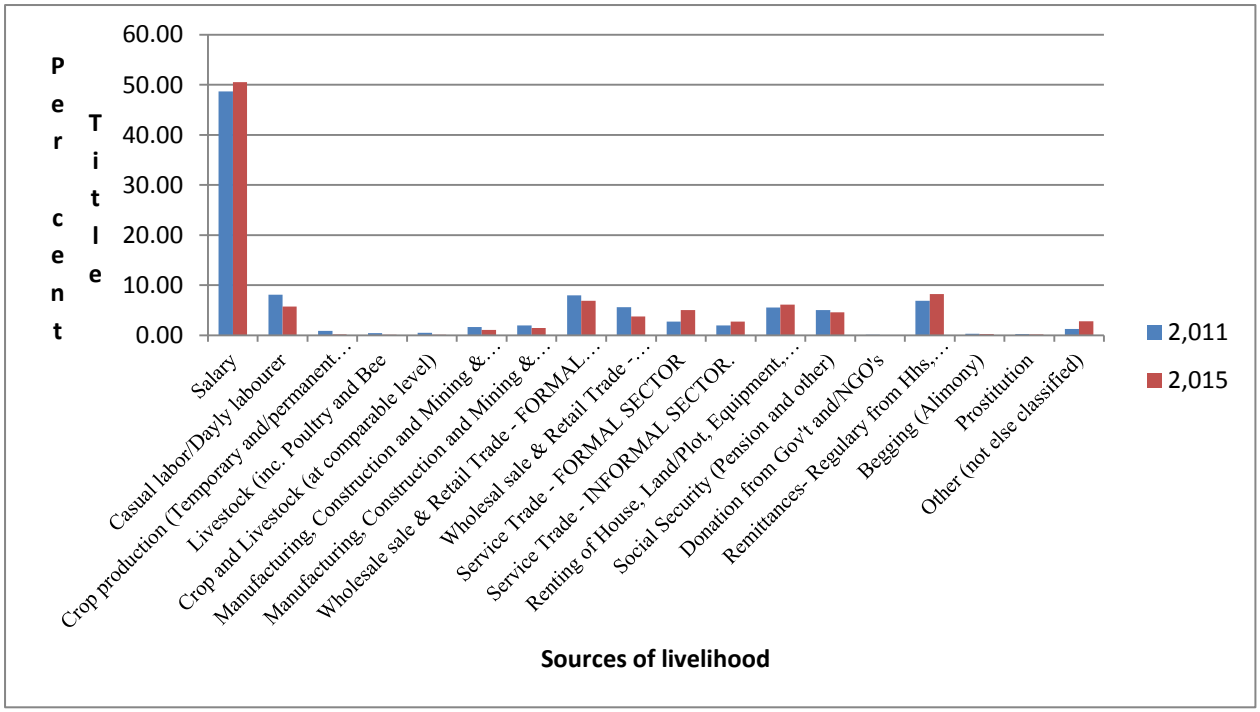


Table 8.1 Households livelihood by sub-city

	2015										
	AkakiKality	Nefas Silk Lafto	KolfeKeraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Addis Ababa
Salary	*60.2*	*58.4*	*35.8*	*42.96*	*54.06*	*55.47*	*59.51*	*38.37*	*55.63*	*51.59*	*50.52*
Casual labor/Daily laborer	*1.3*	*2.4*	*10.1*	*4.4*	*8.32*	*3.63*	*3.23*	*6.91*	*7.95*	*5.85*	*5.75*
Crop production (Temporary and/permanent crops)	*0.3*	*0.5*							*0.57*	*0.27*	*0.21*
Livestock (including Poultry and Bee			*0.3*	*0.3*				*0.26*	*0.32*		*0.13*
Crop and Livestock (at comparable level)	*0.8*						*0.27*			*0.56*	*0.15*
Manufacturing, Construction and Mining & Quarry Industry FORMAL	*0.8*	*1.0*	*0.5*	*3.4*	*0.58*	*0.50*	*0.51*	*0.25*	*0.50*	*2.39*	*1.07*
Manufacturing, Construction and Mining &Quarrying INFORMAL	*0.3*	*0.3*		*13.8*	*0.52*		*0.26*	*0.26*	*1.26*		*1.49*
Wholesale sale & Retail Trade - FORMAL SECTOR	*6.0*	*6.3*	*13.9*	*5.2*	*3.19*	*3.78*	*5.04*	*14.93*	*3.92*	*3.92*	*6.90*
Wholesale & Retail Trade - INFORMAL SECTOR	*3.9*	*2.9*	*4.7*	*2.87*	*3.64*	*4.47*	*2.08*	*5.62*	*2.50*	*4.74*	*3.75*
Service Trade - FORMAL SECTOR	*6.1*	*5.3*	*5.1*	*2.88*	*5.12*	*2.60*	*4.51*	*9.20*	*3.84*	*6.42*	*5.07*
Service Trade - INFORMAL SECTOR.	*2.3*	*3.9*	*3.3*	*4.44*	*1.26*	*1.01*	*2.37*	*2.90*	*0.84*	*3.72*	*2.72*
Renting of House, Land/Plot, Equipment, Machinery, Storage a	*5.6*	*7.3*	*9.3*	*7.01*	*3.79*	*4.26*	*2.80*	*4.62*	*5.85*	*5.75*	*6.10*
Social Security (Pension and other)	*3.7*	*3.1*	*4.6*	*3.39*	*3.57*	*8.94*	*7.29*	*4.62*	*3.39*	*5.34*	*4.61*
Donation from Gov't and/NGO's	*0.2*			*0.26*	*0.25*	*0.31*					*0.08*
Remittances- Regularly from Households, Family/Individuals	*7.1*	*7.5*	*7.4*	*5.99*	*10.02*	*8.92*	*11.03*	*9.86*	*9.44*	*7.37*	*8.24*
Begging (Alimony)		*0.3*				*0.77*		*0.58*	*0.75*		*0.24*
Prostitution		*0.3*				*1.51*				*0.26*	*0.19*
Other (not else classified)	*1.5*	*0.7*	*5.0*	*3.12*	*5.68*	*3.83*	*1.10*	*1.61*	*3.23*	*1.82*	*2.79*
N	*61,718*	*110,896*	*127,934*	*70,903*	*52,037*	*64,708*	*55,518*	*60,414*	*111,615*	*103028*	*818,770*

As an attempt to delve more into households' livelihoods strategies, households were asked whether they started own business, participated in MSEs or borrowed from micro finance institutions. The data presented in Table 8.2 show that the overwhelming majority (89.4%) did not start own business. It can, however, be seen that this percentage has declined compared to 2011 during which time those who did not own business formed nearly 95%. This is an indication that more people are now resorting to their own business. In 2015, about 7.1% of the households indicated that they have one household member who started own business and 2.0 % have two household members who started own business. On the other hand the overwhelming majority did not take loan nor have they participated in the micro and small enterprise activity. Both however are important strategies of livelihood particularly for those who are poor and cannot access loan from other financial institution.

Table 8.2: Distribution of households by number of family members who started own business, who received loan from micro finance and who participated in MSEs in Addis Ababa in 2011 and 2015

Number of family member	Households with family members who started own business last year		Households with family members who received loan from micro finance last year		Households with family members who participated in micro and small enterprises last year	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
None	95.1	89.4	96.6	98.7	96.9	98.4
1	4.3	7.1	3.2	1.0	3.0	1.4
2	0.3	2.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
3	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
4		0.1		0.0	0.0	
5	0.1	0.1	0.1		0.0	
6		0.0		0.0		
8	0.0	0.8		0.1	0.0	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100
N	729,664	818,770	729,664	818,770	729,664	818,770

8.2 Shocks and Coping Mechanisms

Households face different shocks due to different reasons. They can experience singly shocks or multiple shocks. Table 8.3 provides the proportion of households who faced any shock (one or multiple in the last 12 months). It can be seen that in total 33 % of the household in the city reported to have experienced any shock in the last 12 months. This proportion has grown significantly from 2011 which was only 16%. In some sub-cities such as Kolfe Keranio (49%), Kirkos (48%), Gulele (44%), there are more household reporting shocks.

Table 8.3 Proportion of Households who faced any shock in the last 12 Months

Sub-City	**2011**	**2015**
Akaki Kality	0.10	0.27
Nefas Silk Lafto	0.10	0.22
Kolfe Keraniyo	0.15	0.49
Gulele	0.13	0.44
Lideta	0.15	0.14
Kirkos	0.18	0.48
Arada	0.15	0.27
Addis Ketema	0.18	0.12
Yeka	0.21	0.38
Bole	0.22	0.32
Total	0.16	0.33

Table 8.3 indicates the number of shocks households faced in the last 12 months. In 2011, household faced shocks 12 times and this grew slightly to14 times in 2015. The shocks include death, illness, loss of jobs, shortage of food, drought, fire etc.

Table 8.4: Mean number of shocks households faced in 2011 and 2015

Sub city	2011	2015
Akaki Kality	7.32	9.08
Nefas Silk Lafto	11.67	16.49
Kolfe Keraniyo	8.59	7.06
Gulele	7.74	28.48
Lideta	26.82	34.24
Kirkos	10.88	9.17
Arada	11.88	3.37
Addis Ketema	5.37	5.33
Yeka	13.40	10.23
Bole	12.10	26.54
AA	11.71	14.51

Female headed households have faced more number of shocks than male headed households (table 8.5). In 2015, female headed households faced shocks fifteen times while male headed households faced shocks 14 times. This implies that females are slightly more vulnerable than males. The number of shocks, however, does not seem to vary significantly by levels of education as shown in Table 8.6.

Table 8.5: Number of shocks by gender of the household head

Sub City	2011		2015	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
AkakiKality	9.81	3.00	9.39	8.59
Nefas Silk Lafto	9.25	16.50	18.17	13.53
KolfeKeraniyo	8.77	7.80	6.65	7.67
Gulele	10.35	4.05	28.39	28.57
Lideta	37.65	17.74	34.11	34.37
Kirkos	11.27	10.42	8.05	10.24
Arada	21.63	3.10	3.75	2.96
Addis Ketema	3.52	6.59	6.30	3.95
Yeka	17.24	10.44	10.14	10.34
Bole	15.90	8.29	23.23	31.06
Addis Ababa	14.15	8.90	13.86	15.29

Table 8.6 Number of shocks by education of the head

	2011					2015				
	Illiterate	Primary School	Secondary School	Higher Education	Total	Illiterate	Primary School	Secondary School	Higher Education	Total
AkakiKality	9.31	1.86	9.31	3.40	7.32	10.42	8.79	7.39	10.69	9.08
Nefas Silk Lafto	18.83	13.44	9.07	2.29	11.67	13.75	8.25	16.67	20.86	16.49
KolfeKeraniyo	8.57	8.67	5.60	16.00	8.59	5.13	7.09	7.65	7.11	7.06
Gulele	4.79	4.00	9.88	11.42	7.74	30.10	31.02	33.82	16.11	28.48
Lideta	20.85	21.86	34.43	36.00	26.82	28.86	28.00	36.68	37.56	34.24
Kirkos	10.54	9.43	4.72	16.78	10.88	9.29	9.00	9.09	9.28	9.17
Arada	9.00	11.50	3.25	27.83	11.88	5.23	3.39	3.53	2.67	3.37
Addis Ketema	7.16	4.06	3.12	6.25	5.37	7.05	4.00	3.75	4.60	5.33
Yeka	16.05	24.27	8.65	9.14	13.40	11.03	8.75	9.59	11.18	10.23
Bole	5.50	13.30	13.00	20.64	12.10	28.00	28.93	30.16	22.00	26.54
Total	10.69	12.29	9.69	16.40	11.71	14.01	15.24	15.02	13.68	14.51

The incidence of shocks indicates that the most frequently sited shock type at city level is price rise of food items which was reported by nearly 29% of the households in 2015 (table 8.7). This has been also raised in the qualitative study as one of the major challenges faced by those who experience other types of shocks such as death, illness etc. Prise rise was not a major problem in 2011. Kirkos, Gulle and Kolfe are the ones with the highest proportion of households suffering from high price rise in 2015 (see appendix 8.1 and 8.2). The second most important shock reported by nearly 18% of the households is reduced drinking water. Illness, reduced income and shortage of food were also mentioned by 5%, 4.5% and 4.4% of household respectively. It is interesting to note that some shocks have been reported by less proportion of households in 2015 compared to 2011. In particular shortage of food is reported by less proportion of households (1.79%) in 2015 compared to 2011 (4.42%). While others such as reducing drinking water and price rise has been reported by a higher proportion of households in 2015 compared to 2011. These types of shocks are then the ones that need to be focused on when strategies are designed to reduce shocks.

Table 8.7: Incidence of shocks by type at city level

Type of shock	***2011***	***2015***
Death of HH members	1.61	0.55
Illness	5.18	5.64
Loss of jobs	2.46	0.89
Shortage of food	4.42	1.79
Drought	0.06	0.05
Fire	0.18	0.06
Theft/Robbery	0.96	0.77
Reduce income	4.52	4.17
Reduced drinking water quality	2.15	18.21
Price rise of food items	0.35	28.56
Others	0.66	0.37
N	729,664	818,770

One of the ways for households to cope with the shocks they are facing is to use their resources as a hedge against it. In this regard, households were asked whether they are able to raise about 275 birr in case of emergency in a week's time. About 53% of the households mentioned that they are able to raise the amount to meet the requirements for different emergencies (table 8.8). This is some improvement over the 2011 period during which time households were asked whether they were capable of raising 200 birr and only 47% mentioned in the positive. Despite the improvement, a little less than half were not able to raise 275 birr per week in 2015. This implies that a significant proportion of households have no means of coping with the shock by raising money for emergencies. The majority of households in both 2011 (25%) and 2015 (27%) have mentioned that they use own cash for the purpose. The second most important source is bank/saving (10.9%) followed by loans from relatives.

Table 8.8: Distribution of households capable of raising 200 birr in 2011 and 275 birr in 2015 within a week time for all contingencies by the source of money

Source of money	2011	2015
Sale of animal-animal product	0.3	0.1
Sale of crops	0.2	0.1
Sale of forest products	0.0	0.1
Own cash	25.4	26.5
Bank/saving	5.5	10.9
Equb	0.2	0.6
Edir	0.1	0.2
Loan from bank or other institutions	0.7	1.0
Loan from relatives	8.1	7.9
Gifts from relatives	2.0	2.8
Loan from non-relatives	3.2	2.0
Gifts from non- relatives	0.2	0.4
Sale of HH assets	0.2	0.0
Sale of personal item	0.1	0.1
Other	0.7	0.3
Not Stated	0.1	
Total	47.0	53.0
N	729664	818770

Households were asked to give their perception regarding their general living condition in comparison to the last 12 months. It appears that the majority of households (23%) indicated no change in their living condition (table 8.9). About 17% mentioned that living condition now is worse or worst now than before. This however is an improvement compared to 27.9 % who provided the same answer in 2011. On the other hand those who felt that it is now better or is best are 9.3% compared 6.6% in 2011.

Table 8.9: Distribution of households by status of change in the household general living condition in the past 12 months

	AkakiKality	Nefas Silk Lafto	KolfeKeraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	AA
2011											
Worst now	8.8	5.3	12.2	10.8	11.9	7.2	2.0	8.9	13.7	14.0	9.5
Worse now	23.0	13.3	22.4	13.3	18.3	20.0	15.0	17.8	23.2	17.6	18.4
Same	11.1	24.9	7.7	21.0	12.5	14.5	25.8	13.9	7.7	13.3	15.2
Better now	6.1	6.1	7.1	4.7	6.5	6.5	7.1	7.9	5.2	4.8	6.2
Best now	0.9	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.1	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.4
Not relevant		0.4	0.1			0.3	0.1			0.1	0.1
Not Stated	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.1	1.3	0.4			0.3
N	50674	93492	107696	64528	46571	62242	52364	56902	109101	86094	729664
2015											
Worst now	6.4	15.7	5.0	2.5	4.6	8.5	7.4	4.7	2.6	5.6	6.3
Worse now	8.8	8.4	11.4	8.0	12.3	11.6	11.0	18.5	6.3	10.7	10.7
Same	30.5	13.4	17.9	30.3	23.8	18.2	21.7	20.8	29.2	25.0	23.1
Better now	4.1	6.5	13.6	9.0	8.7	11.9	6.8	5.3	9.7	6.7	8.2
Best now	0.1	2.1	1.8		0.5	0.7	1.3	0.7	2.0	1.7	1.1
Not relevant		3.3				0.1	0.1		0.1	0.1	0.4
N	61718	110896	127934	70903	52037	64708	55518	60414	111615	103028	818770

8.3 Food Shortage

Households who suffered from food shortage in the last 12 months have dramatically decreased in the last five years. At city level, the proportion of households decreased from 8.22 per cent to 3.62 per cent (figure 8.2). This is also true for all sub-cities. At sub-city level, Lideta has the smallest proportion (1.53%) of households suffering from food shortage in 2015 while Kirkos has the highest proportion of households with food shortage (6.41%). In fact Kirkos is also a sub city with the smallest improvement between 2011 and 2015.

In 2015, a little over one third (34%) of households who suffer from food shortage reported that they suffer from shortage for less than one-month and 38% suffer for 2- 3months (table 8.10). This is slightly higher compared to 2011 during which time those with less than one month food shortage were 33% and those with 2-3 months food shortage were 24%. In 2015, at sub-city level, those with the highest proportion of people with 2-3 food shortage are found in Guele (71%) and KolfeKeranio (55%). The average number of months of food shortage which was 3.8 months at city level in 2011 declined to 3.4 month in 2015.

Fig 8.2 Proportion of household who reported food shortage in the last 12 months

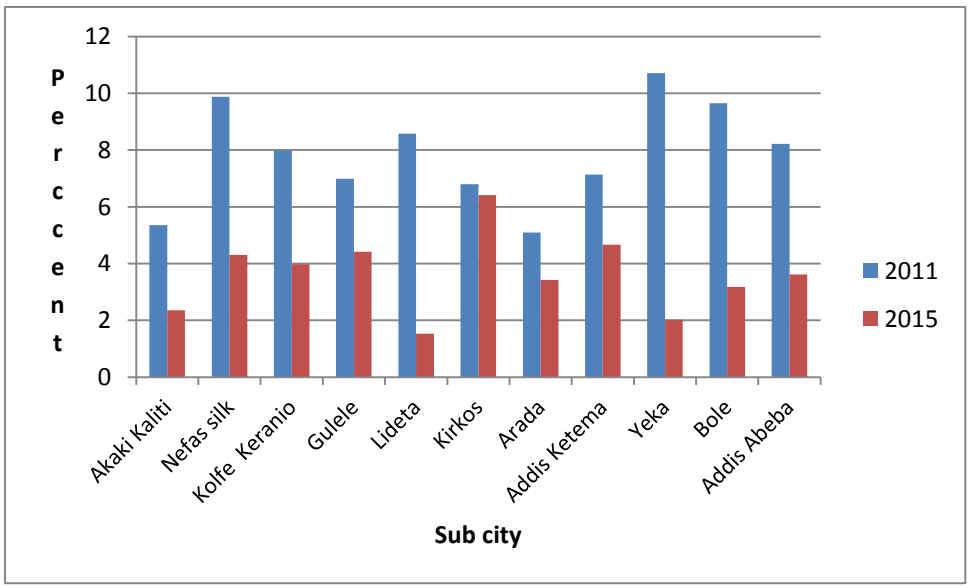


Table 8.10: Proportion of households by number of months of food shortage in the last 12 months

Year	Number of moths	Akakikaliti	Nefas silk	Kolfe Keranio	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	AA
2011	Up to 1 months	31.1	42.8	38.9	25.3	42.6	36.4	70.2	38.5	9.8	28.9	32.5
	2-3 months	34.8	26.9	19.2	21.6	15.1	41.9	19.9	30.9	22.5	19.8	24.2
	4-6 months		2.3	11.5	3.6	12.1	17.9	5.0	13.6	29.2	23.7	14.4
	7-9 months		17.2	2.9	18.2		3.9		10.2	11.1	9.8	8.9
	10-12 months	10.4	6.2	15.1		12.1			6.8	27.3	12.2	11.9
	Not stated	23.7	4.6	12.5	31.3	18.1		5.0			5.6	8.1
	Average no of months with food shortage	2.91	3.20	3.53	3.53	2.95	2.16	0.84	3.25	6.13	4.27	3.83
2015	Up to 1 months	54.5	69.8	32.5	11.7	34.1	7.8	24.2	38.6	25.5	40.5	34.4
	2-3 months	32.5	24.2	54.9	70.7		24.4	46.1	22.5	49.8	25.9	37.6
	4-6 months				5.9			14.9	16.4		8.1	4.0
	7-9 months						3.9				8.2	1.5
	10-12 months			6.3	5.8		56.0	14.9	5.5	24.7	8.6	13.8
	Not stated	13.0	6.1	6.3	5.9	65.9	7.8		17.1		8.6	8.8
	Average no of months with food shortage	1.50	1.39	2.63	2.87	0.00	8.38	3.84	2.72	3.96	3.15	3.44

8.4 Perception on the State of Food Security

Figures 8.3 and 8.4 show people's perception on their state of food security by comparing the situations one year and five years ago. Those who have mentioned that their food status now is better than one year ago are higher in 2015 (20.2%) compared to those who replied the same in the year 2011 (10%). Similarly, in 2015 those who mentioned that their food status is now much better

compared to one year ago (9.1%) are much higher than those with the same response in 2011 (0.9%). People were also asked to compare their food status five years ago both in 2015 and 2011. Those who mentioned their food status was better or much better are higher in 2015 compared to those in 2011. It is however interesting to note that those who saw no change in their food status in 2015 in comparison to one year ago (54%) and in comparison to five years ago (35%) are much higher than those who reported the same food status in the year 2011.

Fig 8.3: Perception on State of food security in 2011 and 2015 in Addis Ababa in comparison to one year ago

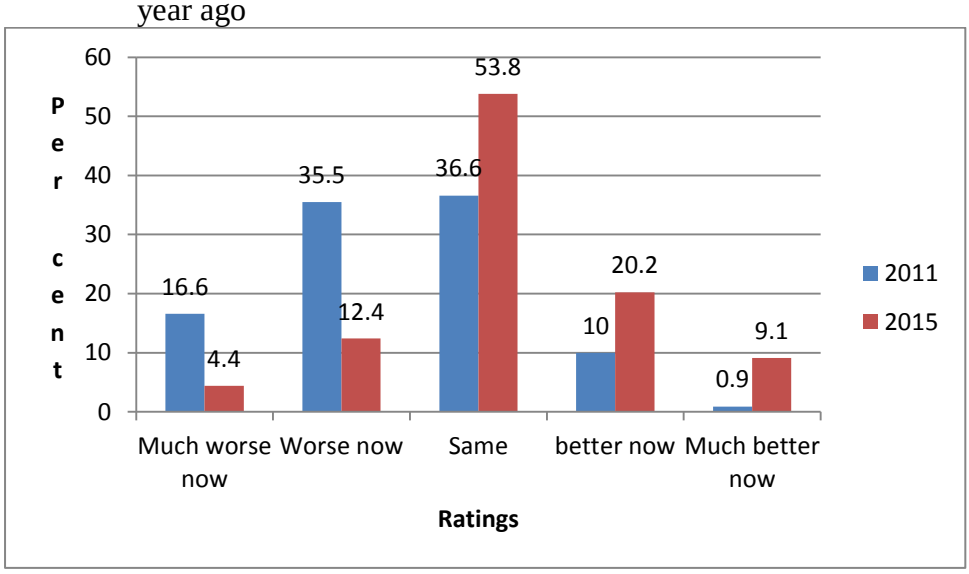


Fig 8.4: Perception on State of food security in 2011 and 2015 in AA in comparison to five years ago

Chapter 9: Levels and Patterns of Good Governance

Governance is known to affect every sector of development. It is therefore important to improve governance in order to speed up poverty reduction and bring about economic growth. There are several indicators of good governance. The following looks at institutional effectiveness and accountability, service coverage and quality, justice and rule of law

9.1 Institutional Effectiveness and Accountability

Good governance entails institutional effectiveness and accountability of the public administrative system that includes the executive, the legislative, and the judiciary. In other words it means the three branches operate in accordance to the provision and mandate of a democratically constructed constitution. Institutional effectiveness also implies that the politicians behave in an accountable and transparent manner and are inclusive

Governments make different types of decisions that affect the lives of different individuals. Individuals and households in turn attempt to make their opinion reach policy makers and affect their decisions. There are different ways by which the public ensures that their suggestions are incorporated in government decisions. These include contacting policy makers, signing petitions, arranging for lobby group etc. On the part of the office holders, accountability and responsiveness can be measured by the extent to which the government takes suggestions from the public into account in making decisions that affect its life.

In this regard, households were asked their perception regarding the extent to which their suggestions are incorporated in the decisions made by governments. About 41% believe that government considers their suggestions sometimes while about 24% believe that government does consider their suggestion usually or always (table 9.1). On the other hand a little over one-third or 35.1% believe that government rarely considers their suggestions. The figures indicate that it is only one-quarter or nearly 25% which replied positively. This point out that office holders need to consider the public decision more carefully in order to ensure accountability and responsiveness.

Table 9.1: Distribution of households expressing government consideration of individual's suggestions into account in making decisions

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	KolfeKeraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Always	7.9	3.6	5.2	0.5	4.1	2.0	6.7	6.4	2.1	1.1	3.7
Usually	24.3	15.6	15.7	16.1	33.3	27.5	22.9	25.9	23.7	9.4	20.0
Sometimes	31.0	43.1	36.5	40.6	36.4	42.7	36.9	28.7	46.2	56.6	41.1
Rarely	28.4	29.3	28.7	28.2	25.8	22.2	20.2	32.1	25.0	26.9	26.9
Never	8.4	8.3	14.0	14.6	0.5	5.6	13.4	6.4	3.1	5.7	8.2
Not stated		0.2						0.5		0.3	0.1
Total	61,718	110,896	127,934	70903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

As part of ensuring responsiveness, people's representative must reflect and keep the interests of the public. This needs to be ensured both at local, city and national level. At local level, 35% of the respondents mentioned that people's representative keep the interest of the local people well or very well (table 9.2). At city level, this is slightly raised to 40% (table 9.3) while at national level the figure is nearly 39% (table 9.4). At all levels therefore slightly above one-third of the people believe that peoples' representative or public officials keep people's interest adequately. On the other hand 17 % at local level and 12 % both at city and national levels believe that public officials represent their interest badly or very badly. This is an indication that there is less responsiveness at local level than at city and national level. Local officials should therefore work towards improving their responsiveness. It appears that the majority of people at different levels, local (48.5%), city level (48.9%), and national (50%) believe that public officials keep their interests moderately. Such responses obviously indicate that there is room for improvement regarding the responsiveness of public officials at different levels.

Table 9.2: Distribution of households stating the level of local representatives looking after their interests at local level

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Well	6.6	2.8	3.0		4.4	2.5	5.4	1.5	0.3	1.3	2.5
Well	33.9	30.3	30.5	20.6	36.1	45.6	24.9	34.5	37.9	28.4	32.1
Moderately	47.0	53.8	50.8	52.9	46.9	35.1	36.8	33.0	54.4	55.9	48.5
Badly	7.5	6.2	5.0	15.1	9.0	11.6	13.1	17.3	5.6	8.9	9.0
Very Badly	2.1	2.9	3.3	7.0	2.1	3.9	8.3	9.7	0.8	3.2	3.9
Useless	2.6	3.6	7.4	4.4	0.8	1.3	11.5	3.8	0.8	2.3	3.8
Not stated	0.3	0.3			0.8			0.3	0.3		0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.3: Distribution of households stating the level of local representatives looking after their interests at city local level

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Well	9.1	2.8	5.1	0.3	4.1	4.0	3.3	2.8	1.3	2.3	3.4
Well	36.9	42.1	34.6	26.3	40.8	46.5	27.8	36.2	41.5	28.6	36.2
Moderately	49.0	45.8	51.5	49.8	45.6	37.3	44.6	39.4	53.7	59.1	48.8
Badly	3.8	7.2	6.3	20.6	9.0	9.7	14.6	18.9	3.5	9.3	9.4
Very Badly	1.3	1.5	2.4	2.9	0.5	2.5	8.7	2.2		0.8	2.0
Not stated		0.5		0.3			1.0	0.5			0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.4 : Distribution of households stating the level of local representatives looking after their interests at national level

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Well	7.7	1.8	5.1	0.5	3.8	3.2	3.3	3.9	1.1	2.6	3.1
Well	33.3	31.2	35.3	28.4	48.8	44.6	22.9	36.5	43.3	31.1	35.4
Moderately	52.7	59.3	50.4	49.0	37.9	39.2	46.9	37.1	51.6	57.8	49.9
Badly	4.2	5.1	5.7	17.7	8.5	10.1	16.1	20.2	3.8	7.4	8.8
Very Badly	2.1	1.5	3.5	4.2	1.0	2.0	10.7	1.8		1.0	2.5
Not stated		1.0		0.3		0.8		0.5	0.3		0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.5 provides households' perception regarding the performance of the national government and the parliament. About 42% of the households believe that the government's performance is good or very good while another 42% rated government's performance as fair. Those who are not happy with the government's performance form nearly 16 %. Similarly 40% of the households believe that the national parliament's performance is good or very good. Those who are not satisfied with the parliament performance are about 17%. The fact that the majority of households rated both the government's and parliament's performance as being only fair is indicative of the need to improve the situation.

Table 9.5: Proportion of households rating the performance of national government and the parliament

	Government's performance	Parliament's performance
Very Good	5.6	4.3
Good	36.5	35.8
Fair	41.8	42.4
Poor	13.8	15.1
Very Poor	2.3	2.2
Not stated	0.1	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0
Households	818,770	818,770

9.2 Service Coverage and Quality

One of the end results of good governance is to deliver public services in an effective and efficient manner and respond to the needs of the poor. Efficient delivery of services entails proper usage of public fund and response to the needs of the poor. At city level some of the critical services provided include education, health, housing, employment, roads and solid waste.

9.2.1 Access to health

Health ensures the wellbeing of individuals and forms part of the basic needs of society. The ease of distance to reach such facilities is one indicator of access to such facilities. Table 9.6 shows that 73% of the households mentioned that it is easy or very easy to reach the nearest government owned clinic. Lideta (51.7%), Bole (60.3%), Nifas silk Lafto (65.3%), Arada (63.2%) however possess households who reported less than the city average in term of ease of access to the nearest government clinic. The remaining mentioned that it is not so easy or it is difficult.

About half or 50.2 % of the household believe that the quality of the government health service is good or very good (table 9.7). The other half however rated it as being fair or less than fair. The fact that half of the respondents are not satisfied with the quality of the health service is an indication that the government health facilities need to focus on improving their quality. The cost of health services is one consideration that determines the affordability of services. Those who mentioned that it is not costly (30.1%) is less than those who reported the service to be fairly costly (34%) and costly (29%) (table 9.8) . This indicates that two-third of the households are inclined towards rating health services as costly. Despite this however it is interesting to note that the overwhelming majority (86%) of households were never denied a letter of support from kebele in order to get free

medication due to inability to pay (table 9.9) . This is very encouraging in that the health services in the city are very accessible to the poor since it is not difficult to get free medical access if needed.

Table 9.6: Distribution of households stating the ease of access to the nearest government owned clinic

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Easy	17.2	11.2	16.6	9.4	5.1	16.4	7.2	18.6	7.7	11.0	12.1
Easy	58.6	54.1	62.5	77.1	46.6	74.7	56.0	65.2	65.7	49.3	60.8
Not so Easy	15.7	31.6	13.7	12.2	20.2	6.6	24.6	10.1	20.2	32.1	19.7
Difficult	8.2	2.4	6.1	1.3	27.8	1.0	5.6	5.1	6.3	6.6	6.3
Very Difficult	0.3	0.8	1.1		0.3	1.3	5.9	1.0		0.8	1.0
Not stated							0.8			0.3	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.7: Distribution of households stating the quality of the government health services

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Good	7.1	7.5	11.4	0.5	4.6	13.3	5.1	5.4	3.9	2.9	6.4
Good	30.3	35.0	43.6	54.4	43.9	62.1	33.1	55.2	52.8	32.0	43.8
Fair	30.2	38.5	36.4	23.5	12.2	18.7	44.2	27.5	28.6	39.1	31.3
Poor	29.5	17.7	7.3	20.0	30.3	3.8	8.7	10.8	12.9	25.3	16.0
Very Poor	2.9	1.3	1.3	1.3	8.9	2.1	8.2	0.8	1.8	0.8	2.4
Not stated				0.3			0.8	0.3			0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.8: Distribution of households stating the cost incurred to obtain medical and related services in government owned medical facilities services

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Freely available	1.6	3.6	2.3	2.1	0.8	2.1	6.0	5.6	0.5	0.3	2.3
Not costly	47.1	31.1	20.7	32.0	36.0	41.9	29.4	31.2	35.0	13.3	30.1
Fairly Costly	24.1	27.5	33.5	37.0	30.7	18.8	42.5	28.3	45.0	43.4	34.0
Costly	23.0	36.7	33.3	23.4	30.5	32.3	16.3	24.6	18.3	41.2	29.0
Very costly	4.1	0.5	10.1	4.9	1.3	4.9	5.9	9.4	1.3	1.5	4.3
Not stated	0.3	0.5		0.5	0.8			0.8		0.3	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.9: Distribution of households stating whether household members ever been denied of a letter from Kebele to get free medical service

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Yes	1.8	5.7	3.4	7.5	7.7	6.1	7.2	6.9	6.4	1.6	5.1
No	93.6	86.5	86.5	85.2	89.3	79.8	81.8	80.3	88.8	89.0	86.4
Don not want to answer	4.1	7.3	9.8	6.2	2.0	13.6	9.7	11.5	4.6	8.6	7.8
Not stated	0.5	0.5	0.3	1.0	1.0	0.5	1.3	1.3	0.3	0.8	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

9.2.2 Access to education

Education imparts skills and knowledge that help people to become productive and creative. Education has a role in enhancing earning potential and employment. Thus access to education is critical and the public need to be served adequately and should receive quality education.

Tables 9.10 and 9.11 show that 50% and 52% of households stated that enrolling children in government primary school and in government secondary school respectively is easy. Enrolling children in school, however, is not easy for the remaining nearly 50% of the households. These households may have their own reason for finding school enrolment difficult or not so easy. The survey however revealed that these reasons are not related to the cost of school such as costs related to uniform, registration etc since the overwhelming majority (85%) mentioned that households faced no problem in sending their children to school due to registration cost, school fees or costs related to uniform etc though there is some variation among sub-cities (table 9.12). These households must be not low income families since some low income families in the qualitative report have indicated that school fee and related costs are imposing difficulty in sending children to schools (see below).

Table 9.10: Distribution of households stating the condition for children to enrol in government primary school

Conditions to enrol	Sub-city										
	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Easy	14.4	5.1	7.5	6.3	6.6	6.0	5.9	4.1	2.4	4.4	6.0
Easy	56.3	29.6	36.9	66.6	46.4	55.5	35.0	56.1	48.7	30.2	44.1
Not so Easy	21.0	54.6	44.6	23.7	36.2	36.3	50.4	31.6	44.3	52.5	41.6
Difficult	7.1	7.4	8.5	2.6	9.5	1.8	4.3	6.4	4.6	12.0	6.7
Very Difficult	1.0	2.6	2.6	0.3	0.5	0.5	4.1	1.0		0.8	1.4
Not stated	0.3	0.7		0.5	0.8		0.3	0.8			0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.11: Distribution of households stating the condition for children to enrol in government secondary school

Conditions to enrol	Sub-City										
	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Easy	12.2	5.9	4.3	1.3	9.2	6.1	6.9	3.1	1.9	3.6	5.0
Easy	54.9	22.8	43.2	64.8	52.4	71.3	43.5	62.6	54.5	25.0	46.7
Not so Easy	25.5	63.4	46.4	26.1	31.4	20.5	42.3	27.3	38.9	59.4	41.3
Difficult	5.2	4.6	4.3	4.4	5.4	2.1	2.7	6.1	4.7	10.9	5.2
Very Difficult	2.0	2.6	1.7	2.9	0.9		4.3			1.1	1.5
Not stated	0.3	0.8		0.5	0.8		0.3	0.8			0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.12: Distribution of households stating inability to send children to primary school due to high fee (cost of uniform, registration etc)

Inability to send children to school	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Yes	6.6	5.4	5.5	13.3	9.6	4.6	8.2	9.6	9.4	2.2	7.0
No	89.5	85.1	85.8	82.3	83.9	78.8	78.3	77.5	86.6	90.6	84.6
Not Applicable	3.3	7.5	8.7	3.6	5.2	16.1	12.4	10.8	3.8	7.0	7.6
Not stated	0.5	2.1		0.8	1.3	0.5	1.0	2.1	0.3	0.3	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

While access to education is one matter, the quality of education is altogether a different matter. Quality education is required in order to generate competitive human power capable of delivering and discharging responsibilities to the highest standard. The data presented in table 9.13 reveals that 42% of the households believe that the quality of public education is good or very good. The remaining 58% however rated the quality of education to be fair or less than fair. The rating of quality as being only fair or less than fair by the majority implies the need to improve the quality of education in the city.

Table 9.13: Distribution of households stating the quality of public education in the locality

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Good	6.0	3.4	5.4	3.4	4.4	5.7	4.6	2.4	2.0	1.8	3.8
Good	41.4	31.1	37.3	44.0	43.4	49.5	31.7	42.9	47.6	24.3	38.5
Fair	42.3	51.8	48.7	42.5	34.4	37.1	52.2	43.3	41.8	56.3	46.1
Poor	8.3	11.2	6.4	8.3	16.6	6.2	7.1	10.1	6.8	17.3	9.7
Very Poor	1.5	2.1	2.2	1.3	0.5	1.5	4.4	0.5	1.8	0.3	1.6
Not stated	0.5	0.5		0.5	0.8			0.8			0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

9.2.3 Housing, employment and solid waste

Affordable housing is critical for urban dwellers. In a fast growing city such as AA where there is a backlog or high demand for housing, housing provision forms the basic problem. This is confirmed by the overwhelming majority (94%) of the households who stated that access to affordable housing is not easy in the city (table 9.14). The major task of the city is therefore to create an enabling environment for affordable housing.

Employment is a means to earn income and improve standard of living. Households with access to employment can pursue their living with ease and convenience in cities. In many cases, households in cities depend on their labor and hence employment is a very crucial aspect of urban livelihood. This was clearly shown in the section that described the sources of livelihood in the city. The data presented in table 9.14 shows that nearly 90% indicated access to gainful employment is not easy in the city. It is only 7% who felt that access to gainful employment is easy. The city therefore needs to improve access to gainful employment for the majority of residents and households.

Solid waste service is an important service in the city since people who live in close density, generate huge amount of solid and liquid waste which need to be managed properly. The data presented in table 9.14 shows that 78% of the households benefit from solid waste management. On the other hand nearly 20% mentioned that they do not benefit from any solid waste management in the city.

Table 9.14: Distribution of households by access to affordable housing, employment and solid waste

Sub- city	Housing			Employment			Solid waste		
	Yes	No	Ns	Yes	No	NS (NA)	Yes	No	NS (NA)
AkakiKality	5.7	90.7	3.7	6.6	90.5	2.9	64.7	31.7	3.6
Nefas Silk Lafto	5.2	89.1	5.7	4.7	88.0	7.3	62.3	33.8	3.9
KolfeKeraniyo	6.1	91.5	2.4	12.6	84.7	2.6	78.4	20.4	1.2
Gulele	0.3	99.2	0.5	0.8	98.4	0.8	90.1	8.3	1.6
Lideta	1.5	97.5	1.1	0.5	98.0	1.6	75.7	22.7	1.6
Kirkos	4.8	90.1	5.2	24.7	66.2	9.1	91.4	7.2	1.4
Arada	3.6	89.3	7.2	3.8	89.0	7.2	80.5	14.1	5.4
Addis Ketema	1.0	95.6	3.3	3.4	93.6	3.1	74.2	22.7	3.1
Yeka	2.6	96.9	0.6	6.1	92.1	1.8	84.0	15.5	0.5
Bole	0.8	97.4	1.8	2.3	95.8	1.8	83.5	15.7	0.8
Total	3.4	93.7	3.0	6.8	89.5	3.6	78.3	19.6	2.1

9.2.4 Roads and transport

People and goods move from place to place in a city. As a result, adequate road network is needed to facilitate the mobility of people in a city between residential areas, work places, schools, market places, recreational areas etc. In addition optimal transport services are essential to facilitate movement in addition to the network. Households were asked to evaluate the provision of road network and transport services in their locality. With regard to road network, 49% mentioned that provision of road is good or very good, about 37% mentioned that it is fair and 14% stated that it is poor or very poor (table 9.15). The fact that it is judged as fair, good and very good by a bulk of household indicate that road provision is of acceptable condition in the city. Concerning transport service, 39% of the household believe the existing transport service is good or very good. On the other hand however nearly 32 % mentioned it is poor or very poor (Table 9.16). The city therefore needs to exert efforts in order to improve the transport service of the city since improving the efficiency of critical services such as transport is an important dimension of governance.

Table 9.15: Households stating the condition of road in their locality (percent)

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Good	7.1	9.3	8.6	1.6	1.8	12.3	5.9	6.1	7.8	1.0	6.4
Good	43.8	46.3	39.6	41.1	45.5	54.8	41.1	37.6	50.6	32.9	43.1
Fair	39.7	40.8	41.1	35.5	25.7	26.0	41.2	43.9	31.9	38.6	36.9
Poor	8.6	2.8	8.2	19.8	22.5	5.1	6.1	11.1	9.0	27.5	11.8
Very Poor	0.5	0.3	2.4	1.6	3.5	1.8	5.7	0.5	0.8		1.5
Not stated	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.5	1.0			0.8			0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Table 9.16: Households stating the condition of transport services in their locality (percent)

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Good	3.8	4.6	4.6	1.3	1.3	8.6	8.2	3.1	5.3	1.0	4.1
Good	21.8	36.1	28.8	32.8	29.1	43.1	31.5	35.0	39.8	27.6	32.8
Fair	31.3	42.3	38.8	18.5	20.0	23.9	27.4	33.8	28.1	33.4	31.3
Poor	24.2	10.0	21.6	41.1	40.3	17.4	21.1	25.9	23.0	33.8	24.8
Very Poor	18.5	6.0	6.2	5.7	8.6	6.9	11.8	1.6	3.8	4.1	6.7
Not stated	0.3	1.0		0.5	0.8			0.8			0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

The Rule of Law: the police and the court

Households were asked to whom they will turn to in the case of crime. The data in table 9.17 shows, that the majority of households (88%) turn to the police in case of crime. This is true for all the sub-cities as well. The fact that the majority rely on the police is an indication that the law prevails and the police are trusted in defending the law. The community leaders though poor second are the second important entity to which households resort to in the case of crime (6%). This also reveals the influence of community leaders in the city and needs to be linked with the formal police system for a better and coordinated service. Households were also asked to rate the performance of the police. Nearly two-third or 65.2% rated the police forces perform well or very well (table 9.18). Those who believe the police performance as poor or very poor are only 11%. This is just an indication why the community relys so much on the police force in the case of crime.

Table 9.17: Households stating to whom they turn to in the case of crime (per cent)

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Police	92.8	72.9	88.4	93.2	74.0	93.6	95.1	83.6	93.1	90.4	87.5
Community Leadership	2.9	14.0	7.5	1.3	16.7	2.5	1.0	3.1	3.6	4.4	6.0
Neighbours and Friends	2.8	10.8	1.3	4.2	2.0	2.1	2.6	4.2	2.6	3.6	3.8
Local gang or vigilante group	0.6	0.5	0.6		0.5	0.3	0.3	1.5		0.5	0.4
Take Own measure	0.2	0.5	1.4	0.5	5.4	0.8	0.5	6.6	0.3	0.8	1.4
Other		0.5								0.3	0.1
NONE	0.5	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3		0.4
Not Stated	0.3	0.5		0.5	1.1	0.3		0.8	0.3		0.3
N	61718	110896	127934	70903	52037	64708	55518	60414	111615	103028	818770

Table 9.18: Households stating police performance in the locality (per cent)

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Very Well	12.1	18.8	18.4	6.0	7.3	18.6	33.9	41.8	15.7	6.5	17.1
Well	58.0	45.4	41.9	47.3	51.5	54.2	39.7	21.8	64.8	49.9	48.2
Fairly Well	20.1	28.8	24.8	28.4	28.0	22.6	21.4	19.0	14.6	27.4	23.6
Poor	8.5	5.5	12.5	14.4	12.6	4.0	4.5	16.5	3.8	14.9	9.6
Very Poor	1.1	1.5	2.4	3.9	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.9	0.8	1.3	1.4
Not stated	0.3				0.3	0.3			0.3		0.1
N	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Regarding the court system, nearly two-third of the community (66%) mentioned that the court provided justice to the community. Households in the city thus seem to believe both the court system and the police force are effective in upholding the rule of law.

Table 9.19: Households stating whether government court provide justice to the community (per cent)

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Total
Yes	82.0	63.1	64.7	79.2	89.0	51.0	64.0	39.1	77.6	50.9	65.6
No	4.4	5.5	9.4	12.5	7.7	11.0	16.1	21.6	7.2	24.0	11.7
Don not want to answer	13.3	31.4	25.7	8.3	3.0	38.0	19.2	38.0	14.9	24.8	22.4
Not stated	0.3		0.2		0.3		0.8	1.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Households	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Chapter 10: Qualitative Findings

The qualitative section aims at soliciting people's perception and attitude on the different dimensions of poverty including the causes of poverty, changes in poverty and inequality in the city, benefits and shortcomings of poverty reduction interventions, service provision, political rights and justice, shocks and coping mechanisms.

As described in chapter 2, data were collected from various groups using two methods, namely, interview and focus group discussions. In the following sections, a summary analysis of the interview and FGD transcripts, which number 90 in total, are presented.

10.1 Causes of Poverty

One of the objectives of the qualitative segment of the study was to find out what residents of the city consider as the major causes of poverty. Some seven major categories of causes were identified by participants

10.1.1 Unemployment/ Lack of Job Opportunities

For many of the informants in the study, the cause of poverty in Addis Ababa was the fact that job opportunities created have not been sufficient compared to the size of unemployed people in the city. They said even though there are many poor people who need job they can't get one and improve their lives. They said this is especially true of the youth. They said the youth are increasingly finding it difficult to find job and support themselves. Youth FGD participants from Arada said: "lack of job opportunity is the source of poverty among the youth. Even though you are capable of working if there is nothing you can be engaged in, it will be worthless. A woman FGD participant from Kolfe Keraneo Sub city also talked about the fact that the available opportunities are difficult to get due to very high academic requirements. She explains: "The requirements for some works are not really relevant. For the position of a cleaner, it is now a requirement to have a diploma; do I really need a diploma to clean an office or corridor."

10.1.2 Low levels of Education and Skill

One of the most frequently cited factor responsible for poverty was low level of education. Quite a few participants (all of them women) reported they lead a very difficult life because they have not been to school or because they have low level of education which according to them made them unsuited to the existing labor market. Women participants particularly highlighted this factor saying it prevented them from being independent and economically self-sufficient. A woman who participated in FGD from Akaki Kalit Sub city puts its as follows: "women in our society are not educated and don't have their own income; they become dependent on their husbands and children; so when their husbands die their life will be turned upside down; they will be vulnerable". Another woman from Kirkos Sub city talked about her experience as follow: "my family did not send me to school; I came here [Addis Ababa] to live with my aunt. When my aunt died I started working as a domestic worker. Currently, I live an impoverished life. I feel I am in this situation because my parents didn't send me to school. Some accepting it is their being uneducated that caused them to be poor they blamed themselves for not trying their level best to improve their education level.

10.1.3 Attitude towards Work

Another frequently cited cause of poverty by the participants was negative attitude towards work. The great majority of those who participated in the study reported that many poor people tend to regard some occupations as degrading. An in-depth interview participant from Bole Sub-city explains:

> *"some people don't want to engage in works they think are of low prestige in their community. This is wrong; they should be ready to take any available opportunity to better their situation. The youth for instance don't have positive attitude towards MSEs. This must change if they are to be successful."*

Similarly, a community leader from Kirkos Sub city said: "the government is ready to support those who want to work. Thus those who live in poverty are responsible for their own situation. They 'say there is no work in Ethiopia'. They must understand success comes through hard work." Most of the participants reported this is particularly common among youths who graduate from universities. The following quotation of women FGD participant from Arada Sub city shows this: "For instance, there

are people who came from rural Ethiopia and engaged in coble stone work and improved their lives. On the contrary those who say they are educated don't want to engage in coble stone work and because of this they are unable to support themselves. In similar vein, a participant from Woreda 8 of Akaki Sub city said: "most fresh graduates want to work in office, they don't want to engage in works that involve manual work; this must change. Government officials too explained this attitude is a source of poverty in the city arguing the government has always been doing its best to help improve the lives of the poor. The head of Kirkos Sub city Micro and Small Scale Enterprise said: "There are jobs if people are really interested in working. It will be unreasonable and unwise to choose work while you are in a deprived condition. There are still those who chew chat and do nothing.

The youth and women too disclosed negative attitudes they have about work caused most youth and women to be in a deprived situation. A youth from Gulele Sub city who participated in FGD explained: "The main cause poverty among the youth in Gullele sub city is associated with incorrect attitude towards work. Most of us do not want to engage in coble stone or other similar trades. We think engaging in such works makes us inferior in our community and prefer to remain in poverty. One CSO representative from Kirkos sub city supports this. "There are many youth who have the ability to work but they don't want to work; they simply sit and watch others working. They don't have the motivation to work; when we offer them wok, they will laugh at us."

10.1.4 Poor Implementation of Government Policy and Maladministration

The second most frequently cited cause of poverty according to the participants was the fact that the capacity of the government has not been good enough to alleviate the problem of poverty. This can be understood in various ways. The first factor relates to the government's bureaucracy and the manner it operates. Most of them argued the government's bureaucracy has been inefficient to the extent that it has prevented the government from achieving its poverty reduction policies. A number of manifestations of this inefficiency can be given. The participants said what the government says it does and what it actually does are completely different. For instance, a key informant from Arada Sub city said: "there are shades built for micro and small scale enterprises but they have not been handed in they are still empty. One participant form Bole Sub city said lack of good governance and maladministration were making the public distrust the government.

One Youth FGD participant from Nifas Silk Sub city said:

> "Four *years back the government official promised us to organize ourselves to form a MSE to be able to generate our own income. However, after intensive preparation the government officials failed to keep their promise. As result most of the youth here in Woreda one don't trust the government.*

A participant form Nifas Silk Sub city talked about the inefficiency of those who assume positions in the government bureaucracy: "You may find an a government employee with no knowledge about what they are supposed to do; this kind of people are obstacles themselves holding back the government's anti-poverty activities" .

Another manifestation of the maladministration according to participants was the fact that opportunities and benefits are given to citizens on the basis of their party membership. An in-depth interview participant from Addis Ketema Sub city said: "to get something from the government you have to be a member of the ruling party. Similarly, another participant from Yeka Sub city said: the government's policy is not properly implemented; it is full of partiality; the government allows access to opportunities on the basis of political party membership." Some talked about nepotism. One participant from Kirkos Sub city put is as follows: if you want a job in a certain government office you need to have a relative already working there."

A government official from Kirkos Sub- city also reported saying: "corruption is still a big challenge in the government structure. Similarly, a government official from Nifas Silk commented saying: "corrupt structures and the tendency among some government officials to illegally get individual prosperity has become a bottleneck. Still others argued the government's education policy was the cause of poverty. Youth FGD participant from Kirkos Sub city put is as follows: "In our country many people do not accept the idea that education is a tool that helps one to live a good life. You see you spend 15 year on education but you find your 15 years have been spent in vein. This has made many youth despair. Some say 'God forgive those who are at school/college." Some said the electricity outage which has become a commonplace in the city is causing them huge trouble in their work. One FGD participant from Yeka Sub city said: the electricity outage occurs every day and my life has become so difficult. I sell *Enjera*. I am not working as much as I should.

10.1.5 Social/Cultural Factors

One such factor raised by participated was community attitude towards women. The participants argued girls and women have been deprived of opportunities and rights due to misconceptions about them in the society they are a part. They are not sent to school as are boys and hence they are very poor as compared to their counterparts, men as adults. A woman who participated in FGD from Addis Ketema Sub city explains this: "the society has prevented women from accessing opportunities that men have been enjoying; they have not been permitted to go out, work and bring their own income. This has left many women poor and dependent in our society." Similarly, another FGD participant from Kolfe Sub city said: "there are women who are unable to work because their husbands don't allow them to go out and work. This has made them dependent and poor."

There are also those who said the fact that people have become very much individualistic is a cause of poverty. They said it is becoming increasingly difficult for them to help each other and work together. One in-depth interview participant from Woreda 7 of Arada Sub-city said: "These days, people are not helping each other. They never care for each other. For instance, if a domestic worker wants to advance her education with the aim of bettering her life, her employers will not allow her. They want her to be dependent on them. They don't allow her to realize her potential. They simply utilize her labour until she becomes old. They never care about her life. A community leader from Nifas Silk Sub city shares this idea: In our time most people were willing to give priority to their society than to their own needs and benefits. Now what I see is people trying to grow at the expense of their society and others. They don't bother about the wellbeing of other society members. I think this has prevented us from defeating poverty.

Family related issues have also been raised. Some of those who participated the study said the fact that families are not capable of providing the necessary support to their children is responsible factor for the failure of some youths to support themselves. This lack support can be understood in two ways: One is the family's failure to provide money for their children to help them start their own life and be able to support them. One of the youth FGD participants from Akaki Kaliti Sub city explains: "if your parents are poor you will also end up poor. That is why children leave their parents and come to Addis Ababa. They take up such works as babysitting. Things are not as favorable as they had thought; they too become poor like their parents."

The other explanation for family's inability to provide necessary support is that some families do not inculcate into their children the right attitude to work even if they cannot provide them with money so that they would be creative enough to help themselves. The following verbatim of a community leader from Lideta Sub city represents this position: "most parents believe that their responsibility is only to send their children to school and don't care whether their children possess the right attitudes to be able to cope well with life's challenges. This is completely wrong."

10.1.6 Housing Problem

Some participants of the study said the cause of poverty is the fact that most people don't own their own house. Paying for house rent has become very difficult because owners increase the house rent irresponsibly with no good reason. A woman from Addis Ketema Sub city explains: "owners are very cruel; they don't care about the ability of those who rented their house. They simply come and tell you that they have decided to increase the house rent starting from the following month. " They said this has created a burden on poor people by taking the money which they could have saved or invested in other activities that might be more useful to improve their lives. A participant from Kiros Sub city said:

> *"Not owning one's own house in the city means continuing to be poor. You know house rent increases from time to time and has reached a level where it has become impossible to rent a house for an average citizen. So, I have repeatedly requested the Kebele administration to give me a kebele house. I haven't received it yet; they simply register you and tell you they will call. Nothing has happened; I am still suffering trying to pay for my monthly house rent." The following verbatim of a woman from Akaki Kalit Sub city supports this: "Life is very tuff in Addis if you don't have your own house. You cannot save money and change your life.*

10.1.7 Rapid increase in population size

For some participants the cause of poverty in the city was the rapid increase in the population which has been challenging the city's capacity to provide for its residents. They said migration from rural areas and small towns to the city was one of the reasons for the rapid increase. A woman FGD participant from Akaki Kalit Sub city explains: "Migration is a major cause of poverty; women especially face a huge problem when they come here; they leave their family in search of better life; things might not go the way they want them; they become domestic worker, bartender and they

might even be exposed to diseases like HIV/AIDS trying to survive which further aggravates their situation, so leaving your place in search of better opportunities is very dangerous. Similarly, another participant from Addis Ketem Sub city said they can also be beggars as it becomes very hard for them to support themselves.

Other causes of poverty reported by the participants include addiction, low wage, disability, poor health, death of significant others, income inequality, and inflation.

10.2 Perceived Change in Poverty Situation over the Last Five Years

It was the aim of this qualitative study to also examine how the participants perceive the changes in poverty situation occurred over the last five years. The responses of the participants can be categorized into three. The first group of participants accepted change has occurred over the last five years but they also stressed that a lot more has to be done. These participants talked about the progresses made in infrastructure development and job creation. They also felt there has been an increase in income received by citizens over the past five years. However, they equally felt these positive changes have not brought about significant changes peoples' lives. Most of the participants told how life has become so hard due to especially inflation. An interviewee from Akaki Kalit Sub city said: It is true that our income has increased over the last five years due to the opportunities created by the government. However, the cost of living has been increasing too and this has made it very difficult for us to enjoy a better life. An FGD participant from Addis Ketem Sub city said: "although our situation has not improved significantly you have at least more opportunities to work if you want to."

The following idea of a community leader who is a chairperson of an *Iddir* from Nifas Silk Sub city strengthens the above two ideas:

> *As the chairperson of this iddir, I have had the chance to hear about the feelings of members of the iddir about their lives. They appreciate the fact that the city is growing rapidly in terms of infrastructure development including roads and housing. Modern buildings and services are appearing in all parts of the city. I too agree this has been the case in our city. At the same time, they say cost of living has been growing and it has become almost impossible to buy and consume things. So there has been change but inflation has been a serious challenge over the past five years.*

Some of these participants also indicated the inequality between residents of the city is widening and commented more has to be done about it. For instance, a government official from Nifas Silk Sub city said:

> *"The income gap in the city is growing from time to time. There are emerging millionaires in the city and at the same time there are people are still in a very deprived situation. Differences in living standards are growing. The government is doing its best to narrow this gap between citizens. So, I can say the issue of inequality has not yet been solved and it might be achieved in the future."*

The other category of participants which is slightly smaller in terms of number felt the poverty reduction activities have brought about significant changes in their lives. These participants (most of them are women) explained due to the changes in their lives they are now able to do the things which were impossible some years back. Some said they were able to send their children to school others said they managed to have their own houses still others said they no longer bothered about what they eat every day. They argued it is up to the citizens to be able to take the opportunities created by the government and try to improve their lives. A participant from Bole Sub city said: "I am now able to support my family properly; I managed to send to send my children to a private school and I can provide them with all they need." A women FGD participant from Lideta Sub city also said the situation of women has improved so significantly that some women earn more than what men: "currently, some women are earning more than their husbands. As a result dependence on men has decreased". Most of these participants commented the inequality between citizens was also narrowing from time to time.

The remaining participants (smaller in number compared to the above two categories) argued that there has not been any improvement in their situation and on the contrary things were getting worse. The major reason for lack of improvement in their lives was the inflation which seemed uncontrollable. They said all items consumed every day are now bought with much higher price than some five years back and also house rent has reached a level which they cannot bear. One woman who participated in FGD from Lideta Sub city said: "how can you expect my life to change while I am expected to spend more than I get. I used to live with a monthly salary of 500 Birr. Now this is a monthly school fee for our children. How can improve my life? This is hard to imagine."

Another participant from Kolfe Keraneo Sub city said: “it is worse than it used to be five years back. It is terrible now. There were times when I was forced to sell my clothes just to buy something to eat.” A youth FGD participant from Kirkos Sub city said the following about how house rent was making the lives of many residents like him so difficult: “we used to rent a house for 250 300 Birr. Now the minimum house rent you can get is 800 Birr if you are lucky enough. It is getting worse”. They also seriously stressed the fact that income inequality has been growing from time to time in the city and a lot is expected to be done in that regard.

10.3 Change in Socioeconomic Status Over the Last Five Years

The participants understood socio economic status in different ways. Some talked of ownership of house and house furniture and equipments. Others talked about access to health and education and still others talked about job opportunity. These were taken as indicators of socio-economic changes. The findings under this section are presented based on this understanding of the participants.

Accordingly, some of the participants reported they were able to have their own houses over the past five years and said the government’s housing development project has been of great significance. A woman FGD participant from Yeka Sub city explained: “There has been significant change in terms of access to housing in Addis Ababa. I lived in a small mud house. I now live in a condominium house; is not this great change? I think it is.” Similarly a woman who participated in in-depth interviews from Kolfe Keraneo Sub city said: “Yes, there are changes. The condominium housing development program is worth mentioning here; it has helped many low income families to have their own house.”

Some of the participants looked at socio-economic change in terms whether they were able to buy new house furniture and equipments or other items over the past five years. The items listed by the participants range from a simple radio to a high-tech refrigerator. Women who participated in FGD from Akaki Kaliti Sub city talked about what items she managed to buy over the past five years: “I have changed a lot. Some years back I used to sleep on straw mattress; now I sleep on sponge mattress. I believe the government has been carrying out a lot of activities with the aim of improving especially women. Likewise, an interviewee from Arada Sub city said: “few years back we did not have anything except a straw carpet on which we slept, kettle, and three tea cups. Now we have state

of the art refrigerator, electric stove, flat screen TV, CD player and a full set sofa. I believe we have done great."

Most of the participants also reported *Ikubs* have been instrumental in facilitating all this chang. Most of them said their membership in Ikub helped them save money and spend it on important things such as furnishing their house or buying other necessary equipments. A woman interviewee from Akaki Kalit Sub city said: "I am not rich but by saving a portion of what I earn in Ikub I managed to buy bed and mattress; I also bought a radio, table and chairs. I didn't have all these five years ago."

They also raised job opportunities created over the past five years to enable poor and unemployed people support themselves and their family. They reported that by engaging in the various jobs created by the government they were able to own valuable assets and better their situation a lot. They highlighted how MSEs helped them improve their lives. A woman from Yeka Sub city reported: "the government supported us to form a MSE. We started a small café: we sell tea, coffee, bread and pastry. We also serve other foods. I have three dependent children. One of them is in school. I also got registered for the condominium housing and I am paying the monthly payments. We are much better now."

However, some participants (though few in number compared to those who reported there has been improvement) were very critical of what has been achieved especially in terms of job creation and increasing income of the city residents. These participants reported because they were not able to get job and sufficient source of income: they could not have their own house; they lived in rental house and some in a poor quality houses; they could not buy house furniture and equipments and what they bought are of low quality; had no saving, and some said, because their life is of low quality their health was often not good as well.

10.4 Shocks and Difficulties Faced in Life and Their Impacts

10.4.1 Shocks and Difficulties

Shocks and difficulties faced by households create challenges for members to cope and meet their daily needs adequately. Major shocks and difficulties faced in the last five years according to participants can therefore be categorized into four namely; death of spouse, parents,

children or siblings, divorce and family disintegration, loss of a job, homelessness and domestic abuse.

A. ***Death of spouse, parents, children or siblings***: this is one of the most commonly cited shocks reported by the majority of participants across all sub cities. Particularly, death of a bread winner has a devastating effect for the economic security of the family. In such cases most women and their children are left to engage in low paying jobs like washing cloth, working as a day laborer and even prostitution to meet basic needs of the family. Women FGD participants from Nefas Silk sub city have also reported that the pressures to provide for their families in such circumstances can sometimes lead them to feel stressed, depressed and have suicidal thoughts. Youth participant from Kolfe also describes the struggle he and his family faced after the death of his father,

> *One of the worst experiences in my life was when I lost my father. My mother was a housewife. She was totally dependent on the support he provided as the rest of the family. After he died, everything changed, our lives became unbearable.*

B. ***Divorce***: divorce is reported as another common challenge for participants' effort to ensure economic and social well-being in the past five years. Comparatively, women participants struggle more after divorce, as they often were housewives and lacked work experience outside the home before the divorce. Finding a job, paying the rent and meeting basic needs of the family, therefore, becomes a constant struggle for them. This was the case for two of the poverty reduction strategy participants from Akaki sub city. Similarly, a female participant from Kirkos reported being forced to engage in prostitution so as to feed her child after she divorced her husband.

C. **Loss of job/unemployment**: The most commonly cited reasons for loss of job reported by participants include retirement, forced termination or ill health. In case where the bread winner of the family loses their jobs for any of the above mentioned reasons, the impact it has on the financial, social and psychological well-being of the family is quite severe and sometimes long lasting. A 40 year old housewife from Arada explains her experience as follows;

I have six children. When my husband retired from his work we had difficulty coping up as the pension was too small to meet our daily needs. As a result three of my children dropped out of school and are now living on the street.

A Female youth informant from Kolfe also stated;

When my mother came back from Jeddah four years ago as a result of a medical condition our financial security changed for the worst. The family's financial situation still has not improved.

Unemployment has also been regarded as a challenge for most young people in the city. Youth participants in this regard have indicated their frustration at finding jobs that pays better and prefer migration to other countries as a means to change their lives and that of their families. They have also reported the fact that growing number of shish and chat houses are being established and made use of by the youth since they lack job opportunities as well. FGD participants from Lideta and Nefas Silk sub city support this argument:

Unemployment is the main challenge in the life of Addis Ababa's youth population. Many youth are now a-days observed in various neighborhoods spending the whole day chewing chat and smoking cigarettes. This includes university graduates too.

D. ***Displacement/Homelessness***: homelessness brought by loss of income is commonly reported by informants. A 36 year old female respondent from Arada, has also described the ordeal she and her family faced in rebuilding their lives after they were deported from Eritrea. She stated;

Four years ago we were forcefully deported from our home in Eritrea. We were told to leave the country within 45 minutes. We needed a lot of money to get out of the country which we didn't have at the time. My two brothers and I were forced to leave our mother and two of our siblings in Eretria as we headed to Sudan. There we were given three thousand birr each to come to Ethiopia. When

we arrived we didn't have a place to stay, we were homeless and we had little money that was spared from our journey to Ethiopia. That time was the worst for us. We thought of our families we left behind and worried about how we were gone survive here.

E. **Health problems**: having good health is a primary factor to meet one's daily. When bread winners unable to engage in productive work as a result of their health conditions, ensuring the overall well-being of the family becomes a struggle. In addition to this, the added burden of taking care of the individual not only puts strain on the financial resources of the family but it also affects the psychological and emotional well-being of the family negatively.

Another female informant from Lideta sub city also shares her experience after a car accident left her husband unable to work as follows,

My husband was in a car accident eight years ago. He was the primary bread winner for the family and I was a housewife. Back then I didn't worry about anything. I have four children and they had everything they wanted. After the accident my husband needed hospital care and follow up and we used up all our savings to cover the cost. He was sick for a long time and the accident had left him handicapped. As a result he stopped working and we were left to struggle to survive.

The experience of a 56 year visually impaired old lady from Arada sub city who is struggling to meet her basic needs through the money she gets from begging on the streets of Addis Ababa illustrates the issue further

I lost my eye sight when I was preparing berbere ... The reflection of the whitewashed wall of our house scarred my eyes. Initially I was still able to see a little but later I lost my sight completely. I lost all hope when I lost my eye sight. I had good skills. I used to be able to go around and make Tela, bake injera, prepare berbere and other spices before…

10.4.2 Impacts of shocks and difficulties on Livelihood

Impacts of shocks and difficulties on livelihood can be categorized as social, economical and health impacts which are discussed in detail below. It should however be understood this distinctions are not mutually exclusive.

Economic impact: majority of participants indicated inability to meet basic needs such as purchasing goods and services as the number one challenge for their families. Women/female headed households in particular, primarily find the burden of meeting basic needs more challenging compared to their male counterparts. Describing the challenges facing women after the loss of their husbands a female FGD participant from Kirkos states,

> *Women suffer a lot for many years. There is payment for the house, she has to take care of the children, wash their cloth etc. In the mean time she will suffer from lack of food. When she losses her husband who will feed her and pay the rental payment?*

Social Impacts: Among the list of impacts reported as a result of experiencing shocks and difficulties in the last five years homelessness, family disintegration, abuse of addictive substances, dropping out of school, engagement of youth in deviant and criminal activities can be categorized under this section.

Homelessness is a prime example of impact of shocks and difficulties faced by some of the participants in the study. It should also be understood that homelessness is described both as an outcome/impact arising from financial or social difficulties as well as a cause for subsequent challenges/impacts that arise as a result of becoming homelessness.

One example of the experience of homelessness was provided by a female FGD participant from Akaki stated that,

> *After my husband's accident we became destitute. We couldn't pay for food, buy our children clothes or pay for their education. As a result they run away from home and started living on the street.*

In addition to highlighting the impact of homelessness the above statement can be taken as an example to how shocks and difficulties faced by participants sometimes also results in family disintegration.

Another female FGD participant from Kolfe also shared the experience of her neighbor as follows;

> *There was this woman I know she has seven children. When her husband died of health complications she was left to fend for herself and her family. When she was unable to pay the rent fees she had no choice but to go onto the streets with her children.*

Abuse of addictive substance is also reported to become rampant among the younger population as well. The practice of abusing substances like Khat, Shisha, and Cigarettes is reported to be largely related to the limited job opportunities available to the youth. In agreement with this assertion a participant from Addis Ketema sub city expresses his view as follows,

> *When you are unemployed or out of school, due to the nature of the area, you have no choice than becoming addicted to khat and other drugs. In such a situation, it is simple to guess how much these youth will be a burden to themselves, their family and the country as a whole.*

Similar sentiments have also been expressed from youth FGD participants from Kirkos and Nifas Silk sub city as well.

In addition to unemployment, poverty and family problems have also been raised as factors leading the youth to abuse addictive substance in the city.

Another impact most observed among the youth is dropping out of school. Most of the youth participants relate this impact with death of bread winner, loss of income due to health problems or loss of job as well. Furthermore, youth increased participation in risky, deviant and criminal behaviors including prostitution arising from the aforementioned challenges have also been identified as obstacles for many of the poor young residents in the city.

Health impacts: physical and psychological well-being of individuals is reported to have been compromised as a result of their experience of household shocks and difficulties. This is manifested

in terms of suffering from depression, suicide tendencies, addiction and other mental illnesses. Supporting this argument youth FGD participants in Lideta sub city for example explain, "*Youth with addiction work less as they spend much of their time in using shisha and chewing chat. It is common to see them asking and begging money from others*".

Another impact that can also be linked with health is sexual violence/abuse of woman. As it can be clearly understood victims of sexual violence/ abuse suffer emotionally, psychologically and physically as a result of their experience. Women are not the only victims of violence. Their children also suffer emotionally and psychologically when they live in an abusive home environment.

10.5 Coping strategies to withstand major shocks and difficulties in life

Positive Coping Strategies

Positive strategies refer to those measures taken to reduce stress and are not detrimental in the longer. These include engagement in new business practice and utilizing support from CSO and the government. Women participants in this study mostly reported to have *started new businesses like spice preparation (Baltena), baking injera for sell, washing clothes and working as a housekeepers* as a strategy to minimize the impact of shocks and difficulties on their family. Particularly, those women who used to be housewives find this strategy more effective to address their needs as well as their families. Support from CSO and the government in terms of training and financial support for businesses has also been positively viewed by participants. Young men have also opted to engage in *car washing and working as day laborers* to support themselves and their families. One of the woman informants from Nifas Silk states her sons experience as follows,

> *My son's coping mechanism was dropping out of school and becoming a daily laborer in a constructions site where his father works. We have no other choice but to keep on struggling for our survival.*

In addition to this, participants have also started *purchasing certain food items from consumer association* in relatively cheaper price. Making use of consumer association's services therefore can be seen as a measure to address the rising cost of food and services in the country. This was the case reported by two of the female FGD participants from Kolfe sub city.

Saving and credit associations have also played a role in addressing the impact of household shocks and difficulties across the country and in particular in the city. An account of a female FGD participant from Kolfe states that,

> *There was this woman I know. Instead of opting to live in a shack somewhere in one of the churches in the city and start begging for survival, she chose to work as a maid in other people houses. Because she has a disabled sun she eventually was able to get government housing. She then saved up some money and took out a loan from women's saving and credit association to start her own spice preparation business.*

In addition to the above strategies, many of the participants have also relied on the *assistance of neighbors, relative and family members* to address the challenges facing themselves and their families. *Organizing themselves to start of their own garbage disposal and cleaning service business, working as a parking attendant and renting out their house* are some of the additional coping strategies reported by participants in the study.

Negative Coping Strategies

Negative coping strategies on the other hand include prostitution, dropping out of school, and engagement in criminal activities. *Engaging in prostitution* has been reported as an impact and a mechanism to address financial difficulties by most women in order to meet basic needs of their family. A key informant from Kirkos sub city states her experience as follows;

> *My husband left me when I was 8 months pregnant because he was unfaithful. After I broke up with my husband, I worked as a prostitute at a bar for a month and half. I became I prostitute for the sake of my child. At the time no one was there for me so I had no other choice but to become a prostitute.*

Young women and men have also opted to *drop out of schools* in order to financially support their families. Furthermore, *engagement in deviant and criminal activities* has largely been linked as a coping mechanism to the youth as well. By taking part in these activities many primarily aim to get some money in exchange for the sale of their loot. Financial security therefore can be taken as the major driving factor for the rise in deviant behavior among vulnerable segment of the society like the youth.

An informant from Arada sub city on the other hand identified *begging* as a coping mechanism adopted by some women and disabled individuals in the area. Individuals who are disabled for instance and as a result cannot engage in work activities resort to begging in churches and on the street as a means to support themselves and their families. Women in particular also engage in such types of activities when they luck support from family members or relatives.

Migration to urban areas or to other countries is another measure taken by participants that can be considered as being both positive and negative copping strategy. Many young adults adopt this strategy in order to obtain gainful employment in urban centers or developed countries. Informants from Akaki sub city for instance further stated that migration is used as an escape when an individual is unable to pay the loan he/she took from credit associations/MSEs. Migration is also considered as one of the best copping strategy among woman according to participants from Nifas Silk sub city. Moreover, we must also understand that those traveling outside the country sometimes face far more challenges while in route to their destination as well.

10.6 Access to and Satisfaction with Basic Facilities

This segment of the report examines the accessibility and satisfaction of basic social services in Addis Ababa. In this regard, the qualitative data collected through in-depth interviews, key informant interviews and focus group discussions is presented under each of the service categories.

10.6.1 Health Care

Health care service providers are one of the major institutions which many participants report to have made use of for themselves or their families. As such, responses regarding the quality, accessibility and satisfaction of service provided have been largely positive. One of the recurring themes in the response to service provision is the ease of accessibility and affordability of government run health institutions. Health care service has been made available through health centers set up in each *woreda* across the ten sub cities. The health centers provide services that include reproductive health services which most women report to have largely benefited from, treating emergency case, laboratory services, pharmacy etc. Moreover, informants have also indicated that for individuals that are poor or can't afford to pay the cost of treatment, the service is made available for free in all government run health care centers.

To this effect, one of the female informants from Addis Ketema sub city summarized her views as follows;

> *The health service is good because everybody, especially the poor can access it at any time without any payment. This contributes in producing healthy and productive citizen. If a person is not healthy, he/she can't eat, learn or work and this contributes its own negatively for the development of the country.*

This is however not to say that the service delivery is without any flaws. Responses from in-depth interviews and FGD participants have clearly highlighted the need for improved quality of services, particularly in regards to availability of medicine, adequate trained manpower, high attrition/turnover rate, professionalism exhibited by staff, and the practice of referring patients to private clinics/hospitals. FGD participants from Bole sub city explain their frustration about these as followed;

> *Health care service especially in health centers is unsatisfactory. According to the government policy and strategy health care services are suppose to be provided free of charge or at low cost, but the facts on the ground contradict with this principle. Professionals refer patients to private clinics for further diagnosis and treatment which require quite a lot of money beyond the capacity of poor people. Likewise pharmacists in public health center order patients to buy prescribed drugs from private pharmacy while the drugs are in stock.*

One of the youth FGD participants from Akaki sub city also identifies delay in service delivery, medical malpractice, and unhygienic work environment as major gaps in the health institutions. Moreover, an informant form Yeka Sub city also highlighted the need for improvement of services by identifying the problem in treatment of patients and quality of service as follows;

> *There is inequality when addressing the patient. After giving blood samples then they would ask you to get another because they don't remember where they put it. The results are exchanged and so on.*

10.6.2 Education

The growing education sector and its impact on the society have been recognized by many of the participants of the study. Similar to the health care institutions, the assessments of the service provided by the government run schools are largely positive. Respondents have reported to have

made use of the available services and attest to the fact that they can easily get access to schools since it's located near their area of residence. They have also reported that, for the poor, this service can be obtained for free. As access to education is made easier with the growing number of schools and colleges being established across the city, children and the youth are identified as the primary segment of the society that are increasingly benefiting more from this institutions.

However, there is also criticism on the level of quality of education that is being provided, particularly among government schools. A key informant from Nifas Silk Lafto sub city stated: "*compared to previous periods, public/government school services are dissatisfying. The quality of education provided and discipline of students are also compromised".* In addition to quality of education a respondent from Yeka sub city have also reported on the rising cost of school fees as a challenge for low income families in the area.

One of the youth FGD participants from Akaki sub city identifies the shortcomings of the education service by arguing that most government officials send their children to private schools because they realize that government run schools cannot provide quality education. Moreover, he stated that the government is not involved in providing education for kindergarten students which leaves a void to be filled by private school, which are very costly.

Regardless of the above mentioned challenges however, schools and higher learning institutions still remain to be seen as one of the better services provided by the government.

10.6.3 Water and Electricity

Informants' overall outlook of the water and electricity service provision is largely negative. Most commonly cited reason for this is the irregular nature of the service. The great majority have indicated that although there is a system and a structure put in place to provide these services to the public, the issue of recurrent water and power interruption has yet to be properly addressed by the authorities.

Participants of the study have also stressed the impact shortage of water and intermittent power supply has had on their day to day work activities. In this regard, women FGD participant from Lideta sub city state that they face problems in their livelihood activities since businesses like baking *injera* and restaurants heavily rely on the use of electricity to prepare their products. In agreement

with women FGD participants, the youth FGD participants also report the challenge they face in earning a decent income as the majority of the activities they engage in, such as, wood & metal work, café & restaurant, male & female beauty salon and etc lose money as a result of power interruptions in their locality. Moreover, in some sub cities like Kolfe-Keranio, there have been reports of loss of power for up to fifteen days.

Similar problems have been identified regarding water supply. A respondent from Nifas Silk sub city, who lives on washing cares, states that he fetches waters from distant areas due to frequent water interruptions.

Hence, as clearly indicated by the majority of respondents, shortage of water and intermittent power supply are the least satisfying service in the city.

10.6.4 Housing

Obtaining adequate housing has been one of the challenges faced by many residents in Addis Ababa. Those individuals with low income are unable to find affordable and adequate housing. Reports from the majority of the respondents support this argument as many poor residents are living in sub-standard housing conditions characterized by roof covers, shared toilet facilities, shared water and electricity.

Accordingly, women FGD participants in Nifas Silk stated that poor women, especially single mothers are usually the one who live in very poor housing facilities. Whenever the rainy season comes, many women suffer from the flood destroying their homes. Another major challenge in the housing sector is the increase in the price of housing rent across the city, which participants argues was very high as compared to the standard of the house you rent.

In addition to this, those women who live in rental homes or that share electricity and other household facilities are sometimes subjected to uncomfortable leaving conditions set by the landlord. As a respondent from Kirkos puts it;

> *My landlord forbids me from turning on the light during the day time. Sometimes, the owner turns off the power meter for the whole day so that I cannot make use of it.*

These experiences are hence a clear indication of the need for further intervention to alleviate the housing challenge facing residents of Addis Ababa today.

10.6.5 ICT

Both female and youth participants viewed the ICT service provided in the country to be beneficial but inadequate in quality. Woman respondents argued that they can use mobile phones to communicate with family, friends and business partners. Moreover, access to the internet has also broadened the opportunity to obtain more information and knowledge online. In this regard, the youth in particular are identified as the major beneficiaries of this sector.

Attesting to this fact, a youth FGD participant from Lideta stated that;

> *It is common to see youths with mobile phones. And they are also accessing internet connection at youth centers and other internet cafes. However, the network does not run smoothly and the air time cost is also very expensive and not affordable for youths.*

Similarly, youth FGD participants from Kolfe argue that telecommunication service is expensive. They also cited poor network connection as the major challenge in the service.

10.6.6 Road Construction and Transportation Service

Assessment of roads built in the city is mostly positive. Some participants recognize and hail efforts made by the government in expanding inner city roads in Addis Ababa. An informant from Lideta sub city, for instance, viewed changes in regards to roads in city as good investment. He states adjoining roads that feed into the main roads are being built and this has a positive impact on the neighborhood. Similar views were also expressed by youth FGD participants from Kolfe sub city as well.

Contrary to road expansion project, the transportation service remains in dire need of effective intervention. Participants have reported that the transportation service in Addis Ababa is inadequate and difficult to access particularly during rush hours. An informant from Nifas Silk sub city summarizes his views on both services as follows;

> *I feel roads in Addis Ababa are improving from time to time. The basic challenging is in the transportation service. The public is dissatisfied with the daily transportation problems and challenges in areas like Lebu and of course in all parts of the city.*

In addition, participants have also complained the impact poor transportation service had on their work. A female informant from Kolfe-Keranio, who is a beneficiary of the poverty reduction program and owns a shop specializing in leather products states;

> *Transportation service is the most unsatisfactory service in the city. As a result of poor transportation services we are unable to get to work early or on time. It doesn't allow you to do what you plan effectively. Hence, I consider it as one of the main obstacles for our work.*

Moreover, increase in urban population, traffic congestion and limited capacity of existing transport service providers to cope with the existing demand are cited as main challenges hampering the transport service in the Addis Ababa.

10.6.7 Policing/Security

Most of the respondents feel that the safety and security of residents is now more ensured in comparison to previous years. This positive change is attributed by the work done by the police in Addis Ababa. One of the women FGD participants from Kolfe agrees to this assertion and states that criminals are no longer able to get away with their crimes due to the work of police in the city. Most of the participants hence state that they feel safer and secure in their neighborhoods than before.

10.7 Political rights and access to justice

This section presents data on exercise of political rights by various segments of the city's population as well as level of access to justice.

10.7.1 Political rights and participation

In response to questions posed on the rights and participation of individuals in politics, diverse opinions among female and youth study participants was observed on the subject. Most of the participant's assessment of political participation of citizens was positive. Women participant in particular expressed their admiration to the work carried out by the government to improve women's visibility and participation in politics and most importantly their involvement in

decision making starting from the lower level of administrative offices. The following accounts attest to the changes observed in women's right, political participation and its impact. One of the female FGD participants from Kolfe states,

> *Now women are able to elect and be elected. Especially at the woreda level and sub city level we see women occupying different administrative positions. If they encounter any problem in their work or marriage they can get support and justice through the women's affairs office or the courts.*

Female FGD participant from Addis Ketema,

> *It is now becoming common to see women parliament members and women lawyers. It is also recently that women became entitled for inheritance. Added to these, women have now the right to elect and be elected.*

Female FGD participant from Gulele,

> *Government has tried to narrow the gap between men and women thorough affirmative action. This tells me the government is doing a lot to assure our political and legal rights that are clearly stipulated in the constitution is respected.*

Although the law grants women the right to participate and engage in decision making process, there are still challenges in its implementation. Describing one of the major challenges female FGD participants from Bole explains,

> *The government has designed sound system to include participation of women in the political system. Nevertheless, officials in the woreda level have problem in interpreting and implementing what has been stated in different policies and strategies.*

Moreover, even though the great majority of women participants largely agree in the changes in access to justice and increased opportunity and participation at the woreda level, it's also reported that the number of women participants decrease as you move to higher administrative and political positions. Supporting this statement a female participant from Nefas Silk sub city stated,

Look at the parliament. It is easy to witness how women are minority as compared to their male counterparts. They are very small in number and if you check their representation at the woreda cabinet level, you cannot find adequate number of women representatives.

Unlike the women participant of the study, response with youth participants tended to fall under to extreme categories. On the one hand there are those that accept and report the existence of good political atmosphere to freely express and engage in political discussions and activities. Common example used to express this argument is growing involvement of youth in electing officials, recognition of the right to be elected and to freely express their opinion. Two youth FGD participants from Addis Ketema similarly stated,

During the Derg Regime, the youth were needed for war. But now the youth are needed for development works. We participate in youth forum, youth association and youth league.

Another participant added that, tt is currently and with EPRDF that youth participation in election and other public organizations which became reality and were non existence in former times.
One the other hand there are those who argue contrary to the positive review of political participation of youth and current political environment in the country. To this effect some of the youth participants indicated that there is limited or no favorable atmosphere to actively participate in the political discussion in the country. They have even suggested that they feel threatened and afraid to involve in politics as they might be negatively targeted for supporting opposition groups.

Responses from FGDs with youth representatives show that some of them feel restricted to freely express their views on political issues. They feel excluded as they believe access to justice and fair political participation is closed off for the youth. Moreover, the explained that access to certain benefits and positions are linked with being a supporter or a member of the current ruling party.

Youth forum members, on the other hand disagree, on the assertion that the political participation in the country is closed off for the youth. They indicate such stages as the youth

forum are established to include the youth in the political discussion of the country not to alienate them.

10.7.2 Access to Justice

Assessment of access to justice has been largely mixed. Similar to the review of political participation women and youth participants' outlook of the justices system differs in some regards. To this effect the data indicate women's view of the current justice system to be favorable and accessible to most women in the country. The majority reported that they are able to get the necessary support from governmental offices and the measures put in place by the government has been effective to ensure women's right are respected in all areas. One of the Female FGD participants from Kolfe accounts of women's participation and access to justice is reflective of the above argument,

> *If a woman encounters any problem in her personal life she will be provided help from the women's affair office to resolve the issue. If she encounters any challenge in her work or marriage she is able to get fair decision from the courts as well.*

Contrary to this view, majority of the youth participants feel that there is a great challenge to getting justice and adequate services from government offices on time.

Moreover, participants have also indicated challenges they say hinders their chance to fully exercise and benefit from their rights. This includes corruption, nepotism, inefficient working environment, rent seeking behavior of officials, discrimination based on socio-economic status and lack of good governance. The problem of good governance which has been repeatedly mentioned by the majority of the participants is highlighted in the account of one of the an informant from Kolfe sub city as follows: "g*enerally speaking there is good governance but because of some officials at the kebele level who lack discipline and professionalism you see problems in how things are done that are in contrary to the principles of good governance."*

Another informant from Bole also indicate the challenge at woreda level as follows:

> *In government offices, especially in woreda offices, the officials are rent seeker. The concept of transparency and accountability in these offices is very much absent.*

Discrimination based on people's economic status was also reported by participants in Akaki and Bole as well. A participant from Bole sub city argues as follows: "*he government official's treatment towards people from different economic status varies. This unequal treatment based on status determines the quality of service provided accordingly."*

10.8 Measures taken by GO, NGOs and private investors to alleviate Poverty in the last five years

The study also looked into the major measures that have been taken by the government and NGOs and the private sector to alleviate poverty in the city. The study found the role of Micro and Small Scale Enterprises Development program of the government has been instrumental. The MSEs development program has created job opportunities for youth and women who were in a very deprived situation. The government provides all the necessary support for those who show an interest to participate in MSEs development project and improve themselves. The supports include proving trainings, working promises, and loan. A community leader from Akaki Sub city said the following to demonstrate how the government was making the provision of loans easier. "Addis Credit and Saving Institution is doing great job. When people want to start a business they come up with a project showing what they are planning to do including the amount of money needed to implement it. Then they are given the loan. This has helped many unemployed people." It was found there is a linkage between the MSEs development project and other projects the government has been carrying out in the city. The following quotation taken from a government official from Arada Sub city describes that link:

> *The government has been implementing a huge housing development projects in the city. MSEs that are engaged in the construction sector have been contracting and working in the housing projects. The MSEs have been taking up to 40 percent of the work in the housing project. The same is true with road infrastructure development activities carried out in the city. For instance, if you take the cobles stone work, they have created a job opportunities for MSEs. The MSEs stay in the coble stone for one or two years and after that depending on their performance they are promoted to other sectors. The light train construction also has had its own contributions to alleviate the problem of unemployed people in the city.*

Likewise, the youth and women who participated in the study said they have been benefiting a lot from the projects. For instance, youth FGD participants from Kolfe Keranio sub city acknowledged

the fact that the government's MSEs development program has been very important in improving the lives of many youth in the sub city. One of the participants said: "the development projects being carried out in the city such as the road constructions, the condominium housing project have been supporting MSEs and youth who are unemployed. For instance, I have been benefiting from the housing project. Women FGD participants too reported women have been benefiting via MSEs. Women who participated in the FGD from Yeka sub city said: "there are women who have improved their lives by engaging in MSEs in our sub city. We are among such women".

In addition to the activities that have been carried out by the government NGOs have been working to alleviate poverty in the city. The NGOs have been playing important role by providing trainings and finance for unemployed people and vulnerable (disabled, elderly, orphans) people in the city and helping them to start generating their own income. However, these activities are carried out in collaboration with the government. Women FGD participants from Akaki Kaliti Sub city explain how they have benefited from the activities carried out by an NGO called Emanuel Development Association: "Emanuel Development Association is contributing a lot improve the lives of poor women in our sub city. They offered us training and then gave us equipments and money to start our own business. We are now running a cafeteria and we are benefiting a lot from it."

There are other NGOs which are supporting the government's effort to alleviate poverty in the city. Women FGD participant from Kolfe Keranio sub city explains how World Vision tried to support poor women in the sub city: "World Vision has been trying its best to help improve the lives of the poor. This organization provides training for women by covering all the necessary cost. It has trained for instance, women in sewing and provided them with 20 sewing machines. They are now waiting for the government to give them a working premise. The CSO representatives who participated as key informant in the interviews also said their activities are in line with the priorities and activities of the government. A key informant representing an NGO working in Arada Sub city explains: "the government has clearly indicated areas where we can help. We are trying our best to help the government in those areas. We, for instance, support the government's effort in the education sector by providing students of low income families with materials and money. We also help teachers by providing training aimed at enhancing their skill. In the area job creation we offer trainings to help unemployed people have their own source of income." Some respondents also stated the contribution of the private investors particularly in creating job opportunities for unemployed people in the city has been great. A women FGD participant from Arada Sub city said: "In my view, investors are contributing their share in the poverty alleviation and job creation efforts of in Addis Ababa. The

contribution of flower farms in creating job opportunity for women deserves mention. Women are benefiting from it." Other participants talked about how other investors engaged in the service sector such as hotel are creating job opportunities for unemployed people in the city.

10.9 Successes/Benefits of the Development Programs

The study participants were asked to identify successes/benefits of the development programs that have been undertaken in the city. Regarding the successes of Micro and small scale enterprise development program the respondents provided the following major success/benefits. First, the participants reported their involvement in the MSEs helped them have their own source of income and enabled them to avoid being dependent on other family members. Women FGD participants from Bole sub city explained that participating in MSEs has enabled them to be self sufficient; they said they are no longer dependent on their husbands for money.

They also said because they are working outside home their decision making power in their own family has increased. The other benefit the participants derived from participating in MSEs was increased habit of saving. An in-depth interview participant from Bole Sub city said: "I have benefited a lot by working together in MSE. Above all it has encouraged me to think about saving seriously and start doing so. Saving from the money that I receive from the business, I am managed to send my children to a private school." The government officials interviewed provided instances of success in MSEs development that substantiates the ideas of women and youth who were interviewed. For instance, a government official from Akaki Kalit Sub city explained:

> *There is a furniture factory called Aka known for its exemplary success in our sub city. It has 50 temporary and permanent employees. Now the factory is planning to expand and has required the sub city for additional land. It has also been promoted to middle level by the Sub city. It was started by few unemployed people."*

Similarly, one of the male informant from Kirkos sub city reported that due to his involvement in MSE he was able to get a loan and start a café and restaurant business with his six friends. As a result he is now making 4100 birr a month a significant improvement in earnings as opposed to 300birr he used to be paid a year ago. Another women FGD participant from Akaki sub city also describes her experience with MSEs as follows;

I am very happy with MSE service. It helped me to realize that I can work and earn a leaving and change my life on my own. I used to think because I don't have an education or any skill what so ever I will leave in despair for the rest of my life. But now I am self employed and I have a business with over 100,000 birr capital.

In the area of housing development a number of benefits have been identified by the participants. The major benefit of the housing projects being undertaken in the city is the fact that it is enabling residents to have their own house. Respondents stated that because they are no longer living in a rented house they are spending the money they used to pay for their rent for other important purposes. The other benefit of having own house is the freedom to use water, toilet and to come and leave at anytime of the day. An interviewee from Yeka sub city explained: "Living in your own house has a lot of advantages over renting. When you rent, you lose your freedom. I have seen it. I am paying a monthly payment (mortgage fee) for my house. But this is my house. I am happy. I have been lucky enough to own my house. That is my great success in the last five years." Likewise, a woman from Bole sub city said: "three years back I lived in a rented house. And the rent was increasing from time to time. I am living in my own house now. I can do whatever I want in my house; I am free. I have also fully furnished it; I am very happy."

The other benefit of the housing project is that it has created job opportunity for many unemployed people in the city. Those working in MSEs are the main beneficiaries. A key informant from Nifas Silk sub city explains: "There are friends of mine who work in the public housing projects. They have contracted to execute electrical wiring in 10/90, 20/80 and 40/60 condominium schemes. Their capital has grown enormously within a few years and they are now planning to engage in the transportation sector."

Similarly, a youth FGD participant from the same sub city said: "As far as the housing development program is concerned, I can say the youth are benefiting. Some youth have managed to have their own house. But the major benefit of this project to the youth is the job opportunity. There are many youth who formed MSEs and engaged in the various activities of the project. For instance, some MSEs provide different construction materials in different construction sites. They are benefiting a lot."

Some participants said the housing project has been used as a means to deal with the rising cost of living in the city. One participant from Bole Sub city said: most of the beneficiaries of the project rent it out for Somali, Eritrea, and Sudan refuges. They benefit from the money they generate from the house rent. Then they rent a house which is less expensive and use the rest of the money they receive as rent to cover other household expenses. Few participants also talked about how the housing project has been changing the image of the city by clearing slums.

Finally, the participants acknowledged the fact that the government has been investing a lot of resource in road and rail way infrastructure developments in the city. The participants identified a number of benefits these projects have brought the residents of the city. The first major benefit was the fact that it has created job opportunities and helped to change the lives of money unemployed people. The following quotation taken from a government official from Arada sub city reflects this: "the construction of the cobblestone road has created many jobs. People are changing their lives significantly by engaging in them. Some MSEs have been able to raise their capital up to 300 thousand Birr and have been promoted to the manufacturing sector."

Some of said it has increased their income as they are getting more customers because they are now more accessible. A youth who participated in the FGD from Akaki sub city said: "The construction of the road in our village is facilitating our activity; earlier our customers had difficulty finding us or visiting us because the road was very bad for vehicles especially when it rains. The construction of this road has changed everything. Our customers are coming to us more easily and they have increased in number too."

Others said it has enabled them to use their time effectively by saving the time they spent on walking as there was no transpiration. A participant form Akaki Kalit Sub city stated: "The cobblestone road has helped us enormously. It was very difficult for vehicles to use so there was not any taxi or three-wheeler coming to our neighborhood. Now we have taxis and three-wheelers and we are now able to get to work on time and we are managing our time properly." Still others acknowledged the contribution of the light rail way which is under construction in terms of facilitating mobility and creating employment opportunities as well as knowledge transfer for those participating in the construction process.

10.10 Shortcomings of Development Programs

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Some of the participants identified challenges as regards the MSEs development project. The first shortcoming identified by the participants was the difficulty to get loan. They said requirements for loan are difficult to meet and that the interest rate is very high. The following quotation from a government official from Bole Sub city represents this concern: "The difficulty in getting credit from Addis Credit and saving is the main shortcoming related to MSE. Anyone who wants to get loan from the institution has to save at least 25% of the money that they want to borrow. Such procedures are hindrance for the poor people to start working. The other difficulty is the collateral which is often difficult to meet for most people.

The other shortcoming is the problem to get working promise. This was reported as a huge challenge by most of the respondents. For instance, a government official from Arada Sub city said: "lack of working premise has been a huge challenge. This year we have more than 100 people who were trained to engage in trade sector we have not been able to provide them with working premise. This was also reported by other participants. A women FGD participant from Kolfe Keraneo Sub city said: "An NGO gave us sewing training and bought us sewing machines but because we could not find working premise we are not working. This is a serious problem." Besides, the fact that working premises are not available has prevented the timely promotion of MSEs who have performed well.

Lack of good governance has also been found to be a serious challenge as well. Some said the process of selection to join MSEs is not clear. Others said it involves unnecessary requirements and steps which exclude some poor people who really need support. Still others raised the problem of corruption.

The other problem identified was lack of proper follow up. An interviewee form Akaki Kaliti sub city said: "a lot has been done in terms of organizing unemployed people in MSEs. However the task is not carried out properly. They organize people under MSEs for the sake of organizing. They don't follow them. They might not know for years if the MSEs have been dissolved; they just don't care." Some of the government officials accepted this is the case. For instance, a government official from Arada sub city said: "there is high turnover of employees in the MSEs office. Due to low salary employees often leave. That is why we are not providing the necessary support to MSEs operators. In terms of budget and incentive this sector is underprivileged. We have 10 woredas the manpower we

have is half of what is needed to cover the 10 woredas. This must be seriously considered. So it is true we have limitation in terms of follow up."

As far as the housing project is concerned two major challenges have been identified by the participants. The first one is the issue of affordability. Most of the participants reported the price of the houses is beyond the capacity of most people. They also said due to the government's attempt to bring about wealth distribution between the residents seems not to be working. They said those who cannot afford the payment are selling it and those who buy it are getting richer by renting it out at a higher price. The other major problem identified by the participants was the quality of the houses. All most all the participants said this has become a serious problem. The third shortcoming was that they are not handed in timely to the owners. They said it takes a long period of time to receive the houses after they have been announced to the winners. Some of them also reported because the houses are not completely finished ones it has created a burden on the recipients.

Regarding urban renewal projects two major issues have been raised. The first one is not giving due attention to the livelihood of those people who are displaced for urban renewal purposes. Thus, it was reported due to this many people are finding it difficult to cope in the new place they are relocated. The other problem was the failure of the government to provide replacement and compensation timely and properly. This has also caused a problem on those who are displaced.

Finally the participants identified some shortcomings regarding the road and other infrastructures developments in the city. They have identified three shortcomings. The first is related to the quality of the infrastructures especially roads. They said some the roads constructed are not of good quality. Some participants said some of the roads start deteriorating even before they have been used for two years. Respondents also stated that there is lack of proper maintainance. According to them the roads are being damaged after millions have been spent on them because the government has not taken the issue of maintenance seriously. The third issue raised by the participants was the issue of coordination among government bodies, namely EEPC, Water and Sewerage Authority and Ethio Telecom. The respondents showed these government organizations have been causing serious damage especially on the newly built roads in the city for they lack coordination amongst themselves.

10.11 Consideration of Social Factors in Development Programs

According to interview with local government officials, when the government plans to carry out certain activities in the community it makes sure the activities will benefit those that really need it most. It was reported during the interview the government applies rigorous systems to identify such people by working closely with the community. The following quote of a government official from Arada Sub city supports this: "when we make people form MSEs we take different factors into consideration to determine the right beneficiaries. For instance, currently we are giving priority to people who returned from Arab Countries especially from Saudi Arabia. The other category of people we give priority to is people living with HIV. Then follow those unemployed people who are ready to work."

The other frequently mentioned social factor during the interviews by government officials and CSO representatives was the fact that development programs and interventions are designed to include the disabled. For instance, it was reported by government officials that disabled people were given trainings, formed MSEs and started to change their lives. They have also started contributing their share to the development of the country. Likewise, other facilities constructed by the government including housing projects, roads and other facilities are also designed taking into consideration the needs of people with disability. The government official from Arada Sub city also explains: "when we get youth centers designed we make sure people with disability can use them. So in the facilities already operational people with disability are using them."

The other thing the government officials raised was how they involve the community members with the aim of creating a sense of ownership of the development programs. Committees have been established from the community members. These committees have a number of purposes. For instance, these committees are meant to work with the government and other bodies like CSOs in dealing with different problems in the community such as security, employment creation, sanitation and so forth. A following idea of a CSO representative from Akaki Sub city supports this: "There are committees that are formed to help determine who should be included in our employment creation program. They discuss with the community, investigate and come up with appropriate people for the support. Then the names are sent to Micro and Small Enterprise Development Bureau.

Some CSO representatives said they carry out a study to identify the major problems in the community. Based on the findings of the study we design our projects. This is how we make sure our activities go in line with the interest of the community. It was also found *iddirs* and other similar associations have been also instrumental in development interventions the government has been carrying out by creating awareness, identifying problems and mobilizing their members.

Chapter 11: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

11.1 Summary

Poverty is a deep social malaise that needs to be addressed properly. The nature, extent and trends of poverty, however, need to be understood in order to form sound basis for policy formulation and also to evaluate the influence of past policies on poverty. In line with this, this study was commissioned by the Addis Ababa Bureau of Finance and Economic Development to track changes in the poverty situation in Addis Ababa during the five year period (2010/11-2015). This study is based on the Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure and Welfare and Monitoring Surveys conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia in 2010/11 and afresh data collected on Household Consumption and Expenditure and Welfare and Monitoring Situations from 3840 sampled households survey conducted by the Institute of Development and Policy Research of Addis Ababa University.

Results of the surveys conducted by the CSA in 2011 had served as baseline information whilst the data that were collected in 2015 were used to observe changes over time and assess the poverty situation of city residents at the moment. Qualitative data have also been collected through key informant and in-depth interviews as well as focus group discussion.

The quantitative data collected focused on the demographic characteristics and economic activities of households, livelihood status, household consumption, expenditure patterns of non-durable goods, schooling and health conditions of household members, housing standards and amenities; access, utilization and satisfaction of basic facilities, ownership of fixed assets and major shocks faced by the household members, and good governance including basic political and civil rights and political participation and justice.

The qualitative data focused on the perception and attitude of people concerning the causes of poverty, changes in poverty and inequality, benefits and shortcomings of development activities, service provision and shocks and coping strategies

The study showed results on demographic characteristics of respondents, consumption (income) related results, welfare indicators related results, and results related to perceptions and attitudes on

good governance and other dimensions of poverty including the benefits and shortcomings of development interventions.

Regarding the results on the demographic characteristics, the projected population size of Addis Ababa has increased from 2,850,499 in 2011 to 3,100,425 in 2015, with an estimated annual population growth rate of 2.1% per annum. Some of the sub-cities like Kolfe Karaniyo are observed to have their population increase at annual growth rate of 4.2% per annum whilst others like Kirkos is seen to reduce at the rate of 3% per annum due to the on-going relocation of population residential sites in connection with city renovation program. The population of the City is in general observed to increase mainly due to in-migration into the city in search of job and educational opportunities despite the low fertility level which is below replacement level. Hence there is excessive young population in the city and unemployment rate in the city in 2015 is about 10% among males and 19% among females. Average household size is about 3.8 persons in 2015 showing no change**.** As a result of construction and distribution of condominium houses in the city, congestion per room has, however, reduced slightly. Proportion of households with large size (i.e. 7 and above) has reduced from 22.6% in 2011 to 16.3% in 2015. Access to housing has, however, tended to increase the proportion of female headed households owning houses from 39% in 2011 to 43.8% in 2015 mainly due to the influence of the City Government's Housing Policy of giving priority to female headed households. The increase in population size of the City due to net in-migration rate has also increased the number of young population looking for job despite the initiative to reduce unemployment rate in the city

The consumption (income) related results revealed that in terms of income (consumption), poverty and inequality, Addis Ababa City Administration has shown a substantial progress over the last five years. Per capita income (real per capita consumption) increased by 99% with average of 24% per year and poverty head count index declined from 28.1% in 2011 to 18.9% in 2015 showing a decline of poverty by 49%. Addis Ababa not only managed to increase per capita income and reduce poverty, but also managed to keep income inequality very low and slightly reduced it overtime. Income inequality measured by the Gini coefficient of real consumption per capita declined from 0.46 % in 2005 to 0.34 in 2011 and to 0.32 in 2015.

The state of consumption and poverty by sub-city however showed variations. Bole has the highest consumption per capita and is followed by Akaki while Addis Ketema and Arada have the lowest consumptions in 2015. The share of expenditure on food in total consumption expenditure for

different sub-cities ranges between 38.8% and 60.4% with the city average being 48%. The share however has declined for all sub-cities indicating the growth of non-food expenditure.

Regarding the incidence of poverty, some sub cities (Addis Ketema, Arada, Lideta) have persistently shown higher poverty level than the city average while others (Kirkos, Akaki Kaliti) have improved in their poverty situation between the years 2011-2015. In general however, poverty head count index declined in all sub cities of Addis Ababa except Arada and Addis Ketema sub cities where poverty did not decline.

The characteristics of the poor revealed that poverty is higher among female headed households than male headed households. Widowers have a high incidence of poverty than others as well. Similarly the proportion of households living below poverty line increases with household size. Households with 6 and over 7 household members have 29.6% and 44.1% of poverty prevalence respectively as opposed to those with three or less than three household members whose poverty prevalence rises only up to 5.7% .

The study also revealed that education has an inverse relationship with poverty incidence. In particular those out of the formal education system (with no education and with informal education) have a high poverty incidence that reaches about 31 % while those with high level of education have shown a decreased level of poverty incidence (6.3% for university graduates). Poverty is also low among those engaged in productive work as opposed to those who are not and varies by types of occupations. Those in elementary occupation have higher incidence while those undertaking professional activities have shown lower incidence.

The results pertaining to welfare indicators revealed that literacy rate among population aged 5 and above are about 94% among males and about 84% among females indicating that there are still gender gaps in educational attainment in the City. Net enrolment is about three-fourth at first primary cycle (1-4 grades), about 70% in the second primary cycle (5-8 grades) and about 40% in high schools (9-10) indicating that the initiatives to build human capital still requires more initiative and efforts to produce professionals and skilled personnel among residents of the City. An increase in the proportion of students attending government schools is very encouraging though there are still complaints on the quality of education and wider expectation of residents from the sector. The majority of City residents are also found to have satisfaction in health service provision particularly in health centres and hospitals. Free medical services to the poor upon production of support letter from local authorities appear to narrow the gap in the demand for health services.

Even though construction and transfer of condominium housing have resolved housing problems and housing congestion to some extent, the program is not yet in a position to benefit the poor as the proportion of households living in owned houses have not shown much improvement. Qualitative information in this regard show that beneficiaries of the condominium housing program are either selling off the residential quarters or rent them out for the mere reason of the difficulty of making the down payment and contributing to the monthly fees. The prevailing increased cost of living in the city at the moment is noted as one of the main difficulties to enjoy the chance of owning modern residential quarters in Addis Ababa. Nonetheless the facilities at the condominium houses particularly access to modern kitchen, toilet and bath facilities as well as privately owned electricity and tap water are highly appreciated by residents of the City. Despite improvement in access to source of drinking water and electricity for lighting and cooking, frequent and repeated interruption of flow water and electric power supplies are identified as the biggest issues upsetting residents of the City. Residents have serious complaints over the frequent and repeated interruption of electric power supply and drinking water in their residential localities. Variations are, however, observed across sub-cities in the number of times the interruption occurred during a week. Given the improvement in the economic conditions and labour productivity in the city, the proportion of households owning some durable items such as mobile phones, television, radio/tape, chair/table, sofa set, electric *mitad* and the like has shown much improvement between 2011 and 2015. It is also noted as a sign of improvement in the quality of life in the City.

Regarding livelihoods, shocks and food shortages the study found out that the bulk of the respondents in Addis Ababa are salaried people and use wage labor as their main source of income. Those who are self-employed are fewer in proportion. Participation in MSEs and micro finance is limited in number though these are important sources of livelihood particularly from the perspective of the poor. Households in the city have faced multiple shocks with females experiencing a slightly more shocks than males. Price rise followed by shortage of water have been cited as the most important shocks faced by households. Household's response to changes in living condition indicates that the majority did not see much improvement. Those who have said it has decreased however are less in 2015 than those who reported the same in 2011. Regarding the status of food, households who have reported food shortage have decreased significantly compared to 2011. In the same way the average number of months during which time households experienced food shortage decreased from 3.8 months to 3.4 months. Improvements were also recorded in the perception of the food status.

With regard to good governance, the responses of the household revealed that there is a room to improve the accountability of officials by incorporating public suggestions in their decision and there

is also a room for people's representativeness to keep the interests of the people, Similarly most of the respondents judged Government's and parliaments performance as being fair indicating the need to improve the situation.

Accessibility and quality of services as governance issues were also studied and the results indicate that while access to both education and health is relatively easy, there is a concern regarding the quality of both health and education services indicating that there is a gap in this regard. Access to affordable housing and employment however are sited as major problems in the city. Residents have acknowledged that transport network is in good condition in the city but transport service remains to be of poor state. Regarding justice and rule of law, the police and the court are trusted in the city and residents have expressed that they make use of the two institutions.

The results on the perception and attitude of people from the qualitative study revealed that the causes of poverty are multitude. The factors mentioned by respondents include negative attitude of people towards work, reliance on government to receive jobs, lack of good governance, lack of education and skills, lack of capital, large family size, shocks etc. Regarding perception on changes in poverty and inequality opinions differ. Some of the respondent had very positive opinion about the changes that have been observed over the last five years. Others believe despite the changes and governments success in reducing the number of poor people, they feel that a lot has to be done to further reduce poverty and also stress that some of the gains in poverty is being eroded due to increasing price of commodities with the result that the increasing income has not improved their standard of living. Still others, though few in number compared to the above two group of participants, feel poverty and inequality has been increasing from time to time instead of falling.

Regarding development intervention to reduce poverty, the participants agree that interventions such as the MSE development, the housing program, land and urban redevelopment and infrastructure have all benefitted people in creating employment, increasing income and providing houses. They, however, mentioned several weaknesses of each intervention. In the MSE program it was mentioned that bureaucratic red tape, lack of working premise, lack of coordination among different agencies discourage the unemployed people from entering in the MSE program. In the housing program inability of the poor to pay the down-payment, the limitation of the design and quality of the condominium houses were raised.

With regard to roads and infrastructure, the lack of coordination among different agencies, the lack of prompt response to requests for assistance and delayance in completion were raised as issues.

Shortcomings of the land development and urban renewal program include corruption, absence of proper compensation and illegal land occupation.

With regard to service provision, results confirm the quantitative part in that access to services is viewed positively by respondents while questions were raised regarding the quality of services.

Shocks related to death, divorce, unemployment/loss of job and homelessness were raised and all these are found to create difficulty in meeting the daily needs of subsistence and also translate into physical and psychological problems. The latter is manifested in terms of suffering from depression, suicide tendencies, addiction and other mental illnesses. Households also indicate that they engage in some positive coping mechanisms (engaging in business, migration to other urban areas or other countries) and negative mechanisms (prostitution, dropping out of school, abuse of addictive substances, engagement in criminal activities and dependency on family members).

11.2 Conclusion

Addis Ababa is a thriving city with rapid population growth mainly fuelled by rural-urban and urban-urban migration. In such situation it is expected that urbanization of poverty will occur and the city government has the responsibility of addressing the problem. Addis Ababa city administration has been very active in implementing national development program known as Growth and Transformation Plan and various poverty reduction interventions such the Micro and Small Enterprise Program, Housing Development, Land Development and Infrastructure Development etc. It appears that these interventions have paid off as the incidence of poverty in the city declined from 28.1% in 2011 to 18.9% in 2015. A rise in consumption per capita and a decline in inequality as measured by Gini coefficient also point to the same conclusion. These gains however are not equally shared among the sub-cities in the city. The fact that some sub-cities have shown consistently higher than city average poverty level and lower than city average income indicates that there is a need to examine closely at the local situations and address the problems. In addition, the high poverty incidence among females, the uneducated, households with large family sizes and those employed in elementary occupation is indicative of the fact the gains made at city level are not uniform for different socio-economic groups and this implies there is a need for more targeting in tackling consumption poverty in the city.

The welfare indicators in the city showed an improvement in some indicators but not in others. Access to basic services such as education and health has improved though with reservations in the

quality. The use of drinking water from own tab and use of electricity as cooking fuel and ownership of durable assets have shown improvements. Other indicators which have not shown significant improvement or which have improved slightly include home ownership, number of occupants in a house, use of facilities such as standard toilets, kitchens, fixed bathing place . It thus appears that if poverty is understood in terms of welfare indicators, the city still needs to improve a lot in order to provide its citizens with all services and facilities that improve standards of living.

The fact that households in the city experience shocks is born both in the quantitative and qualitative data. The high price rise and the water shortage are shocks that affect the wider segment of the city residents. These types of shocks reduce people's welfare and need to be carefully addressed.

The qualitative part has shown that people acknowledge the benefits of the development intervention but also these interventions have their own problems. This indicates that the effectiveness of these development intervention is reduced.

11.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations emanate from the findings of the study

1. Targeting

The result has shown that though city wide improvements are noted in poverty and inequality, these gains are not uniform in all localities and for all socio-economic groups. There is therefore a need to introduce targeting in poverty reduction policy formulation in the city.

a)Spatial targeting: Some sub-cities have shown low income and high poverty incidence. These sub-cities need to be isolated and targeted for further improvements.

b) Socio-economic groups targeting: Particular socio-economic groups such as females, the uneducated, households with large family size need to be given special assistance in order to improve their situations

2. Quality of education and health services

City residents are concerned with the quality of education and health services they receive. These are critical and important issues in order to address the human capital needs of the city and the country. Lack of education and skill is also mentioned as one of the causes of poverty in the qualitative study. The city government should closely look into these issues. Quality of service provision can be ensured if regular monitoring and evaluation systems are designed and properly implemented to

check the activities of both politically appointed officials and civil servants at the *woreda* level as well as other government run institutions. In order to improve the health care service provision, the government has to enforce greater control over distribution of medicine and establish a way to make the health care institutions fully equipped with the necessary materials and trained personnel. This can intern reduce the chance of being referred to private clinics by government facilities as indicated in the qualitative study.

3.Service improvement

Poor service delivery has come up as an issue in both the qualitative and quantitative results. For instance water shortage was cited as the second most important shock household faced. Similarly, electric interruption and outage, poor transportation service, bad network connection, lack of youth recreation centers have also been mentioned as serious problems. There is therefore a need to improve all these in order to address the needs of the citizens.

4.Access to affordable house

Access to affordable house still remains a major problem of city residents. The study revealed that despite the massive housing program the city government is implementing, households living in owned houses increased slightly compared to 2011. This perhaps could be due to a mismatch between household formation, migration and rates of house construction. There is therefore a need to bridge the gap by employing diverse measures including the creation of enabling environment for households to engage in own house construction in addition to the government program.

In relation to this it should also be pointed out since many poor families have raised the issue that the amount of money requested for a condominium lottery winner to receive the house is unaffordable , the payment system has to be re-examined in order to fully benefit women, youth, the poor and the disabled.

5.Gainful employment

In many cases, households in cities depend on their labor and hence employment is a very crucial aspect of urban livelihood. The study revealed that nearly 90% indicated access to gainful

employment is not easy in the city. The qualitative study also pointed out the same problem in terms of the difficulty of getting organized in the MSE sector. The government has to create more job opportunities for the unemployed and at the same time provide more loans to run small businesses through the SME project more effectively. Moreover, the criteria for loan application in the project such as the issue of collateral must be revisited as it hinders certain segment of the society to effectively make use of the existing opportunity.

6.Rising cost of living

The dominant shock reported by the households in the city is the rising price of commodities. This was also corroborated in the qualitative study. The government must take steps to alleviate the rising cost of leaving particularly on the prices of basic food items like *teff*, vegetables, meat etc. Control of the market and the practice of ethical trade in this regard is a necessity.

7.Improving development intervention

Key informants and Focus group participants of the study mentioned several constraints of the existing development interventions. The participants also gave their own suggestion of how to improve the situation. These are described in the text for each intervention. The city government has to consider these suggestions and improve upon them in order to increase the effectiveness of the development interventions.

8. Good Governance

A significant proportion of residents have indicated that government rarely considers their suggestions and representatives rarely keep their interests. This indicates that there is room for improving accountability and responsiveness in the city. The government must encourage the practice of good governance in the different public service providing institutions and in peoples' representatives. In addition the qualitative study showed that participants feel appointment to a public office is politically motivated and public officers tend to abuse their power. It is therefore imperative to install the values of transparency and accountability in appointing public officers in order to improve service provision and bring about client satisfaction in public institution.

9. Social Protection: One of the major causes of poverty is loss of income as a result of various shocks. Social protection mechanisms need to be put in place to care for segments of the population that can't support themselves/their families. .

10. Specific issues that need be addressed as raised by FGD participants and intervieews.

Urban Renewal: an open and transparent system as well as adequate prior preparation needs to be made to smoothly resettle displaced households and/or compensate them appropriately.

MSEs: Access to financial services for MSEs has to be improved by increasing loan provision, and simplifying and making more transparent the process of giving loans. Moreover, market linkage for SME operators has to be created/ improved. In addition, awareness creation about MSEs and capacity building training for beneficiaries must be strengthened. For those who are already benefiting from MSEs, a place to produce and display their products must be arranged.

Condominium houses: The quality of constructed houses and roads has to be ensured through regular and close supervision of contractors. It was also recommended that the design and construction of condominium housing and their environs should take into consideration the elderly and people with disabilities. Moreover, the price/payment modality of such housing has to be made suitable for low income households.

Youth Centers: existing youth centers need to be fully equipped and functional to attract more youth to make use of them. If this is implemented it will be able to draw away the youth from spending time in activities and areas detrimental for themselves.

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******** APPENDIX ******

Appendix 3.11 Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in Akaki Kality: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	8,741	9.09	8,506	7.98	6,242	6.53	6,922	6.22
5 -9	7,739	8.05	9,076	8.52	8,632	9.04	6,499	5.84
10-14	8,859	9.21	11,533	10.82	11,178	11.70	12,944	11.64
15-19	9,500	9.88	16,075	15.08	7,598	7.95	12,911	11.61
20-24	14,402	14.98	14,035	13.17	8,412	8.81	13,956	12.55
25-29	12,845	13.36	15,103	14.17	10,653	11.15	14,534	13.06
30-34	5,647	5.87	6,085	5.71	9,199	9.63	10,817	9.72
35-39	6,935	7.21	6,778	6.36	11,610	12.15	9,472	8.51
40-44	3,945	4.10	2,609	2.45	4,614	4.83	3,965	3.56
45-49	4,229	4.40	5,116	4.80	4,546	4.76	5,423	4.87
50-54	3,392	3.53	3,299	3.10	2,478	2.59	6,012	5.40
55-59	3,407	3.54	3,308	3.10	3,092	3.24	2,361	2.12
60-64	2,115	2.20	2,049	1.92	4,225	4.42	2,175	1.95
65+	4,386	4.56	3,001	2.82	3,057	3.20	3,255	2.93
Not Stated								
Total	96,143	100.00	106,571	100.00	95,537	100.00	111,245	100.00

Appendix 3.12 Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in Nefas Silk Lafto: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	10,710	7.47	11,148	6.64	16,006	9.10	11,513	5.20
5 -9	11,695	8.16	12,233	7.29	11,386	6.48	11,454	5.17
10-14	13,825	9.64	13,008	7.75	13,067	7.43	16,322	7.37
15-19	13,247	9.24	25,134	14.98	18,212	10.36	31,265	14.12
20-24	17,333	12.09	29,001	17.28	18,061	10.27	28,115	12.70
25-29	20,988	14.64	20,946	12.48	20,283	11.54	35,176	15.89
30-34	11,847	8.26	16,418	9.79	20,033	11.40	19,135	8.64
35-39	11,263	7.85	11,671	6.96	15,109	8.59	15,538	7.02
40-44	9,335	6.51	5,547	3.31	11,062	6.29	8,598	3.88
45-49	6,348	4.43	6,768	4.03	6,887	3.92	10,261	4.63
50-54	5,747	4.01	3,824	2.28	8,908	5.07	7,831	3.54
55-59	3,059	2.13	2,633	1.57	3,721	2.12	8,631	3.90
60-64	3,065	2.14	2,474	1.47	3,711	2.11	6,809	3.08
65+	4,707	3.28	6,982	4.16	9,361	5.32	8,058	3.64
Not Stated	235	0.16					2,720	1.23
Total	143,403	100.00	167,789	100.00	175,807	100.00	221,427	100.00

Appendix 3.13 Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in Kolfe Keraniyo: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	21,300	10.70	20,747	9.38	30,456	13.24	24,156	9.01
5 -9	17,824	8.95	22,517	10.18	20,693	9.00	24,271	9.06
10-14	18,309	9.20	23,583	10.66	24,347	10.58	21,920	8.18
15-19	20,163	10.13	30,449	13.77	17,249	7.50	35,641	13.30
20-24	22,305	11.20	27,239	12.32	19,979	8.69	33,415	12.47
25-29	26,926	13.53	35,675	16.13	27,604	12.00	40,687	15.18
30-34	18,284	9.18	18,680	8.45	25,905	11.26	19,546	7.29
35-39	15,434	7.75	14,799	6.69	19,078	8.29	19,953	7.44
40-44	12,513	6.29	7,560	3.42	9,671	4.20	9,208	3.44
45-49	6,951	3.49	6,576	2.97	10,798	4.69	8,273	3.09
50-54	4,120	2.07	5,321	2.41	8,518	3.70	11,309	4.22
55-59	2,991	1.50	2,910	1.32	5,001	2.17	4,927	1.84
60-64	5,279	2.65	2,971	1.34	3,238	1.41	5,907	2.20
65+	6,672	3.35	2,132	0.96	7,490	3.26	7,203	2.69
Not Stated							1,604	0.60
Total	199,072	100.00	221,159	100.00	230,027	100.00	268,021	100.00

Appendix 3.14 Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in Gulele: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	10,219	8.16	7,662	5.27	9,430	7.27	12,937	8.16
5 -9	11,202	8.94	9,745	6.70	9,974	7.69	9,616	6.06
10-14	10,179	8.13	12,418	8.54	11,797	9.09	13,476	8.50
15-19	14,039	11.21	18,397	12.65	10,146	7.82	17,148	10.81
20-24	13,615	10.87	16,845	11.58	14,217	10.96	21,955	13.85
25-29	16,246	12.97	20,356	13.99	15,687	12.09	20,132	12.70
30-34	13,120	10.47	13,947	9.59	12,565	9.68	13,845	8.73
35-39	10,334	8.25	9,063	6.23	17,711	13.65	12,181	7.68
40-44	4,602	3.67	5,236	3.60	6,655	5.13	7,006	4.42
45-49	3,248	2.59	6,523	4.48	5,903	4.55	4,793	3.02
50-54	2,388	1.91	6,477	4.45	2,576	1.99	5,169	3.26
55-59	4,333	3.46	5,384	3.70	2,957	2.28	7,014	4.42
60-64	2,965	2.37	4,973	3.42	3,321	2.56	5,530	3.49
65+	8,785	7.01	8,437	5.80	6,833	5.27	7,762	4.90
Not Stated								
Total	125,275	100.00	145,462	100.00	129,770	100.00	158,565	100.00

Appendix 3.15 **Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in *Lideta*: 2011 and 2015**

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	5,439	5.91	4,605	4.43	5,943	6.40	5,113	4.55
5 -9	5,338	5.80	6,536	6.29	5,651	6.09	5,768	5.13
10-14	6,901	7.49	9,812	9.45	10,486	11.30	9,754	8.67
15-19	10,652	11.57	14,800	14.25	9,255	9.97	13,801	12.27
20-24	15,871	17.23	13,938	13.42	13,578	14.63	17,125	15.22
25-29	13,357	14.50	13,311	12.82	10,500	11.31	13,568	12.06
30-34	6,300	6.84	7,149	6.88	7,984	8.60	9,148	8.13
35-39	6,896	7.49	6,058	5.83	7,665	8.26	8,507	7.56
40-44	2,913	3.16	4,129	3.98	5,826	6.28	6,559	5.83
45-49	3,745	4.07	4,840	4.66	3,478	3.75	4,894	4.35
50-54	3,029	3.29	4,717	4.54	2,816	3.03	3,817	3.39
55-59	3,031	3.29	3,636	3.50	2,729	2.94	3,468	3.08
60-64	2,917	3.17	3,665	3.53	1,628	1.75	4,140	3.68
65+	5,712	6.20	6,668	6.42	5,267	5.68	6,824	6.07
Not Stated								
Total	92,102	100.00	103,866	100.00	92,806	100.00	112,486	100.00

Appendix 3.16 **Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in *Kirkos*: 2011 and 2015**

	2,011				2,015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	9,324	8.37	7,149	5.35	7,204	7.46	6,129	5.08
5 -9	8,294	7.45	6,930	5.19	4,640	4.81	6,543	5.43
10-14	6,867	6.17	8,956	6.70	6,556	6.79	8,136	6.75
15-19	10,331	9.27	17,572	13.15	7,682	7.96	13,538	11.22
20-24	15,524	13.94	21,682	16.23	9,575	9.92	14,815	12.28
25-29	15,358	13.79	18,599	13.92	15,292	15.84	15,996	13.26
30-34	9,628	8.64	10,101	7.56	9,639	9.99	11,410	9.46
35-39	8,055	7.23	10,165	7.61	10,235	10.60	11,751	9.74
40-44	6,448	5.79	6,509	4.87	7,676	7.95	7,339	6.09
45-49	5,429	4.87	5,171	3.87	5,328	5.52	4,795	3.98
50-54	3,492	3.14	3,702	2.77	2,991	3.10	4,353	3.61
55-59	3,206	2.88	3,876	2.90	1,477	1.53	5,372	4.45
60-64	2,801	2.52	4,059	3.04	3,078	3.19	3,712	3.08
65+	6,627	5.95	9,144	6.84	5,158	5.34	6,722	5.57
Not Stated								
Total	111,386	100.00	133,614	100.00	96,532	100.00	120,611	100.00

Appendix 3.17 Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in Arada: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	6,715	7.36	5,955	5.14	7,068	7.00	6,469	4.94
5 -9	7,762	8.51	8,508	7.35	5,878	5.82	5,843	4.46
10-14	6,060	6.64	11,584	10.01	8,357	8.27	8,419	6.43
15-19	9,456	10.37	14,870	12.85	9,594	9.50	15,317	11.70
20-24	12,425	13.62	14,367	12.41	11,139	11.03	18,819	14.37
25-29	11,873	13.01	15,904	13.74	13,320	13.19	18,489	14.12
30-34	9,193	10.08	7,829	6.76	12,054	11.93	11,713	8.94
35-39	6,245	6.85	10,648	9.20	7,642	7.57	10,250	7.83
40-44	6,521	7.15	5,540	4.79	5,378	5.32	6,433	4.91
45-49	3,091	3.39	4,487	3.88	4,973	4.92	6,065	4.63
50-54	2,566	2.81	4,444	3.84	4,092	4.05	5,894	4.50
55-59	1,886	2.07	3,779	3.27	2,297	2.27	4,201	3.21
60-64	2,806	3.08	2,809	2.43	2,730	2.70	4,924	3.76
65+	4,632	5.08	5,026	4.34	6,313	6.25	6,707	5.12
Not Stated					169	0.17	1,419	1.08
Total	91,232	100.00	115,750	100.00	101,005	100.00	130,961	100.00

Appendix 3.18 Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in *Addis Ketema*:2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	8,230	6.72	6,840	5.02	8,840	7.68	7,939	5.78
5 -9	8,824	7.20	9,094	6.67	8,489	7.38	8,378	6.10
10-14	11,705	9.55	12,638	9.27	9,022	7.84	11,385	8.29
15-19	12,398	10.12	18,561	13.62	13,414	11.66	16,813	12.24
20-24	16,765	13.68	16,780	12.31	14,916	12.97	18,771	13.67
25-29	17,631	14.39	19,736	14.48	14,606	12.70	18,167	13.23
30-34	13,223	10.79	12,270	9.00	9,059	7.88	10,109	7.36
35-39	9,448	7.71	10,851	7.96	9,865	8.58	12,890	9.39
40-44	6,755	5.51	4,070	2.99	5,655	4.92	6,110	4.45
45-49	3,564	2.91	4,163	3.05	4,511	3.92	5,832	4.25
50-54	3,627	2.96	4,939	3.62	3,633	3.16	4,729	3.44
55-59	2,077	1.70	4,222	3.10	2,407	2.09	4,833	3.52
60-64	3,061	2.50	4,107	3.01	3,133	2.72	4,380	3.19
65+	5,210	4.25	8,031	5.89	7,477	6.50	6,982	5.08
Not Stated								
Total	122,519	100.00	136,299	100.00	115,025	100.00	137,318	100.00

Appendix 3.19: Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in *Yeka*: 2011 and 2015

	2,011				2,015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	15,176	8.09	14,795	6.11	20,794	10.21	18,898	7.85
5 -9	12,706	6.77	23,852	9.85	19,760	9.70	14,933	6.21
10-14	18,632	9.93	27,023	11.16	25,549	12.54	24,275	10.09
15-19	17,409	9.28	32,277	13.33	17,235	8.46	35,001	14.55
20-24	24,986	13.31	37,824	15.62	19,608	9.62	26,270	10.92
25-29	27,012	14.39	29,391	12.14	19,768	9.70	30,879	12.83
30-34	14,105	7.52	19,168	7.92	16,874	8.28	23,047	9.58
35-39	13,072	6.96	15,183	6.27	19,410	9.53	22,631	9.41
40-44	11,543	6.15	6,567	2.71	12,973	6.37	10,457	4.35
45-49	8,212	4.38	10,333	4.27	10,288	5.05	7,914	3.29
50-54	6,193	3.30	8,119	3.35	4,986	2.45	6,286	2.61
55-59	5,186	2.76	5,801	2.40	4,278	2.10	2,815	1.17
60-64	5,374	2.86	3,709	1.53	3,876	1.90	3,832	1.59
65+	8,084	4.31	8,115	3.35	8,049	3.95	13,392	5.57
Not Stated					280	0.14		
Total	187,690	100.00	242,156	100.00	203,728	100.00	240,631	100.00

Appendix 3.20: Number and Percentage Distribution of Population by Sex in *Bole*: 2011 and 2015

	2011				2015			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Age Group	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-4	13,434	9.49	14,202	8.48	16,117	9.49	14,354	7.59
5 -9	11,493	8.12	13,653	8.16	8,058	4.74	11,375	6.02
10-14	13,569	9.58	13,483	8.05	13,320	7.84	13,460	7.12
15-19	15,905	11.23	22,271	13.30	16,860	9.92	19,104	10.10
20-24	13,850	9.78	27,302	16.31	21,215	12.49	27,195	14.38
25-29	15,917	11.24	25,441	15.20	19,641	11.56	29,950	15.84
30-34	16,212	11.45	13,169	7.87	18,285	10.76	18,653	9.87
35-39	12,205	8.62	11,351	6.78	17,196	10.12	16,201	8.57
40-44	7,402	5.23	6,328	3.78	11,523	6.78	9,591	5.07
45-49	5,589	3.95	6,810	4.07	5,877	3.46	7,014	3.71
50-54	5,264	3.72	5,266	3.15	5,612	3.30	7,783	4.12
55-59	3,563	2.52	2,876	1.72	4,569	2.69	4,028	2.13
60-64	2,492	1.76	1,464	0.87	4,859	2.86	4,379	2.32
65+	4,721	3.33	3,780	2.26	6,739	3.97	5,967	3.16
Not Stated								
Total	141,615	100.00	167,397	100.00	169,870	100.00	189,054	100.00

Appendix 7.1: Percentage Distribution of Population with Self-reported Health Problems by Type of Disease, Sex and Sub-city in Addis Ababa: 2011 and 2015

Type of Disease	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
	Akaki Kality				Nefas Silk Lafto				Kolfe Keraniyo			
Malaria	0.7	4.0	3.2		4.6	15.9	1.8	8.4	3.5	3.1	2.4	
Diarrhea	7.2		4.2	8.1	6.8		3.0	12.1	11.8		7.8	3.6
Injury	4.0	8.0	1.3	5.9	1.2					3.1	1.1	1.8
Dental	2.2	4.1	4.5		2.1		5.9	4.6	2.3	6.3	5.2	5.3
Ophthalmic Problem	4.3	8.9	2.6		1.1			3.9	6.1	9.3	4.8	7.5
Skin Diseas			2.5							3.1		
Ear, Nose, Throat (ENT)	5.5		6.2	2.9	4.4	13.5	9.6	4.1	2.5	6.8		9.1
Tuber closes	2.9		0.6				1.1		2.3		1.0	1.8
Hyphothesis-B			0.6	2.7			1.0					3.6
Stomach Ache	10.0	8.1	4.8	8.6	7.1		10.4	4.1	15.0	15.5	9.4	9.2
Vomiting	0.7		3.1	2.7	2.3		0.9			3.1		1.8
Asthma	1.4		2.9		1.1		1.0		1.3		0.9	1.8
Head Ache	6.4	16.5	10.8	13.8	16.3		10.1	18.1	4.3		9.6	
Backache	3.6		1.2	13.9	2.4		5.8	12.7	1.2		3.8	3.6
Uric acid	4.7		3.7	2.7	2.7	13.8	5.4		2.4		2.3	1.8
Blood Pressure	2.1	12.0	7.7	5.6	3.2		2.8	4.1	1.1		3.8	3.5
Diabetes	0.7	4.8	1.2	8.2	1.1		1.1		4.1	3.2		1.8
HIV/AIDS	0.7	4.0	0.6	2.7					1.2		2.0	
Others	43.2	29.8	38.5	22.1	41.4	56.8	39.2	28.0	41.3	46.4	45.9	44.0
Not Stated					2.3		1.0					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Gulele				Lideta				Kirkos			
Malaria					3.4			1.7		3.0		
Diarrhea	5.4	13.8	2.3	5.5	11.1		5.7	1.8	5.5	12.1	5.1	7.1
Injury		5.5	2.3	1.4	4.4		0.7				3.1	
Dental	1.8	8.3	3.4	10.9	2.2	2.8	3.5	5.2	4.3	6.1	2.0	2.9
Ophthalmic Problem	3.6	2.8		2.7	1.1	16.8	3.6	6.8	5.7	3.7	5.3	3.0
Skin Diseas				4.1	4.5	2.8	3.5	5.2			1.0	2.6
Ear, Nose, Throat (ENT)	1.8	8.3	2.3	4.1			4.3	1.7	13.4	3.0	6.5	2.6
Tuber closes			2.4	8.2	1.1	5.6	0.7	1.7	1.8	3.0	2.1	1.3
Hyphothesis-B	2.6				1.1		1.4		1.9		1.1	
Stomach Ache	7.3	5.6	5.8	4.1	2.2	5.7	4.9	10.4	8.1	19.1	6.2	19.2
Vomiting		2.8	1.2	2.7			1.4			3.0		
Asthma	1.8	2.8	2.3	4.1	1.1	8.8	0.7	1.7	3.9			2.9
Head Ache	11.0	2.8	2.2	2.7	3.3	3.6	7.1	1.7		3.0	13.1	7.9
Backache			2.3	1.4	2.2	2.8	2.1	5.8			1.0	10.4
Uric acid	7.4		7.8	4.1	4.4		4.2		1.8	3.0	5.3	4.2
Blood Pressure	5.6	8.4	5.7	8.2	3.3	8.4	4.2	6.8	5.5	9.0	8.5	10.8
Diabetes		11.2	4.5	4.2	3.3		3.6	3.5	7.2	13.1	5.3	5.7
HIV/AIDS			1.1			5.6	2.1	1.7	1.8	3.0		1.3
Others	46.4	27.8	54.7	31.6	49.9	37.3	43.9	44.4	39.2	15.8	34.7	18.0
Not Stated	5.4				1.2		2.2					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Appendix 7.2: Percentage Distribution of Population with Self-reported Health Problems (… cont'd)

Type of Disease	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015	2011	2015
	Arada				Addis Ketema			
Malaria	1.9	14.2		13.9	1.0		2.7	10.0
Diarrhea	1.9	3.6	3.4		3.8		5.2	
Injury	1.9		5.7	4.2	1.0	8.9		
Dental	3.9	3.6	3.4	1.4	4.8		0.8	
Ophthalmic Problem	3.9	10.7	3.4	8.5	5.7		4.5	
Skin Diseas				1.4	1.9		1.5	
Ear, Nose, Throat (ENT)	6.1	3.6	8.3	2.9	2.9		3.0	
Tuber closes					1.0		0.7	
Hyphothesis-B	1.9			1.4				
Stomach Ache	1.9	21.4	2.4	17.0	3.8	17.7	4.5	
Vomiting				2.8				
Asthma	1.9			1.4	4.8		0.7	10.0
Head Ache		11.0	5.6	8.5	9.1		5.3	10.0
Backache		7.1	1.1	7.3	1.9		2.2	
Uric acid	3.9	7.1	3.4	7.0	2.9	8.9		10.0
Blood Pressure	2.0		14.0	4.2	5.5	17.8	6.8	10.0
Diabetes	9.7	10.7	2.3	7.0	1.9	17.7	3.7	10.0
HIV/AIDS	1.9				3.5		0.7	
Others	57.0	7.1	47.0	11.2	44.7	29.0	57.8	40.1
Not Stated								
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Yeka				Bole			
Malaria	1.9	3.2		6.5	1.7	5.1		4.7
Diarrhea	5.5	2.7	4.0	4.2	10.9	5.1	3.3	7.1
Injury	3.8	7.7	5.0		5.1		1.4	7.1
Dental	3.8	2.5	1.0		1.7	5.2		10.7
Ophthalmic Problem	1.8		3.9	4.2	3.4	6.9	0.8	3.6
Skin Diseas		2.5	4.1	2.8	1.7		1.4	1.2
Ear, Nose, Throat (ENT)	15.7		14.0	6.0	3.8	6.7	5.1	1.2
Tuber closes	0.8	2.5				1.7	1.6	
Hyphothesis-B								
Stomach Ache	15.6	29.5	12.6	16.5	3.7	12.6		4.8
Vomiting	2.5	9.6	1.7	10.4	1.7	5.2	3.1	2.4
Asthma	2.8	2.5	4.9			3.4	3.0	2.4
Head Ache	4.0	5.6	14.0	5.6	7.3	7.0	15.6	7.1
Backache			2.0	4.2	2.6		1.4	
Uric acid	0.9		2.5	1.4	1.7		5.1	1.1
Blood Pressure	2.9	8.3	4.7	6.0	2.5	5.3	4.6	2.5
Diabetes	2.0		2.1	1.4	1.7	5.2	5.2	9.3
HIV/AIDS		2.7	2.0					
Others	36.1	20.7	21.7	30.9	50.6	30.8	48.1	35.0
Not Stated								
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Appendix 8.1: Households reporting different types of shocks in per cent (multiple answer), 2011

	2,011										
	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Addis Ababa
Death of HH members	1.48	0.31	1.08	1.04	1.04	2.02	2.26	3.20	1.43	2.99	1.61
Illness	4.37	3.47	7.18	4.81	3.37	6.22	1.34	5.17	6.75	5.88	5.18
Loss of jobs	2.49	0.50	3.03	0.78	2.59	2.96	0.58	4.01	3.73	3.23	2.46
Shortage of food	1.81	1.95	4.80	3.05	5.46	2.24	1.01	4.48	7.76	8.01	4.42
Drought	0.00	0.00	0.28	0.00	0.00	0.26	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06
Fire	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.72	0.00	0.24	0.24	0.57	0.18
Theft/Robbery	0.55	0.00	0.00	0.76	0.78	4.36	0.83	0.52	1.44	1.00	0.96
Reduce income	2.27	3.29	5.09	4.12	2.08	3.42	8.42	7.59	3.46	5.85	4.52
Reduced drinking water quality	0.00	0.00	1.77	6.76	2.36	3.70	1.00	0.00	2.10	3.67	2.15
Price rise of food items	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.26	0.00	1.96	0.33	0.00	0.88	0.00	0.35
Others	0.00	2.68	0.00	0.50	0.26	0.51	0.58	0.73	0.19	0.71	0.66
Total	12.97	12.20	23.23	22.07	17.94	28.38	16.37	25.95	27.99	31.91	22.56
N	50,674	93,492	107,696	64,528	46,571	62,242	52,364	56,902	109,101	86,094	729,664

Appendix 8.2 Households reporting different types of shocks in per cent (multiple answer), 2015

	Akaki Kality	Nefas Silk Lafto	Kolfe Keraniyo	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	Addis Ababa
Death of HH members	0.50	0.52	0.25	0.78	0.76	0.26	1.80	0.58	0.00	0.79	0.55
Illness	5.39	2.39	7.72	20.36	0.25	2.27	12.77	2.62	1.85	3.40	5.64
Loss of jobs	0.26	0.81	1.12	2.34	0.00	0.50	2.29	0.77	0.52	0.51	0.89
Shortage of food	2.30	1.30	1.88	2.60	0.00	4.49	3.07	0.77	1.27	1.05	1.79
Drought	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.28	0.05
Fire	0.00	0.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06
Theft/Robbery	0.26	2.34	0.77	2.09	0.25	0.51	0.25	0.26	0.31	0.00	0.77
Reduce income	1.52	3.67	6.70	9.39	5.65	1.51	4.92	0.77	1.52	4.95	4.17
Reduced drinking water quality	8.00	19.16	29.85	26.40	0.25	3.14	15.75	0.26	26.03	25.13	18.21
Price rise of food items	25.26	15.68	40.01	43.83	13.34	45.10	25.44	10.28	30.59	27.12	28.56
Others	0.00	0.42	1.21	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.46	0.37	0.39	0.00	0.37
Total	43.49	46.58	89.52	107.78	20.50	58.03	67.01	16.66	62.48	63.23	61.07
N	61,718	110,896	127,934	70,903	52,037	64,708	55,518	60,414	111,615	103,028	818,770

Appendix 8.3 Current state of food security in comparison to one year ago

	Akaki kaliti	Nefas silk	KolfeKeranio	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	AA
	2011										
In comparison to one year ago											
Much worse now	17.6	10.4	13.2	15.7	20.1	14.5	2.4	15.4	28.5	21.2	16.6
Worse now	49.6	33.8	43.0	25.0	32.3	35.8	23.4	30.4	41.1	32.4	35.5
Same	22.1	46.4	28.0	41.4	38.0	35.8	60.4	38.0	25.4	40.2	36.6
better now	10.2	9.3	12.5	17.5	7.5	11.4	11.3	14.3	4.6	5.3	10.0
Much better now			3.3	0.3	1.3	0.2	0.5	1.2	0.5	0.4	0.9
Not stated	0.5			0.3	0.8	2.2	1.9	0.7		0.5	0.5
	2015										
In comparison to one year ago											
Much worse now	0.5	0.8	2.8	6.0	2.8	18.6	1.6	5.3	2.9	5.9	4.4
Worse now	3.6	9.6	8.2	11.8	17.3	11.4	23.1	20.2	8.9	18.0	12.4
Same	73.9	45.0	43.8	62.7	44.0	54.2	52.3	43.2	63.3	59.4	53.8
better now	10.1	16.3	33.0	19.2	22.0	15.0	10.5	29.2	22.7	15.2	20.2
Much better now	11.9	28.4	12.2	0.3	13.9	0.8	12.5	2.2	2.3	1.6	9.1
Not stated											

Appendix 8.4 Current state of food security in comparison to five years ago

	Akaki kaliti	Nefas silk	KolfeKeranio	Gulele	Lideta	Kirkos	Arada	Addis Ketema	Yeka	Bole	AA
	2011										
In comparison to one year ago											
Much worse now	55.2	20.1	40.3	22.6	51.9	44.5	14.3	27.7	58.7	46.2	38.7
Worse now	29.5	38.3	27.3	25.5	19.9	14.6	35.9	23.0	21.0	15.2	24.9
Same	7.4	20.6	11.2	23.4	16.4	21.4	32.0	30.2	9.9	31.7	19.8
better now	7.6	17.8	15.1	25.1	8.2	17.8	15.0	13.4	8.4	5.0	13.4
Much better now	0.3	3.2	6.0	2.9	3.3	1.6	2.8	5.7	2.1	1.6	3.1
Not stated				0.3	0.3					0.3	0.1
	2015										
In comparison to one year ago											
Much worse now	1.0	6.0	5.0	19.8	17.4	23.7	5.1	15.0	5.1	15.1	10.4
Worse now	8.5	11.7	9.0	16.7	5.4	10.3	29.7	12.4	16.8	15.2	13.4
Same	48.8	27.8	37.5	21.4	17.5	45.4	33.1	23.7	38.9	45.2	34.8
better now	25.3	20.1	33.4	39.3	39.7	19.1	17.9	30.5	31.2	17.0	27.1
Much better now	16.4	34.4	15.1	2.9	19.9	1.5	14.1	18.4	8.1	7.5	14.2
Not stated											