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BUILDING CAPACITIES IN THE  
CIVIL SERVICE

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**Editorial Note**

JADS is a re-instituted journal after seven years of interruption. Having been re-instituted in February 2019, the new JADS Editorial Board embarked on a series of institutional and framework setting and building for the journal. Since then two issues (Volume 6, Nos/ 1 & 2 for 2019) have been published. The present issue (Vol 7, No 1, June 2020) is composed of five articles that have passed a rigorous review process.

Article 1 by Desalegn et al, in their article entitled 'Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment in Ethiopia' argue economic growth among others depends on investment which in turn relies on savings. In developing countries including Ethiopia low domestic savings and low investments are resulting in low economic growth. Under such conditions, the role of FDI is indispensable. In light of this, many developing countries make considerable efforts to attract FDI. Understanding this, the government of Ethiopia has opened several economic sectors to foreign investors. It has also made a range of policy reforms and issued several incentives. Their article tried to identify factors that determine the flow of FDI in Ethiopia based on secondary data for the period 1991 to 2018 employing Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model. The paper found out that FDI inflows to Ethiopia are rapidly increasing, despite the fluctuations; and incentives to foreign investment and enhancing economic growth are important in attracting FDI, while higher inflation and effective exchange rate have a significant and negative effect on the inflow of FDI. The article concludes and calls for the need for curbing inflation and reducing effective exchange rates, and enhancing incentives for investments especially for the production of import substitute and exportable items.

The second article by Melkamu assessed women's status in refusing marital rape and its associated factors, using data from the 2016 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) of Ethiopia. The sample (n=8,695) was limited to married women. To examine associated factors, socio-demographic variables were computed using logistic regression. The finding revealed that the majority (53.73%) of married women did not refuse marital rape. Education and economic status of women were positively associated with women's status in refusing marital rape. Women whose ages were 35-49 years old (AOR=.277;95%CI=.088,.876), being a housewife (AOR=.839;95%CI=.757,.929), and women who got their marriage by others decision (AOR=.761;95%CI=.682,.849) were less likely to refuse marital rape. Women who drink alcohol (AOR=1.232;95%CI=1.053,1.442) were more likely to refuse marital rape. In conclusion, women's status in refusing marital rape is low. Accordingly, addressing its associated hindering factors is necessary.

Kibru's article investigated access and utilization of electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. Significant investment has been made in digital information resources in the University Library and yet it was not researched whether these electronic information resources are utilized or underutilized. The study aimed at ascertaining this state of affairs. The study employed survey method. The population of the study comprises 5132 postgraduate students. A sample of 400 postgraduate students was selected using simple random sampling techniques. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Based on the findings, the extent of accessibility and utilization of electronic information resources were fraught with a range of problems, including lack of IT (Computer) knowledge, inadequate computers in the library, poor internet connection, and lack of relevant electronic resources in various disciplines. The researcher recommends improvement in appropriate user education for students, hiring skilled technical staff, availing computer facilities, enhancing Internet connectivity, and subscribing relevant electronic resources.

Daba's article aimed at assessing the implementation of good governance while rendering services to the citizens, employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The findings indicate Addis Ababa city administration is characterized poorly in the implementation of good governance. Limitations in providing services while balanced interests in a timely, appropriate, and responsive manner; inefficiency and ineffectiveness; limitations in information distribution; and lack of equal opportunities in the decision-making process were the challenges. The paper suggests understanding customers' expectations in service provisions; systematizing customers' feedback; and continuous awareness creation to the staff.

The last article by Kidanemariam et al looked at the magnitude and causes of hazardous child labor in Addis Ababa. The paper employed mixed method research design that tilts towards a quantitative approach. The result shows about 90% of child laborers in Addis Ababa were working in hazardous conditions, which is much higher than the Sub Saharan Africa average and ILO and CSA estimates for Addis Ababa. This affects the physical and mental health and moral development of the children. Considerable proportions of child laborers were working in unhealthy environment mainly in areas exposed to dust, smoke, and fume; extreme cold and heat; loud noise or vibration as well as physical, psychological, and sexual abuses because of their work. Children work or engage in child labor for a variety of reasons. Accordingly, the most important factors behind child labor among children were poverty, children's economic interest, and rural-urban migration. Therefore, the federal and regional governments need to collaborate to reduce poverty induced child migration from regional states to Addis Ababa. This entails putting in place poverty reduction strategies which could help to reduce general poverty at the source and increase incomes and hence are likely to have a positive effect on reducing child labor. Every poverty reduction strategy needs also to take child labor into account.

Editor-in-chief

*Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment in Ethiopia*

Dessalegn Shamebo\*, Meshesha Zewde\*\*, Kidanemariam Gidey\*\*\*, Kidus Markos\*\*\*\*, Henock Adamu\*\*\*\*\*,  
Alemayehu Debebe\*\*\*\*\*

**Abstract**

Economic growth among others depends on investment which in turn relies on savings. In developing countries low domestic savings so that low investments are resulting low economic growth. Under such condition the role of FDI is indispensable. In light of this, many developing countries make considerable efforts to attract FDI. Understanding this, the government of Ethiopia has opened several economic sectors to foreign investors. It has also made a range of policy reforms and issued several incentives. Considering this fact, this study tried to identify factors that determine the flow of FDI in Ethiopia based on secondary data for the period 1991 to 2018 employing Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model. The findings displayed FDI inflows to Ethiopia are increasing, despite the fluctuation. The findings also revealed incentives to foreign investment and enhancing economic growth are important in attracting FDI, while higher inflation and effective exchange rate have significant and negative effect on the inflow of FDI. The findings of the research suggest the need to curb inflation and reduce effective exchange rates, and enhance incentives for investors especially for investors in production of import substitute and exportable items.

Key words: Determinants of FDI, ARDL, Ethiopia.

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\* Ethiopian Civil Service University, dessalegn4@yahoo.com  
\*\*Ethiopian Civil Service University, mesheshazewde@gmail.com  
\*\*\*Ethiopian Civil Service University, kidugidey@gmail.com  
\*\*\*\*Ethiopian Civil Service University, kidus.markos@yahoo.com  
\*\*\*\*\*Ethiopian Civil Service University, heny.adamu@yahoo.com  
\*\*\*\*\* Ethiopian Civil Service University, admekonnen2@gmail.com

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**Introduction**

Economic growth among others depends on the rate of investment which largely depends on savings. In developing countries low domestic savings are resulting in low investment and low economic growth. Under such condition, the role of FDI to enhance economic growth is indispensable. FDI is a reliable source of capital without undertaking any risks like debt (Demirhan & Masca, 2008). FDI flows are also less volatile than other forms of capital flows. Policy makers strongly believe that foreign direct investment is important to ensure long-run economic growth and development than any other forms of capital. This argument is based on the idea that FDI brings with it managerial skills and technology which can be adopted by the host country. This quality of FDI attracts policy makers to identify the factors that determine FDI flows. Cognizant of its contributions, many developing countries make considerable efforts to attract FDI. They have been trying to attract foreign investments

offering a number of incentives like income tax holiday, import duty exemptions, subsidies to foreign firms, and market preferences (Bouoiyour, 2007). Despite a number of efforts made to attract FDI, what pulls FDI into countries, remains an open question (Yu & Walsh, 2010).

The intuitive answers to this question from the host country's side are stable economic conditions, strong institutions, political stability, flexible regulations, and good development indicators especially the labor force. Equally higher inflation, poor institutions, lower development indicators are challenges for attractions of FDI in developing countries. From the perspective of the investing firm, Dunning (1993) outlines three motives for a firm to engage into investment: access to resources, access to markets, and seeking for efficiency.



It is important to note that to attract and reap the full benefits of FDI for development, among others, depends on the national policy framework and macroeconomic environment of developing countries. The factors that may hold back the full benefits of FDI in developing countries include, among others, low level of education and health, low level of technological capacities, insufficient openness to trade, poor infrastructure, weak competition and inadequate regulatory frameworks (OECD, 2012). Conversely, better technological capacity, access to better educational and infrastructure achievement may enable to get better benefit from foreign direct investment. Hence, in order to benefit from FDI, host countries need to establish a transparent, broad and effective policy environment for investment and build human and institutional capacities to implement them (OECD, 2012). Thus, the growth effects of FDI motivated policy makers including academia to identify determinants of its flow.

Developing countries received one-third of the global capital flows in 2018. The flow was concentrated in a small number of countries. Asia received three-quarters of the capital flows to developing countries. The least developing countries received 3% of the total flows. Compared to the rest of the regions the inflow of FDI in Africa was the lowest in the world. According to UNCTAD's world investment report, in 2019 the volume of FDI in Africa was 46 billion. In Ethiopia, since recently especially after 2016 the inflow of FDI contracted because of the political instability in the country (UNCTAD, 2018). However, the prospects remain positive due to a number of economic reforms that facilitate investment.

## Literature Review and Problem Statement

### Overview of FDI in Ethiopia

In the imperial era the Ethiopian economy was characterized by a mixed economy in which both the public and private sector worked together. During this time there was no restriction on private business. During this regime the government developed a comprehensive plan for three successive five-year plans to promote industrial development and encourage manufacturing sector. Furthermore, a number of basic proclamations and economic policy measures were taken. For example, Proc.No 60/1944 and 107/1949 were legislated to promote foreign investment in Ethiopia. Later the government also offered investment incentives which included import-export income tax exemptions and income tax holidays. It was also possible for foreign investors to own the land required for their investment. When the Derg came to power in 1974 it proclaimed a socialist (command) economic system where the market system was blocked and the production and distribution process was highly controlled by the socialization system. The regime did not open for both domestic and foreign investors until 1991. In 1975 the regime nationalized major industries. In this period, the environment was not encouraging for private investment in general and FDI in particular. As a result, there were no foreign direct investment inflows during that time (Haile & Assefa, 2006).

In 1991 the Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF)-led government took power and the command system was replaced with a free market system and many macroeconomic reforms were made. The government implemented a sequence of reform measures in order to encourage private sector involvement in the economy which is supposed to have an important role in the

development process of the national economy (Haile & Assefa, 2006). The privatization program was initiated in 1994. Further, as the existing proclamation enacted a higher capital requirement for foreign investors, proclamation No 37/1996 was legislated to rectify this problem.

In spite of its constraints and drawbacks, Proc No 37/1996 and Regulations No 7/1996 provide attractive provisions for foreign investors. Foreign investors were allowed to invest in building construction equipment, and in hotels whose standard was below the four star and five grades. Foreign investors were allowed to repatriate capital from sale, liquidation or transfer of residence to their home country, in addition to profits, dividends, interests and payments arising from technology transfer. Investment incentives were also extended to additional sectors such as education, hotels, tourism and health. The period of incentives was extended from 3 to 5 years (Abate, 2009).

### Effects of FDI on Economy

Foreign direct investment (FDI) is an integral part of international economic system. Its effect on the economy remains a lively debate in the literature. Scholars like Helpman et al. (2004) argued that FDI makes a contribution to the development process by enhancing factor productivity and income growth in host countries, beyond what domestic investment normally would. First, it serves as a conduit for technology transfer and human capital formation especially from developed to developing countries. Second, through intra-industry linkages, it plays an important role in creating a competitive business environment which leads to efficiency of resource use in the recipient economy. Third, FDI is direct and debt-free source of capital stock for the host economy, especially in markets where capital is relatively scarce (Bruno, Campos, & Estrin, 2018). Fourth, foreign firms bring not only financial capital but also managerial

techniques as well as entrepreneurial skills that lack in LDCs. Foreign firms may possess productivity advantages over domestically oriented firms due to better managerial and marketing skills (Blomström & Kokko, 2003). Some of these firm-specific advantages are expected to spillover to domestic firms in the host country. Fifth, FDI is also helpful to reduce shortage of hard currency and budget deficit problems in developing countries through export earnings and from profit-tax, respectively. Last, FDI can also play an important role by creating employment opportunities and by integrating the host-country economy into the world economy (OECD, 2012). Above all, FDI contributes to economic development and poverty reduction efforts of developing countries like Ethiopia (Habtamu, 2019).

Although positive spillovers are expected, there may also be negative externalities or adverse effects of FDI for the host economy. Fierce competition from foreign firms with superior technology, management, and economies of scale may crowd out domestic producers out of market and leading to private monopoly market power as well as employment losses (Bruno et al., 2018). FDI may concentrate in sectors with limited forward and backward linkages to the rest of the economy. It might inhibit the development of indigenous skills because of multinational companies' dominance over local enterprises (Todaro, 1992). Further, it can also hinder the growth of domestic enterprises and domestic investment by importing the input and intermediate product from their subsidiaries in other countries and this will have an adverse impact to sustain the growth (Habtamu, 2019). Even if they are provided tax holidays and duty-free incentives, tax revenue collected from them might be low as they are sophisticated and often engaged into tax avoidance and tax evasion (Thomas & Peter, 2000). Despite a perineal debate on the relationship between

FDI and economic growth, it is still recommended that developing countries need to attract FDI (Nwankwo, 2006).

### **Determinants of FDI**

FDI has both micro and macro-level theoretical foundations. However, it is important to note that these theories are not self-contained to explain all types of FDI. The micro theoretical explanation of FDI is basically steamed from traditional trade theories: theory of differences in factor endowment and the theory of comparative advantages. In this regard, one of the earliest theories of FDI is the classical theory. This theory argues a difference in interest rate between countries is the main factor behind movement of Multinational Corporations (MNCs). The theory argues capital moves from places where the rate of return is low to places where the rate of return is high. So according to the classical view FDI arises because of differences in return to capital. However, the existence of risk and barriers to capital movement may erode the legitimacy of this theory so that capital can flow in any direction (Hosseini, 2005).

From the perspective of investing firm, United Nations (2007) and Dunning (1993) outline three motives for a firm seeking to engage in investment. The first type of FDI is called market-seeking FDI that aims to serve regional and local markets. It is also called horizontal FDI (Bouoiyour, 2007). Foreign firms often produce import-substitute goods. So the level of horizontal FDI depends on the size of local and regional market and growth rate of the host countries. The second type of FDI is called resource-seeking. Here firms invest abroad to get resources not available in the home country, such as natural resources, raw materials, or low-cost labor. This type of FDI is often engaged in export. Low-cost labor is the main driver for export-oriented FDI. Often FDI in the resource sector is attracted to countries that are endowed with natural resources. The third

type of FDI, called efficiency-seeking, takes place when the firm can gain from the common governance of geographically dispersed activities in the presence of economies of scale and scope (Bouoiyour, 2007).

Studies so far done suggested a number of macro variables that determine FDI (Yu & Walsh, 2010; Artige & Nicolini, 2006; Singh & June, 1995). Among these factors the most frequently identified factors include the size and the growth of potential host market, the degree of openness of the host economy, economic stability, labor cost, political stability, the quality of institutions, infrastructure development, and investment incentives (Yu & Walsh, 2010).

The volume of domestic market is an important determinant of FDI. The larger the host country's market, the higher the foreign direct investment because of higher potential demand and lower costs because of scale economies. Commonly the GDP and population size are taken as indicators of domestic market. Market size as measured by GDP or GDP per capita is the most robust FDI determinant (Artige & Nicolini, 2006). It is especially important to attract horizontal FDI. So FDI moves to countries that have expanding market and higher purchasing power. This large market enables to use economies of scale and efficient utilization of resources (Chakrabarti, 2001). Some argue it is GDP growth rate that is important than actual GDP in attracting FDI. Because the current size of GDP may be small but firms may engage into investment looking at the potential. So domestic market commonly measured in terms of population and GDP growth rate is an important determinant of FDI (UNCTAD, 1998).

The exchange rate has important effect on FDI inflows. A weaker real exchange rate may increase FDI as it enables firms to take advantage of relatively low prices in host markets to purchase facilities. A weaker host

country's currency tends to increase inward FDI as depreciation makes host country's assets less expensive relative to assets in the home country. On the other hand, a stronger real exchange rate may help to strengthen the incentive of foreign companies to produce domestically. Exchange rate is a barrier to entry in the market that could lead to more horizontal FDI. It is important to note that erratic exchange rate may lead to uncertainty which decreases the inflow of FDI.

Incentives for investment are important policy instrument to attract FDI. Tax incentive is one of the common types of incentive given to attract FDI. Tax incentives provide relief to firms and facilitate their performance and remain in business. So the amount of tax incentive given to a firm is an important determinant of FDI.

Export orientation is very important in attracting FDI. There is complementarity between trade and FDI flows (Singh & Jun, 1995). Mostly openness is measured by the ratio of exports plus imports to GDP, in determining FDI. The basic premise behind openness is that export-oriented foreign firms engage into the production of tradable goods prefer to invest in open economy.

Political stability and economic stability are the key concerns of potential foreign investors. Foreign companies invest confidently if they are able to operate profitably without excessive risk (Marr, 1997). Political stability is qualitative in nature. Some used number of strikes and riots, and work days lost as proxy variables (Demirhan & Masca, 2008). The potential for political instability significantly affects FDI inflows (Schneider & Frey, 1985). Political instability (which measures the probability of a change of government) was found to be significant in affecting FDI (Edwards, 1990). Inflation is another factor that affects FDI. Unpredictable and high inflation decreases the inflow of FDI

(Birhanu, 1998). It may reduce return from investment and competitiveness of business.

Institutional quality is a likely determinant of FDI, particularly for less-developed countries, for a variety of reasons (Yu & Walsh, 2010). First, good governance is associated with higher economic growth, which should attract more FDI inflows. Second, poor institution leads to corruption which in turn decreases the inflow of FDI as it increases the cost of investment and reduce profits. Third, the high sunk cost of FDI makes investors highly sensitive to uncertainty, including the political uncertainty that arises from poor institutions. However, it is hard to measure institutional factors, and empirical results are vague.

Adequate and efficient infrastructure helps to access natural resources and potential market easily. Infrastructure has a wide dimension ranging from roads, ports, power supply, railways and telecommunication systems (Demirhan & Masca, 2008). In low income countries infrastructure is constraining FDI. So well-developed and good quality infrastructure increase the productivity of potential investments in a country and thus stimulate FDI flows to the host country (Jordaan, 2004).

Realizing the role of FDI and its spillovers, the government of Ethiopia has opened several economic sectors to foreign investors. The government has made a range of policy reforms, including devaluation of domestic currency, deregulation of domestic prices, and liberalization of foreign trade. To attract and encourage foreign investments the government has issued several investment incentives, including tax holidays, duty free import of capital goods, and export tax exemption. In recent days it is also constructing industrial parks to attract foreign investors. Despite a number of factors identified in determining the inflow of FDI in different countries, there is still a lively debate on the factors that affect inflow of FDI. Thus, this research has tried to fill this



gap by providing empirical evidence to the debate. Therefore, the study aimed at identifying factors that determine the flow of FDI in Ethiopia. Doing this research is important in the age of economic globalization where competition to attract foreign investment is high. Accordingly, this study tried to answer the following research question: what is the trend of foreign direct investment in Ethiopia? And what are the determinants of foreign direct investment inflows in Ethiopia?

## Materials and Methods

### Data Type and Sources

This study entirely depends on secondary data sources. The empirical analysis was made based on time series data collected in Ethiopia between 1992 and 2018. As a dependent variable the volume of FDI flows over the period was taken. As explanatory variables, tax incentives, per capita GDP growth rate as a proxy to market size, the ratio of exports plus import to GDP was used as a proxy to openness, and an indicator to macroeconomic instability inflation and real effective exchange rate were used. To achieve the objectives data was collected from different sources. The major data sources used were Ethiopian Investment Authority (EIA), National Bank of Ethiopia (NBE), the World Bank (WB), and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD).

### 3.2 Method of Analysis

To analyze the data obtained both descriptive and econometric analysis were used. As descriptive analysis mean, standard deviation, percentages, and graphs were used. And as an econometric analysis appropriate Auto-regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model was used.

#### Model Specification

To identify the factors that determine foreign direct investment, Auto-regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model was used. The model includes macroeconomic variables that have the potential in influencing foreign direct investment in Ethiopia. The model is specified as follows:

$$FDI_t = \delta_0 + \delta_1 OPEN_t + \delta_2 REAL\_EFF\_EX\_RATE_t + \delta_3 TAX\_INC_t + \delta_4 REAL\_GDP\_PCA_t + \delta_5 INF_t + U_t \text{-----(1)}$$

Where  $FDI_t$  is Foreign Direct Investment flow at time  $t$ ,  $OPEN_t$  is sum of real import and export as a percent of real GDP at time  $t$ ,  $REAL\_EFF\_EX\_RATE_t$  is real effective exchange rate at time  $t$ ,  $TAX\_INC_t$  is tax incentive to total revenue ratio at time  $t$ ,  $REAL\_GDP\_PCA_t$  is real per capita income at time  $t$ ,  $INF_t$  is inflation rate at time  $t$ , for  $i=1, \dots, 5$  are coefficients, is the constant term,  $U_t$  is random error at time  $t$ .

Equation (1) does not allow policy makers understand the short run and long run effects of the macroeconomic variables on foreign direct investment. Often there is a need to understand the long-run and short-run effects of variables. Hence, we re-specify the model to account for both short-run and long-run determinants. To realize this, we used the ARDL approach advanced by Pesaran et al. (2001). It is a suitable approach because: first, it allows to understand the long-run and short-run determinants of foreign direct investment; second, it does not impose the restrictive assumption that all variables in the study should be integrated of the same order-variables are integrated of order zero, one, or a mixture of both; third, it is best for finite samples (Pesaran et al., 2001).

The ARDL specification of Eq. (1) takes the form:

$$\Delta FDI_t = \beta_0 + \lambda_1 OPEN_{t-1} + \lambda_2 REAL\_EFF\_EX\_RATE_{t-1} + \lambda_3 TAX\_INC_{t-1} + \lambda_4 REAL\_GDP\_PCA_{t-1} + \lambda_5 INF_{t-1} + \lambda_6 FDI_{t-1} + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta OPEN_{t-i} + \beta_2 \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta REAL\_EFF\_EX\_RATE_{t-i} + \beta_3 \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta TAX\_INC_{t-i} + \beta_4 \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta REAL\_GDP\_PCA_{t-i} + \beta_5 \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta INF_{t-i} + \epsilon_t \text{-----(2)}$$

Where,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\lambda$ , and  $\beta$  are the white-noise error term, the long-run coefficients, and the short-run coefficients of the model, respectively. And  $\Delta$  is the first-difference operator and  $t$  denotes time period;  $n$  is the maximum number of lags in the model to be selected by the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC).

To test whether there is a long run equilibrium relationship between the variables; bounds test for co-integration was carried out as proposed by Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001). To get reliable estimates for equation eq (2), the coefficients  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \lambda_4$ , and  $\lambda_5$  must be jointly significant. This means the variables in eq (2) should be cointegrated for the results to be reliable. To ensure the presence of conintegration we test the hypothesis that  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = 0$ . Pesaran et al. (2001) have derived two sets of critical values under this null hypothesis. The first set of critical values are derived by assuming that the variables in Eq. (2) are integrated of order zero,  $I(0)$ , while the second set are derived by assuming that they are integrated of order one,  $I(1)$ . We can reject the presence of cointegration if the calculated F statistic is smaller than the first set of critical values. The presence of cointegration is failed to be rejected if the calculated F-statistic is larger than the second set of critical values. The test is inconclusive if the calculated F-statistic lies in-between both sets of critical values.

Table 1 Definitions of variables

Variables	Definitions
Foreign direct investment	Refers to direct investment by a resident of another country in an enterprise inside in a host country.
Real effective exchange rate	Refers to the weighted average of a country's currency in relation to an index or basket of other major currencies.
Tax incentives	Refers to summation of all tax incentives granted by the government for foreign investments yearly. It is measured in terms of foreign revenue the country sacrificed in granting incentives to attract FDI.
Openness	Refers to the ratio of trade (export plus import) to GDP as a proxy to trade liberalization.
Real GDP per capita	Refers to per capita income that serves as a proxy for market size.
Inflation rate	Refers to the change in average price level of a basket of selected goods and services in an economy (consumer price index or CPI).

## Results

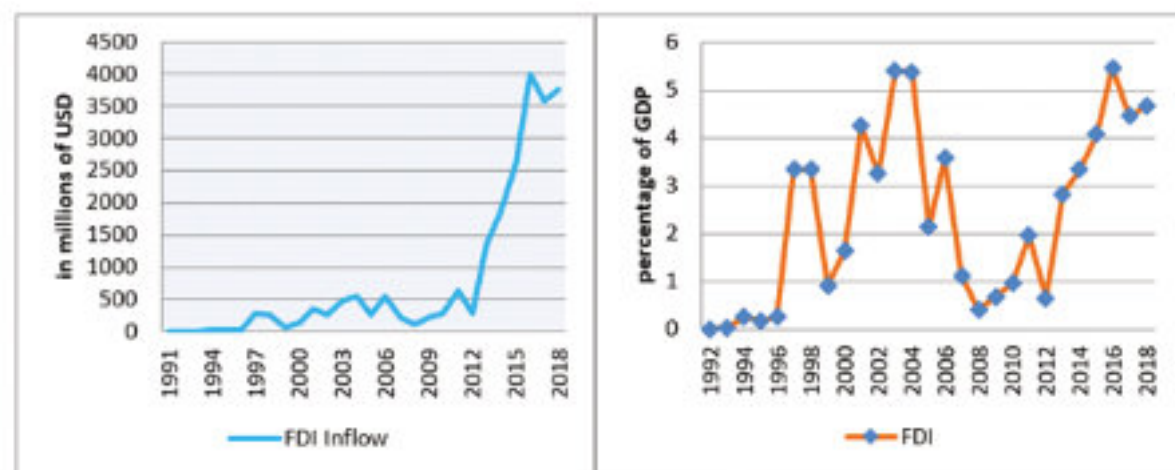
### Trends of Foreign Direct Investment in Ethiopia

FDI inflows to Ethiopia overall has been increasing from the period 1991 to 2018 with an annual average of nearly 790 million US\$

despite the fluctuations. As Figure 4.1 shows, the inflow of FDI from 1991 till 1996 were nearly steady and the inflow of FDI from 1997 to 2012 were moved with fluctuation relative to the previous period but starting from 2012 due to favorable environment, low wage and cheap power energy it started to increase exponentially. In general, after 1996 FDI inflows to Ethiopia has been fluctuating until 2012 and then progressively raised up till reaching 3.9 billion US\$ in 2016 which is the highest peak within the study period. Probable explanation of the trends of foreign investment inflow in Ethiopia was associated with economic and none economic aspects, such as; drought, war and political instability. For instance, the sharp decline in FDI inflow in 1999 is probably associated to the border conflict between Ethiopia and Eritrea (1998-2000).

Likewise, since the Ethiopian economy is mainly dependent on the agriculture sector, the decline of FDI inflow in 2002 may be related to the severe drought which occurred in the same year. Moreover, during the 2005 election time the FDI flows declined to \$265 million from \$545 million in the previous year of 2004. The decline in 2007/08 reflects the global financial crisis worldwide as well as economic instability in Ethiopia (Esmale, 2018). In general, after 1996 FDI inflows to Ethiopia have been fluctuating until 2012 and then progressively raised up till reaching 3.9 billion US\$ in 2016 which is the highest peak within the study period. This straight upward movement of FDI inflow after 2012 might be associated with the launching of Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP 1) of the country.

Figure 1: FDI Inflow to Ethiopia

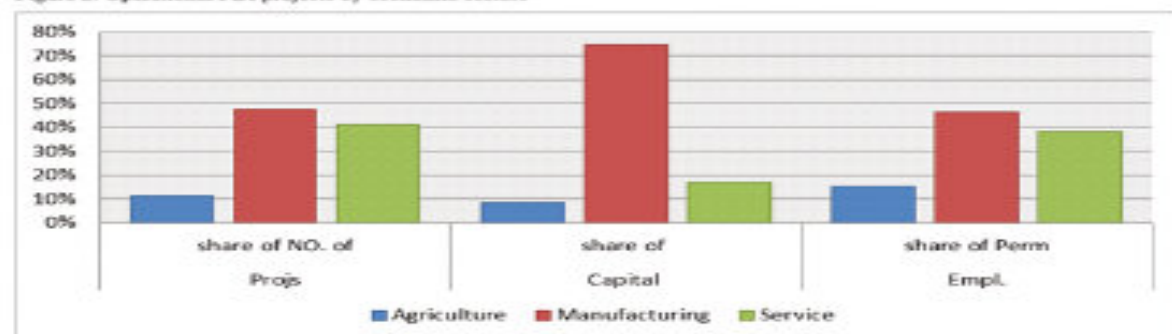


Source: own computation using World Bank data.

### Distribution of FDI by Economic Sectors

As Figure 2 shows, from the total foreign direct investment projects, about 48% were in manufacturing, which accounted for 74.5% and 46.42% of the capital shares and permanent employment, respectively. About 41% of the FDI projects were invested in the service sector which accounted about 17.16% and 38.34% of the capital shares and permanent employment, respectively. The rest 11% of the projects were on agriculture, which accounted 8.36% and 15.25% of the total capital share and permanent employment, respectively.

Figure 2: Operational FDI projects by economic sectors



Source: Own calculation from EIC unpublished data.

Table 1 presents number of investment projects, total capital invested, and employment generated by sector. From the 5383 licensed FDI projects about 3043 have been in operation. In total they have invested about 125 billion birr. From the total projects manufacturing sector accounted 47.68 percent of the total investment and 74.47% of the operational Capital. Also, Real state, machinery and equipment rental and consultancy service took nearly 21% of the projects with 4% capital shares. While agriculture accounted 10.65% of the total projects with about 7% of capital share.

Construction including water well drilling sectors accounted 6.8% of projects and 6.6% of capital. The rest which includes mining,

electricity, education, health, hotels, tour operations, transport and communication and others 8.89% of the total projects with 1.87%

Table 1: Summary of Licensed FDI Projects by Sector since July 28, 1992 - April 01, 2019 GC

Sector invested	No of projects licensed	Operation						
		No of project	Percent	Capital in '000' Birr	Percent	Permanent employment	Percent	Temporary employment
Agriculture	602	324	10.65	10001755.8	7.99	50217	15.06	98402
Manufacturing	2662	1451	47.68	93199247	74.47	154800	46.42	95925
Mining	22	14	0.46	451442.697	0.36	591	0.17	192
Electricity	3	1	0.03	1000	0.001	10	0.003	5
Education	114	62	2.03	387347.891	0.31	2106	0.63	1862
Health	108	56	1.84	475614.208	0.38	1820	0.54	385
Hotels	225	148	4.86	1962889.89	1.56	5437	1.63	2411
Tour Operation and transport	128	73	2.40	254770.256	0.20	856	0.25	497
Real estate and machinery rent	1000	643	21.13	5146406.44	4.11	93791	28.12	32869
Construction and contracting	422	207	6.80	12481275.5	9.97	22085	6.62	46458
Others*	97	64	2.10	772192.93	0.62	1719	0.51	5714
<b>Total</b>	<b>5,383</b>	<b>3,043</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>125,133,943</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>333,432</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>284,720</b>

Source: Own calculation from EIC data.

of the capital share. When we see the role of FDI in terms of employment creation the data displayed about 89% of the employment was created by three sectors, namely manufacturing sector (46%), real state (28%) and agricultural sector (15%).

The data revealed that even if the capital share of real state was low its contribution to employment creation was high as it is labor intensive.

### Determinants of FDI in Ethiopia

#### Stationarity Test Results

The starting point of any time series analysis is test for stationarity. It is often called unit root test. Unit root test tests whether a time series variable is non-stationary or possesses a unit root or not. The test determines the statistical tools and models to be used for analysis. A stationary time series is one whose statistical properties such as mean,

variance, auto-correlation, are all constant over time. Accordingly, Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test was used to test stationarity of the variables. The result showed some of the variables are stationary at level and some at first difference.

Table 2: Unit Root Analysis result

Variables	ADF Unit Root Test			PP Unit Root Test		
	T-statistic	Prob.>I(0)	Decision	T-statistic	Prob.>I(0)	Decision
FDI	-2.28353	0.4286	Non-stationary	-2.28353	0.4286	Non-stationary
OPPN	-0.884099	0.9634	Non-stationary	0.009544	0.9940	Non-stationary
EXMNC	-2.864336	0.3897	Non-stationary	-2.864336	0.3897	Non-stationary
Inf	-3.832853	0.02530**	Non-stationary	-3.834098	0.02510**	Stationary
GDPDC	0.953076	0.99970	Non-stationary	1.083480	0.99970	Non-stationary
REER	-10.72133	0.00000*	Stationary	-9.322213	0.00000*	Stationary
ΔFDI	-3.718797	0.0001*	Stationary	-3.826355	0.0004*	Stationary
ΔOPPN	-3.861128	0.0025*	Stationary	-3.881978	0.0000*	Stationary
ΔEXMNC	-3.291079	0.0020**	Stationary	-3.623385	0.00000*	Stationary
ΔInf	-6.811170	0.00010*	Stationary	-10.164418	0.00000*	Stationary
ΔGDPDC	-4.312132	0.01890**	Stationary	-4.483363	0.00030*	Stationary
ΔREER	-4.309955	0.01890**	Stationary	-25.63163	0.000000*	Stationary

Note: Significance at 1%, 5% and 10% is shown by \*, \*\* and \*\*\* respectively.



Note: Significance at 1%,5% and 10% is shown by \*, \*\*and \*\*\*respectively.

NB:

FDI =FDI to GDP ratio

OPPN= Export plus import as a % of GDP

TXINC=Total tax incentive to FDI investment as a% of GDP

FIDEV=Credit to the private sector to GDP ratio

GDPPC=Real GDP per capita

Inf= Inflation rate

### Results from the Diagnostic Tests

Table 4.3 reports the diagnostic test results. The results display the estimation is free from serial correlation, heteroscedasticity, non-normality and functional misspecification problems.

Table 3: Results of the diagnostic tests

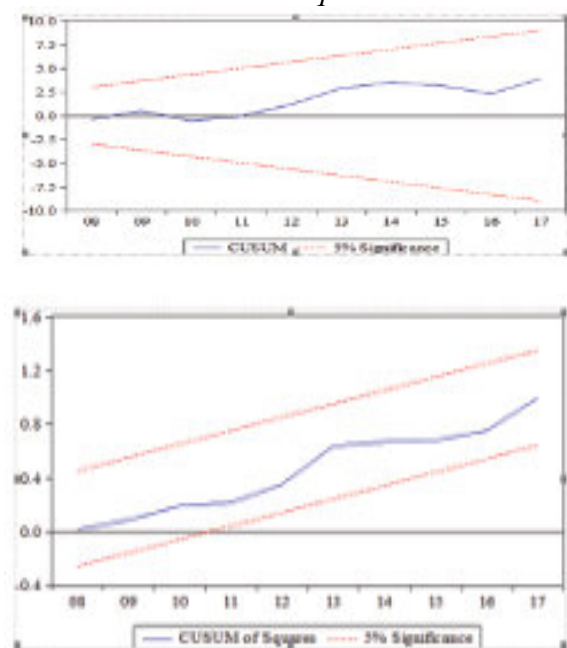
Test	Test-type	Statistic	p-value
Serial Correlation	Breusch-Godfrey LM Test	2.274229	0.1652
Heteroscedasticity	Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey	2.269183	0.0999
Normality	Jarque-Bera	0.7788	0.6775
Functional Form	Ramsey RESET Test	2.848940	0.1163

Furthermore, the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and the cumulative sum of squares of recursive residuals (CUSUMSQ) plots in Figure 3 show also the model is structurally stable. Thus, the results are estimated reliably.

### Lag Length Selection

Before conducting the bound test for cointegration, optimum lag length was determined. Lag length selection criteria suggested lag 2 as optimal lag length based on sequential modified LR test statistic (LR), Final predictor error (FPE), Akaike information criterion (AIC), Schwarz information criterion (SC), Hannan-Quinn

Figure 3. Test for parameter stability using CUSUM and CUSUM Square test



information criterion (HQ). The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Lag-length selection

Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-405.9109	NA	1.36e-11	42.65924	42.95376	42.73738
1	-374.6807	185.9091	51799419	34.72339	36.78499	35.27033
2	-316.9198	92.92016*	17294227*	32.81165*	36.74033*	33.92740*

\* indicates lag order selected by the criterion  
 LR: sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at 5% level)  
 FPE: Final predictor error  
 AIC: Akaike information criterion  
 SC: Schwarz information criterion  
 HQ: Hannan-Quinn information criterion

### Results from ARDL Bounds Test for Cointegration

The result from ARDL bounds test for cointegration is presented in Table 4.5. The result displays the calculated  $F$ -statistic of 4.762767 is greater than the upper bound critical values reported by Pesaran *et al.* (2001) at 5% level of significance. Therefore, there exists at least one cointegration equation in the model. Thus, we went for estimating the short and long-run coefficients using ARDL.

Table 5: Results of the Cointegration test.

Dependent variable is FDI	F-statistic=4.762767	
K=6	Lower bound	Upper bound
10%	2.26	3.35
5%	2.62	3.79
2.5%	2.96	4.18
1%	3.41	4.68

### The Results from ARDL Estimation

After confirming the existence of cointegration among the variables, an appropriate ARDL model was run. Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 presents the long-run and short-run determinants of FDI based on the information criteria. The result revealed that, in the long-run tax incentive and real GDP per capita have significant and positive effect on attracting foreign direct investment while inflation and real effective exchange rate have significant and negative effects on foreign direct investment. The result revealed openness has an insignificant effect on FDI.

The result showed tax incentive has a significant and positive effect on FDI at a 5% level of significance. As the tax incentive to GDP ratio increases by 1% FDI to GDP ratio increases by 5.32%. This result is consistent with the findings of (Nwankwo, 2006). The other factor commonly assumed to affect FDI is openness. Here the presumption is that openness enhances investment on tradable sector. However, the result displayed openness has no significant effect on the flow of foreign direct investment.

GDP per capita or per capita GDP growth rate was used as a proxy for market and market profitability that helps to attract foreign direct investment. Accordingly, the result revealed that per capita GDP has a significant and positive effect on attracting FDI. The result shows as per capita GDP increases by one birr FDI to GDP ratio increases by 0.00166%. This is significant at a 5% level of significance.

Inflation and real effective exchange rates are important macroeconomic situations that

determine foreign direct investment. Inflation and real effective exchange rate variables were found to have negative effect on the FDI flows. The result displays as inflation increases by 1%, FDI to GDP ratio decreases by 0.105%. This is significant at 5% level of significance. Similarly, the result revealed that real exchange rate has a significant and negative effect on the inflow of FDI. As real effective exchange rate increases by 1%, FDI to GDP ratio decreases by 0.0586%. This result is significant at 1% level of significance.

Table 5: Results of the Cointegration test.

Dependent variable is FDI	F-statistic=4.762767	
K=6	Lower bound	Upper bound
10%	2.26	3.35
5%	2.62	3.79
2.5%	2.96	4.18
1%	3.41	4.68

Estimated results in Table 7 display that the sign of lagged error correction term ( $ECM_{t-1}$ ) is negative and statistically significant. This highly significant error correction term confirms the existence of a stable long-run relationship. The coefficient of the error term ( $ECM_{t-1}$ ) implies that the deviation from long run equilibrium level of foreign direct investment in the current period is corrected by 98.1% in the next period to bring back equilibrium when there is a shock to a steady state relationship.

Table 7: The short-run results of selected ARDL estimation

Panel 1: Short-run results: Dependent variable is $\Delta FDI$				
Regression	Coefficient	Standard error	T-statistics	p-value
$D(FDI\_FLOW(-1))$	-0.225	0.202	-1.128	0.285
$D(TAX\_INCEN\_GDP)$	-0.183	1.524	-0.138	0.892
$D(RGDP\_PER\_CAPITA)$	0.0066	0.0016	0.3788	0.712
$D(RGDP\_PER\_CAPITA(-1))$	-0.004	0.002	-1.975	0.076
$D(OPPENESS)$	0.062	0.040	1.546	0.133
$D(OPPENESS(-1))$	0.225	0.035	6.395	0.000
$D(INFLATION)$	-0.102	0.032	-3.204	0.008
$D(REER\_NBE)$	0.096	0.052	2.985	0.024
$Const(-1)$	-0.981	0.255	-3.844	0.000

### Discussion

Since 1992 the EPRDF led regime introduced free market economy system and proclaimed attractive provisions for foreign direct investors. Since then, FDI has been



increasing but with fluctuating trend. Probable explanation of the trends of foreign investment inflow in Ethiopia is associated with economic and none economic factors. For instance, the sharp decline in FDI inflow in 1999 is associated to the border conflict between Ethiopia and Eritrea (1998-2000). The 2005 election resulted in a decline of FDI flows. Also the decline in 2007/08 reflects the global financial crisis. Since 2012 there has been increasing in FDI flows in unprecedented rate. This was partly due to the growth and transformation plan the country implemented. This flow of FDI was largely dominated by manufacturing sector, in terms of share of number of enterprises established, share of capital invested, and share of employment created.

Following understanding of the trend, factors that determined the flow of FDI were investigated. The result revealed that, in the long-run tax incentive and real GDP per capita have significant and positive effect on attracting foreign direct investment while inflation and real effective exchange rate have significant and negative effects on the inflow of foreign direct investment.

The rationale behind offering tax incentive is exploiting investment opportunities. Tax incentive is one of the instruments of attracting foreign direct investment. Tax incentives provide relief to firms and facilitate their performance and remain in business. So the amount of tax incentive given to a firm is an important determinant of FDI. The result revealed that tax incentive has a significant and positive effect on FDI. This result is consistent with the findings of Nwankwo (2006). This implies, as widely believed tax incentives are beneficial in providing new growth opportunities through attracting FDI.

Commonly it is believed that trade openness facilitates international trade by removing barriers to trade (GÜRİŞ & Gözgör, 2015). Scholars like Romer (1986) and Grossman

and Helpman (1991) argued openness enhances economic growth through attracting FDI. Here the presumption is that openness enhances investment in the tradable sector. Whereas, the result revealed openness has no significant effect on the flow of foreign direct investment. This may arise because in Ethiopia export has been stagnant. This might be due to the fact that economy is not in a position to producing tradable items in the international market.

Some foreign investors invest in developing countries so as to exploit the host countries market. Domestic market size and market potentials are important in attracting foreign investors (Mottaleb, 2007). Often empirical literature proxies market and market profitability using level of per capita GDP or per capital GDP growth rate to analyze the effect of economic growth on attracting foreign direct investment. Accordingly, the finding revealed economic growth has a significant and positive effect on FDI. This finding is consistent with the finding of Anyanwu (1998) in Nigeria.

Often investors are interested to invest in environment where macroeconomic variables are stable and predictable. Economic instability in the host country is one of the major deterrents of FDI inflow. Any instability in the economy may lead to distortion in investors' perception of profitability (Kiat, 2010; Omankhanlen, 2011). Inflation and real effective exchange rates are important macroeconomic situations that determine foreign direct investment. Inflation is one of the macroeconomic variables that discourage long-term investment and increase uncertainty. Commonly low inflation is a sign of stability while high inflation is a sign of instability. So, higher inflation reduces the attractiveness of a country to investment by foreigners. Thus, a stable economy attracts FDI. Accordingly, the result revealed that inflation has a significant and negative effect in attracting FDI in Ethiopia. This result

implies to promote FDI inflow there is a need to lower inflation. This finding is consistent with the finding of Iyoha (2001).

The real effective exchange rate is another macroeconomic variable that may influence the inflow of FDI. Many developing countries use the lower effective exchange rate as an export enhancing strategy to make export competitive in the international market. Equally, it is important to note that such export enhancing strategy of low exchange rate may lead to monetary expansion hence to inflation (Omankhanlen, 2011). Commonly it is believed that a higher effective exchange rate discourages exports and negatively affects FDI, through increasing investment costs and decreasing returns to the investment. Hence, the result displayed that real exchange rate has a significant and negative effect on the inflow of FDI. This suggests the need for further lowering of effective exchange rates so as to attract FDI in Ethiopia.

## Conclusion

Economic theory argues that among other factors economic growth depends on capital accumulation which again depends on investment. Foreign direct investment is an integral part of international economic system that provides investment specially to developing countries, despite a lively debate among scholars. However, it is believed that FDI makes a contribution to the development process by enhancing factor productivity and income growth in host countries, beyond what domestic investment normally would. Cognizant of these contributions, many developing countries including Ethiopia have been making a considerable effort to attract FDI. These growth effects of FDI motivated policy makers to identify its determinants. Thus, to create enabling environment for investment especially foreign capital investment requires examining or identifying the conditions that facilitate FDI inflow. Accordingly, this

research had an objective of identifying the determinants of FDI in Ethiopia. Doing this research is important in the age of economic globalization where competition to attract foreign investment is high. To realize the objective, time series data was used and estimation was done using ARDL model. The findings revealed that incentives to foreign investment and enhancing economic growth are important in attracting FDI while higher inflation and exchange rate have significant and negative effect on the inflow of FDI. Accordingly, to increase the inflow of FDI the followings are suggested. The national bank needs to take measures on inflation and effective exchange rates to ensure the inflow of FDI. To enhance further inflow of FDI there is a need to enhance incentives for investors especially for investors engage into production of import substitute and exportable items.

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## Author Contributions

This research is undertaken by five researchers: Dessalegn Shamebo, Meshesha Zewde, Kidanemariam Gidey, Kidus Markos, Henock Adamu and Alemayehu Debebe. The first five contributed equally from the inception up to the completion of the research. The last contributed to the problem identification and topic shaping and provided overall facilitation support.

## Funding

ECSU

## Competing Interests

The authors declare that he has no competing interests.

## Ethics Approval

NA

## Availability of Data and Materials

The data along with the survey questionnaire may be made available and accessible at the University data center

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NB:

FDI =FDI to GDP ratio

OPPN= Export plus import as a % of GDP

TXINC=Total tax incentive to FDI investment as a% of GDP

FIDEV=Credit to the private sector to GDP ratio

GDPPC=Real GDP per capita

Inf= Inflation rate

### Appendix 1: Unit Root Analysis Result

Variables	ADF Unit Root Test			PP Unit Root Test		
	T-statistic	Prob. Value	Decision	T-statistic	Prob. Value	Decision
FDI	-2.283763	0.4308	Non-stationary	-2.283763	0.4308	Non-stationary
OPPN	0.484199	0.9634	Non-stationary	0.009514	0.9941	Non-stationary
TXINC	-2.864316	0.1897	Non-stationary	-2.864316	0.1897	Non-stationary
Inf	-3.882015	0.02310**	Non-stationary	-3.850991	0.01603**	Stationary
GDPPC	0.953079	0.99970	Non-stationary	1.018460	0.99913	Non-stationary
REER	-10.72133	0.0000*	Stationary	-9.122213	0.0000*	Stationary
Δ FDI	-3.776797	0.0013*	Stationary	-3.828335	0.0004*	Stationary
Δ OPPN	-3.001128	0.0029*	Stationary	-3.183571	0.0008*	Stationary
Δ TXINC	-3.393179	0.00120**	Stationary	-10.62346	0.0000*	Stationary
Δ Inf	-6.681170	0.00010*	Stationary	-10.36438	0.0000*	Stationary
Δ GDPPC	-4.352532	0.00000**	Stationary	-4.483163	0.00030*	Stationary
Δ REER	-4.189955	0.00000**	Stationary	-25.63383	0.00000*	Stationary



# ***Women's Status in Refusing Marital Rape and Its Associated Factors in Ethiopia: 2016 DHS Data Analysis***

Melkamu Dires Asabu\*

## **Abstract**

*Human right instruments underscore that wives have the right to refuse marital rape. This study was aimed to assess women's status in refusing marital rape and its associated factors. The study used data from the 2016 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) of Ethiopia. The sample (n=8,695) was limited to married women. To examine associated factors, socio-demographic variables were computed using logistic regression. The finding revealed that the majority (53.73%) of married women did not refuse marital rape. Education and economic status of women were positively associated with women's status in refusing marital rape. Women whose age 35-49 years old (AOR=.277;95%CI=.088,.876), being a housewife (AOR=.839;95%CI=.757,.929), and women who got their marriage by others decision (AOR=.761;95%CI=.682,.849) were less likely refuse marital rape. Women who drink alcohol (AOR=1.232;95%CI=1.053,1.442) were more likely to refuse marital rape. In conclusion, women's status in refusing marital rape is low. Accordingly, addressing its associated hindering factors is necessary.*

Keywords: Marital rape, refusing, women, Ethiopia,

\*MSW in Social Work; MA in International Relations and Diplomacy

Woldia University, P.O.Box 400, Woldia, Ethiopia. E-mail: [ketera2019@gmail.com](mailto:ketera2019@gmail.com) ; Tel: +251922752795

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## **Introduction**

Marital rape refers to sexual intercourse of spouses without the consent of wives (Ambawu, 2015; Bergen & Barnhill, 2006; Fekadu, 2008; Girma, 2013; Karadaş, 2008). Wives have the right to refuse sexual demand of husbands if they are not interested to do so. In this regard, Shashi Tharoor, an Indian Parliament Member, stated that "A husband does not own his wife's body. She, and only she, has the right to decide when she wants to have sexual intercourse... If she says no, he has to stop. If he does not, it is [marital] rape" (Tharoor, 2019). Similarly, Liberal Feminists underscore that women should have equal opportunities to access their right including free will to their body with men (Agassi, 1989; Lorber, 1997; Lorber, 2010). Marital rape gives an absolute sexual freedom for husbands over the rights and freedoms of wives. It is a violation of women's human rights such as the right to human dignity, right to bodily integrity, right to privacy, as well as the right not to be

subjected to cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment (Ambawu, 2015; Meshesha, 2014). After a number of debates, feminists lobbied over 50 countries to make marital rape a crime (Wulfhorst, 2019).

Concerning marital rape exemption, there are ongoing debates. For instance, supporting marital rape exemption, the consent theory argued that wives gave their sexual consent to their husbands when they agreed to get married (Kolade-Faseyi, 2018). The origin of this argument goes back to Hale's Doctrine. However, the mutual consensus of spouses to be married each other shall not be considered as it (1) gives an absolute sexual freedom for husbands over the rights of wives and (2) facilitates the situation to violate human rights of wives. Secondly, the union theory claim that wives and husbands should not be considered as a separate

person, because their marriage makes them one. Using this premise, the theory concludes that "women lost their own civil identities in marriage, and they are subsequently viewed as their husbands' property" (Green, 1988; Small & Tetreault, 1990). Here, it is difficult to consider wives as property of husbands' though the researcher believes on spouses' oneness in marriage. The theory looks like advocate the mere advantage of husbands rather than reflecting the case evenhandedly. The right to privacy is the other argumentative point regarding the view for and against marital rape exemption. Proponents of marital rape exemption argued that in marital life, husbands have the right to be free from any interfere including the state itself. In contrary, it is possible to argue that marital rape prevents women to exercise their fundamental rights like the right to privacy (Ambawu, 2015; Meshesha, 2014). Moreover, advocating marital rape exemption to minimize divorce rate is the other justification of the opponents of criminalization of marital rape (Mahoney and Williams, 1998). However, the opponents argued that the sustainability of marriage should not be insured by the pain of wives (Sampson, 2010). Moreover, opponents asserted that since institution of marriage is not above an individual's dignity, criminalizing marital rape is mandatory whether it maximizes divorce rate or not (Tharoor, 2019).

To sum up, although the criminalization of marital rape is ongoing argumentative issue, regional and international human rights instruments that are ratified by many countries recognized marital rape as a form of violence against women. Astonishingly, in such countries like Ethiopia marital rape is not considered as a criminal act.

In Ethiopia, although the FDRE constitution and the ratified regional as well as international human rights instruments

recognized it as a form of violence against women, the country fails to regard it as a 'criminal offense' (Chuol, 2018; Guder, 2019; Meshesha, 2014). In the country, there is ongoing controversy to criminalize marital rape, but both proponents and opponents of marital rape fail to support their argument with quantitative evidences. Researchers also overlooked to study women's status in refusing marital rape although it is noteworthy in taking proper interventions on the area. In this regard, for example, a survey finding in Ghana revealed that 80% of spouses agreed that wives have the right to refuse unwanted sex (Adinkrah, 2017). Thus, since it is the will of majority, the finding helps to criminalize marital rape. Similarly, the study also found that husbands are ready to approve wives' refusal of unwanted sex, while by fearing its probable consequences many wives are not ready to refuse marital rape (Adinkrah, 2017). This finding also helps to strengthen open communication of spouses about their sexual interest so as to avoid the impacts of marital rape.

Marital rape has numerous severe impacts on the raped woman. Some of them are, for example, various forms of immediate and long-term physical problems, health problems, gynecological and chronic illnesses, and disorder and depression (Martin & Taft, 2007). Although marital rape is not considered as a crime like strangers' rape, the magnitude of its impacts is more painful and two times higher than stranger's rape (Russell, 1990; Walker, 2016). About the prevalence of marital rape, a study conducted in Ethiopia revealed that 60% (six in every 10) of women are raped by their husbands (Meshesha, 2014); while in worldwide, the percentage of women who are faced by marital rape ranged 10-15% (England, 2020; Mahoney & Williams, 1998; Martin, Taft & Resick, 2007). This infers that in comparison with the global statistical report, the prevalence of marital rape in Ethiopia is not only badly serious but also

needs an urgent intervention. Despite the fact that marital rape is a crime, the victims of marital rape get less attention. The finding of available qualitative studies uncovered that some participants did not refused marital rape or unwanted sex albeit some other refused it (Muche, Adekunle & Arowojolu, 2017; Yigzaw, Berhane, Deyessa & Kaba, 2010). The nature of research approach makes the findings of these studies too difficult for generalization.

Therefore, as far as the researcher's knowledge is concerned, the status of women in refusing marital rape and its associated factors is not yet studied. As a result, the intention of this article was to examine women's status in refusing marital rape and its associated factors in Ethiopia. The finding will inform stakeholders to take immediate intervention measures in protecting women from health, physical and psychological related impacts of marital rape.

## Literature Review

Based on related literature and theoretical assumptions, the plausible status of married women in refusing marital rape and its associated factors are discussed as follow.

The discriminatory gender norm forced women to tolerate domestic violence within marriage (Marcus, Harper, Brodbeck & Page, 2015). The implication is that since marital rape is part of domestic violence, the status of women in refusing marital rape might be too low. In this regard, the finding of qualitative studies completed in Ethiopia revealed the presence of some women who did refuse marital rape, but also there are others who did not (Muche *et al.*, 2017; Yigzaw *et al.*, 2010). Thus, the position of women in refusing marital rape and its associated factors needs to be quantified in Ethiopia.

Feminists argue that religious and community institutions impose preclude on

women to be reliant on men (Lorber, 1997; Nehere, 2016). In other words, women status in refusing marital rape might have variations due to religion and residential areas of women. Since no culture is free from sexism (Brandt, 2011), women are facing marital rape albeit the magnitude is not similar from one culture to another. In this regard, a study done in Ghana identified residence and religion as a determinate factor to marital rape (Adinkrah, 2017). This calls researchers to examine the effect of religion and residential areas on women's status in refusing marital rape in the context of Ethiopia.

For Marx Feminism, housewife or unemployed women are subordinated on husbands (Lorber, 1997). They also assert that low economic and educational status of women is a manifestation as well as result of gender inequality (Lorber, 2010). Therefore, being a housewife, having less educational and low economic status might be an enforcing factor of marital rape. Dependency theory also argued that economically dependent persons do not hesitate to fulfill the demand of aide (Ferraro, 2008). Inversely, empirical studies reported conflicting findings about the relationship between educational status of women and marital rape. The study done by Frieze revealed that marital rape victims were less educated (Frieze, 1983), while the other study found that women with higher education status were at greater risk of being physically and sexually assaulted by their partners (Johnson, 2003). About women working status, unemployed women were a victim of marital rape than employed women (Frieze, 1983; Johnson, 2003). A study done by Fekadu (2008) disclosed poverty as a risk factor of marital rape. This indicates that the effects of working, economic and educational status of women on women's status in refusing marital rape needs to be studied in Ethiopia.

According to Evolutionary theory, unlike males, females are denied to choose their marital partner. This practice is common in many countries including Ethiopia. Females who got the opportunity to select their marital partner were less likely raped in marriage (Thornhill & Palmer, 2001). Correspondingly, a study done in Ghana uncovered that spouses who got the opportunity to choose their marital partner were more likely refuse unwanted sex or marital rape (Adinkrah, 2017).

A study done about cause and effect of rape in Ethiopia discovered that younger women are the main victims of rape than older women (Fekadu, 2008). Similarly, many researchers (Johnson & Sigler, 2000; Shields & Hanneke, 1988; Tjaden 2000) consistently found that marital rape victims were more likely younger women. In case of alcohol use, since women who drink alcohol are unable to understand and resist potential sex reprobates, drinkers are more likely to be raped than non-drinkers (Dibaba, 2003; Fekadu, 2008). A study which directly focuses on marital rape also divulged positive association of drinking alcohol and marital rape (Bowker, 1983).

## Data and Methods

The 2016 Ethiopian DHS was conducted in all regional states of Ethiopia; namely Tigray, Afar, Amhara, Oromia, Somali, Benishangul Gumuz, Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples (SNNP), Gambella and Harari as well as the two Federal Cities' Administrations such as Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa (CSA and ICF, 2016). It was collected by the Ethiopian Central Statistical Authority (CSA) and ORC Macro International. This nationally representative sample survey includes women aged between 15-49 years old. The survey collected a detail of women's background characteristics. It collected the information from unmarried, married, living with partner, divorced and widowed women. However, for

the purpose of this study, the researcher has used only married women's data. Based on the valid number of responses for identified variables, sample of the study was limited to 8,695 married women.

## Variables and Measurement

### Dependent Variable

The study's dependent variable was women's status in refusing marital rape. This was measured based on the response given by women about whether they can refuse sex or not. Wives who can refuse sex are considered as they are 'refusing marital rape'; and wives who cannot refuse sex are considered as they are 'not refusing marital rape'. Accordingly, women's status in refusing marital rape that dichotomized as 'not refusing marital rape' and 'refusing marital rape' coded as "0" and "1" respectively.

### Independent Variables

Based on existing related literature and theoretical evidences that were summarized in the previous section, the study identified the following independent variables. These variables are age, education level, working status, place of residence, household wealth index, religion, region, ever drinking alcohol, and decision makers on women's first marriage. The researcher adopted the DHS measurements of independent variables though the measurements of variables such as: age, education status, wealth index and decision maker of the first marriage were adapted as follow.

The adapted measurements include: (1) age of respondents that was open to write their exact age, but the study that focused on "modern contraceptive use" measured age of respondents as 15-24, 25-34 and 35-49 (Asfaw & Asfaw, 2019). Since there are few women in marriage since the age of 11, this study used 11-24, 25-34 and 35-49 age categories of women. (2) For educational status, the DHS used six responses such as no education, incomplete primary, primary, incomplete secondary, secondary and higher.



Studies done using DHS data on “early initiation of breast feeding” in Nepal (Ghimire, 2019) as well as “women empowerment and their reproductive behavior among currently married women in Ethiopia” (Tadesse, 2018) had used ‘illiterate’, ‘primary’, ‘secondary’ and ‘higher’ educational status to measure this variable. Similarly, for the purpose of this study, incomplete primary and primary and incomplete secondary and secondary educational statuses were merged into ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ educational status respectively. (3) In regard to wealth index, middle was taken as it is but the categories poorest and poor, and rich and richest were merged into poor and rich respectively. In the same manner, other studies (Alemayehu & Meskele, 2017; Ebrahim & Atteraya 2019; Mekonnen & Asrese, 2009; Tadele, Tesfay & Kebede, 2019) had used these variables to measure wealth index. (4) The decision makers on women’s first marriage was dichotomized as; ‘myself’ and ‘others’.

## Data Analysis

The dependent variable was dichotomized as ‘not refusing marital rape’ and ‘refusing marital rape’. Therefore, logistic regression was employed to examine the relationships between a categorical outcome variable and one or more categorical or continuous predictor variables (Peng, Lee & Ingersoll, 2002). Particularly, binary logistic regression is only applied in cases where the dependent variable is dichotomous (Hosmer, Lemeshow & Sturdivant, 2013; Muchabaiwa, 2013). Therefore, the Ethiopian DHS collected data would be analyzed through binary logistic regression. To analyze this, the study used 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error or p-value less than 0.05.

## Results

As shown in Table 1, the age of the majority (92.0%) of women ranges from 11 to 24.

Regarding educational status, 61.8% of women had no education, and the rest (25.8%, 7.9% and 4.6%) had primary, secondary and higher educational status respectively. The majority (68.4%) of women were unemployed/housewives, while the rest 31.6% of women were employed. In the case of a residence, 76.8% of women were residing in urban areas of the country. About household wealth index, the relative majority (46.2%) of women were poor. The majority of included women were Orthodox Christians (34.8%) and Muslims (44.6%). Geographically, the relative majority women were found in Oromia (13.8%), SNNP (13%) and Tigray (9.7%) regional states. When 40.7% of women got their first marriage by their own decision, 59.3% of women were influenced to be married by other’s decision. With regard to drinking alcohol, 69.6% of women reported as they ever drink alcohol.

Table 1: Description of Socio-demographic Variables of Women

Background Characteristics of Women	Frequency	Percentage
Age	11-24	7998 (92.0%)
	25-34	683 (7.9%)
	35-49	14 (0.2%)
Educational status	No education	5371 (61.8%)
	Primary	2243 (25.8%)
	Secondary	683 (7.9%)
	Higher	398 (4.6%)
Working status	No/Housewife	5949 (68.4%)
	Employed	2746 (31.6%)
Place of Residence	Urban	2018 (23.2%)
	Rural	6677 (76.8%)
Wealth Index	Poor	4019 (46.2%)
	Middle	1238 (14.2%)
	Rich	3438 (39.5%)
Religion	Orthodox	3023 (34.8%)
	Catholic	50 (0.6%)
	Protestant	1622 (18.7%)
	Muslim	3878 (44.6%)
	Traditional	69 (0.8%)
	Others	53 (0.6%)
Region	Tigray	840 (9.7%)
	Afar	747 (8.6%)
	Amhara	1003 (11.5%)
	Oromia	1200 (13.8%)
	Somali	899 (10.3%)
	Benishangul Gumuz	723 (8.3%)
	SNNP	1132 (13.0%)
	Gambela	621 (7.1%)
	Haran	503 (5.8%)
	Addis Ababa	532 (6.1%)
Decision makers on women's first marriage	Myself	3536 (40.7%)
	Others	5159 (59.3%)
Ever drink alcohol	No	6053 (69.6%)
	Yes	2642 (30.4%)

Source: 2016 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey

3672(45.9%), 346(50.7%) and 5(35.7%), respectively. The percentage of women in refusing sex has shown significant increment from no education (40%) to higher educational status (73.4%). The position of employed women in refusing marital rape was better than housewives/unemployed women. The percentages of rural and urban women refusing marital rape were 42.0% and 60.5% respectively.

As presented in Table 2, the association between wealth index and women status in refusing marital rape looks positive. The highest percentage (61.7%) of women refusing marital rape were found in Orthodox Christian religion. Except for Orthodox Christian women, the majority of women in each religion did not refuse marital rape. In terms of geographic area, the majority of Tigray (69.3%), Amhara (63.3%), and Addis Ababa (67.3%) women refuse marital rape. From total of 5159(59.3%) women who got their first marriage by others decision, the majority (55.7%) did not refuse marital rape. The majority of women (61.1%) who reported as they ever drink alcohol founds in a good position in refusing marital rape.

Although the result of this descriptive statistics is not reliable like inferential statistics, the probabilities of significant associations (Pearson’s Chi-square) test of all included variables were statistically significant. The p-values of tested variables were statically significant with  $p < 0.001$ , except age of women that was associated with  $p = 0.042$ .

Table 2: Bivariate Analysis of Women’s Status in Refusing Marital Rape by Socio-Demographic Variables (N=8695)

Background Characteristics of Women	Women’s Status in Refusing Marital Rape		P
	Not refuse=4672	Refuse=4023	
Age	11-24	3872(45.9%)	0.042
	25-34	346(50.7%)	
	35-49	5(35.7%)	
Educational status	No education	2146(40.0%)	.000
	Primary	1125(59.2%)	
	Secondary	480(87.3%)	
	Higher	292(73.4%)	
Working status	No/Housewife	2603(43.8%)	.000
	Employed	1420(51.7%)	
Place of Residence	Urban	1223(60.5%)	.000
	Rural	2802(42.0%)	
Wealth Index	Poor	1525(37.9%)	.000
	Middle	552(45.0%)	
	Rich	1940(56.5%)	
Religion	Orthodox	2855(61.7%)	.000
	Catholic	36(32.0%)	
	Protestant	448(40.8%)	
	Muslim	1445(37.3%)	
	Traditional	16(23.2%)	
	Others	26(37.7%)	
Region	Tigray	582(69.3%)	.000
	Afar	323(43.0%)	
	Amhara	633(63.3%)	
	Oromia	404(33.7%)	
	Somali	273(30.8%)	
	Benishangul Gumuz	285(39.4%)	
	SNNP	424(37.5%)	
	Gambela	278(44.9%)	
	Haran	243(47.9%)	
	Addis Ababa	358(67.3%)	
Decision makers on women's first marriage	Myself	1736(49.1%)	.000
	Others	2287(44.3%)	
Ever drink alcohol	No	2400(39.8%)	.000
	Yes	1613(61.1%)	

Source: 2016 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey which significantly predict women’s status in refusing marital rape as follow.

Among women aged 11-24 and 25-34, there was no statistically significant association, but women aged 35-49 (AOR=.277;95%CI=.088,.876) were less likely refuse marital rape in comparison to those aged 11-24. The odds of women with primary, secondary and higher educational status were (AOR=1.313;95%CI=1.175,1.468), (AOR=2.179; 95%CI=1.793,2.648) and (AOR=2.439;95%CI=1.875,3.174) respectively. This infers that the relationship between educational status of women and their status in refusing marital rape was positive.

Housewives/unemployed women were less likely refuse marital rape than employed women (AOR =.839; 95% CI =.757, .929). There is no significant difference among rural women and urban women. The study

showed direct relationships of wealth index of households and women's position in refusing marital rape.

Women from middle wealth index (AOR = 1.224; 95% CI = 1.063,1.410) and rich wealth index (AOR=1.443; 95% CI = 1.269,1.640) more likely refuse marital rape.

In comparison with Orthodox Christian women, Catholic women (AOR =.476; 95% CI=. 253,.895), Muslim women (AOR=. 822; 95% CI =. 691, .977), and Traditionalist women (AOR =.505; 95% CI= .282,.904) had a lower position in refusing marital rape.

Women from Afar (AOR =.592; 95% CI =.462,.758), Oromia (AOR =.275; 95% CI =.221,.342), Somali (AOR =.280; 95% CI =.216,.362), Benishangul (AOR =.350; 95% CI =.278,.441), SNNP (AOR =.291;95% CI =.230,.367), Gambela (AOR =.341; 95% CI =.263, .441), Harari (AOR =.359; 95% CI =.273,.472), Addis Ababa (AOR =.401; 95% CI =.305,.528), and Dire Dawa (AOR =.307; 95% CI=.233,.404) were less likely refuse marital rape in comparison with those in Tigray.

Women who got their first marriage by others decision 76% less likely refuse marital rape than those who got their first marriage by their own decision (AOR =.761; 95% CI =.682,.849). By 23.2%, women who ever drink alcohol were more likely refuse marital rape when compared with those who ever not drink alcohol (AOR = 1.232; 95% CI =1.053,1.442).

Table 3 shows multivariate logistic regression analysis of associated factors on women's status in refusing marital rape

Table 3: Multivariate logistic regression analysis of associated factors on women's status in refusing marital rape

Associated Factors	Women's Status in Refusing Marital Rape	
	Unadjusted OR(95%CI)	Adjusted OR(95%CI)
Age	11-24	1(Ref)
	25-34	1.218(1.045,1.414)**
	35-49	1.051(.891,1.231)
Education status	Illiterate	1
	Primary	1.512(1.369,1.670)***
	Secondary	1.100(0.918,1.312)**
Working status	Housewife	1.246(.965,1.692)**
	Employed	1(Ref)
	Unemployed	1(Ref)
Place of Residence	Urban	1(Ref)
	Rural	1.211(.926,1.592)**
	Other	1(Ref)
Wealth index	Middle	1.224(1.063,1.410)**
	Rich	1.443(1.269,1.640)***
	Poor	1(Ref)
Religion	Orthodox	1(Ref)
	Catholic	0.476(.253,.895)**
	Protestant	0.822(.691,.977)**
	Muslim	0.505(.282,.904)**
	Traditionalist	0.505(.282,.904)**
	Others	0.505(.282,.904)**
	Others	0.505(.282,.904)**
Region	Tigray	1(Ref)
	Afar	0.592(.462,.758)**
	Amhara	0.592(.462,.758)**
	Oromia	0.275(.221,.342)**
	Somali	0.280(.216,.362)**
	Benishangul	0.350(.278,.441)**
	Gambela	0.341(.263,.441)**
	SNNP	0.291(.230,.367)**
	Harari	0.359(.273,.472)**
	Others	0.359(.273,.472)**
Decision makers on women's first marriage	Myself	1(Ref)
	Others	0.761(.682,.849)**
	Others	0.761(.682,.849)**
Ever drink alcohol	No	1(Ref)
	Yes	1.232(1.053,1.442)**

Notes: OR=odds ratio; 95% CI=95% confidence interval. \*p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\*p < 0.001.

Source: 2016 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey

## Discussion

The majority of women are not refusing marital rape in Ethiopia. The possible justification is that the cultural traditions of most societies make them to be raped easily. This is due to the fact that 'discriminatory gender norms' are forcing women to tolerate domestic violence like marital rape (Marcus, Harper, Brodbeck & Page, 2015). Moreover, women's lack of awareness about their own rights is a contributing factor for low position of women in contesting marital rape (Hägglund, 2012). Since marital rape is not criminalized in Ethiopia (Chuol, 2018; Guder 2019; Meshesha, 2014; Woldu 2017), an absence of legal protection of women from marital rape might be the other issue that weakens women's potential in refusing marital rape.

With regard to residence, the study found insignificant statistical difference among rural and urban women. But younger women (11-24 years old) were refused marital rape

than older women (35-49 years old). Inversely, a study focused on rape concludes that younger women more likely raped than older women (Fekadu, 2008). Similarly, other studies (Johnson & Sigler, 2000; Shields & Hanneke, 1988; Tjaden, 2000) found that young women were experienced marital rape. The possible justification for this conflict of results might be associated with sample size, cultural difference and subject of studies.

This study finds positive association of educational status of women with their status in refusing marital rape. The finding goes in line with the theoretical assumption of Marx Feminism (Lorber, 2010) as well as an abroad study (Frieze, 1983). However, there is also another study that concludes women with higher education were at greater risk of being physically and sexually assaulted by their partners (Johnson, 2003).

Housewives/unemployed women and women from low economic status did not refuse marital rape in comparison with employed and women with higher economic status respectively. This result agrees with assumptions of dependency theory (Ferraro, 2008) as well as Marx Feminism theory (Lorber, 1997; Lorber, 2010). It is also consistent with other studies which found being unemployed (Frieze, 1983; Johnson, 2003) and poverty as a risk factor of rape (Fekadu, 2008).

In terms of religion, women from an Orthodox Christian religion had a better position in refusing marital rape than women of other religions. This infers that like a study completed in Ghana (Adinkrah, 2017), this study revealed the disparity of women position in refusing marital rape across religion groups. Although a review of marital rape confuses to conclude the presence or absence of marital rape differences due to geographic areas (Martin, Taft & Resick, 2007), this study finds variation across regions or geographic areas. Accordingly,

women from Tigray and Amhara regions had a better position in refusing marital rape than women from other areas of the country.

The status of women who got their first marriage by others decision were less likely refuse marital rape than those who got their first marriage by their own decision. This finding confirms with an assumption of evolutionary theory and the findings of empirical study which concludes that women who select their marital partner are less likely raped in marriage (Adinkrah, 2017; Thornhill & Palmer, 2001).

Studies conducted about non-marital rapes in Ethiopia conclude that women who drink alcohol are more likely to be raped than non-drinkers (Dibaba, 2003; Fekadu, 2008). Similarly, the result of abroad study on marital rape revealed positive association of drinking alcohol and marital rape (Bowker, 1983). However, this population based cross-sectional study (DHS data analysis) finds an indirect association of women's status in refusing marital rape and drinking alcohol. In refusing marital rape, the status of women who ever drink alcohol higher than those who ever not drink alcohol. The possible justification for this inconsistent finding might be due to the fact that with frequency of drinking alcohol because respondents for this study were asked about their lifetime experience in drinking alcohol. Moreover, unlike previous studies which are not directly fixated on marital rape (Dibaba, 2003; Fekadu, 2008), this study focused on marital rape with married women samples.

## Conclusion and Recommendation

The autonomy of women in refusing marital rape in Ethiopia is poor. For this lower status of women in refusing marital rape, many factors had a positive contribution. These are: age, poverty, low educational status, unemployment (being a housewife), and forced marriage. Moreover, religion and



geographic areas are identified as other determinants. Therefore, addressing cultural barriers, that reinforce women to be raped and consider tolerance of domestic violence is a duty of women, shall be the main concern of both government and non-government bodies. Moreover, stakeholders including women association, women and children affairs office, and other nongovernmental organizations are expected to work on improving women's awareness about their fundamental rights. This is due to the fact that women's lack of awareness about their rights is a major factor that pulled them not to exercise their rights. In addition, improving economic and educational status of women will have helpful contribution to improve women's status in refusing marital rape. Particularly, women who are out of Amhara and Tigray Regional States, and Orthodox and Protestant Christian religions need special attention.

### Author Contributions

MDA involved from the inception to design, acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation and drafting the manuscript and edit the manuscript for the final submission. Eventually, the author read and approved the final manuscript

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### Competing interests

The author declares that he has no competing interests.

### Ethics Approval

This study is a secondary analysis of publicly available dataset where permission was obtained through registering with the

DHS website and therefore no ethics approval was required

### Availability of Data and Materials

The study used publicly available data. For analysis, permission was obtained through registering with the DHS website and therefore no ethics approval was required. This publicly available dataset is freely available online with no participant's identity at <http://www.EDHSprogram.com/data/available-datasets.cfm>. After registering with the EDHS website, approval was sought from MEASURE EDHS/ICF International and permission was granted for this use.

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## Digital Information Resources Access and Utilization in Ethiopian Civil Service University Library

Kibru Sileshi\*

*This study assessed access and utilization of electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. Significant investment has been made in digital information resources in the University Library and yet it was not researched whether these electronic information resources are utilized or underutilized. The study aiming at ascertaining this state of affairs. The study employed survey method. The population of the study comprises 5132 postgraduate students. A sample of 400 postgraduate students was selected using simple random sampling techniques. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Based on the findings, the extent of accessibility and utilization of electronic information resources were fraught with a range of problems. Lack of IT (Computer) knowledge, inadequate computers in the library, poor internet connection, and lack of relevant electronic resources in various disciplines were problems encountered by students. Mostly accessed and utilized resources were electronic journals and the majority of students used electronic resources for research work. Lack of guidelines and electronic collection development rules and regulations, inadequate budget, lack of skilled technical staff, and unaware of the existence of electronic resources by students were major challenges. The study recommends improvement in appropriate user education for students, hiring skilled technical staff, availing computer facilities, enhancing Internet connectivity, and subscribing relevant electronic resources.*

**Keywords:** Digital Information Resources, Access, Utilization, Electronic Resources (E-Resources), Postgraduate Students.

\* MSc in Information Science, Library and Documentation Directorate

Ethiopian Civil Service University, Tel: +251-911-360664 (Mobile)

Email: [kibrusileshi@yahoo.com](mailto:kibrusileshi@yahoo.com), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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### Introduction

The 21st Century has experienced a remarkable proliferation of electronic resources (E-Resources) which has tremendously changed the information-seeking attitude of students and researchers globally. E-Resources, in most universities, is an integral part of the electronic library and stand as vital academic resources that support teaching, learning, and research activities (Zhang Y. and Liu, 2011). The term electronic resources are seen by Sharma (2009) as library information materials that are in electronic form which include electronic books (e-books); electronic Journals (e-journals); electronic newspapers (e-newspapers); as well as Internet resources. E-Resources also consist of databases, magazines, archives, theses, conference papers, government papers, scripts, and monographs in an electronic form (Deng, 2010).

According to Graham (2003) the term “electronic resources” appear not to be used

consistently; they may be referred to as electronic information resources, electronic library resources, digital resources, digital materials, and soft library resources. In a study carried out by Dadzie (2005) on electronic resources, access, and usage at Ashesi University College, Ghana, she noted that electronic resources were invaluable research tools.

In academia, E-Resources are dominating the research activities of researchers; researchers have realized the importance of such resources (Hadagali, Kumbar, Nelogal, and Bachalapur, 2012). E-Resources provide accurate and timely information, especially for students who depend greatly on the electronic resources for information to advance research and collaboration with other researchers around the world for intellectual growth (Ukpebor, 2012).



The goal of postgraduate study in any university is for further development of graduate students with the spirit of enquiring knowledge through training and research in an atmosphere of intellectual independence and individual creativity with a strong sense of group cooperation (Lateef, Omotoso and Owolabi, 2013). Ndubuisi and Udo (2013), in an empirical study of motivation, challenges, and strategies in the use of electronic information resources by postgraduate library users in South-East Nigeria Federal Universities, revealed that postgraduate students were motivated to use electronic resources in their university libraries because they found them to be more informative, easy to access and use, saves time, more useful and less expensive.

Lefuna (2017) also identified that, in recent times, electronic resources have been identified as the major sources for information dissemination in the universities, especially for researchers. Electronic libraries (E-Library) are often used as a synonym for virtual libraries and digital libraries (Barshaev et al, 2015). E-Resources take several forms including electronic journals, electronic books, electronic theses, electronic data archives, electronic manuscripts, electronic maps, electronic magazines, electronic newspaper, electronic research reports, electronic bibliographic database, World Wide Web (WWW), search engines, and others. Of all these, electronic journals are the most important to students and academics because they contain articles that may not be found in any other publication (Kumar & Reddy, 2014).

As far as the use of digital resources is concerned, different researches revealed that developing countries are presented with significant challenges of their own, hence warranting and making research relevant. Such challenges include the cost of implementation, internet connectivity challenges, shortage of technological devices

such as computers, lack of trained personnel, lack of local online databases, and limited bandwidth (Adeniran 2013; Chitanana, Makaza & Madzima 2008; Legris, Inghamb & Collettec 2003; Mittal & Bala 2013; Mosha & Bea 2014; Okello-Obura 2010).

In spite of the perceived availability of electronic resources in universities and their benefits to university education, their effective utilization by postgraduate library users in Nigeria appears to be hampered by different factors (Ndubuisi and Udo, 2013). In a study conducted by Ojo and Akande (2005), they drew a conclusion from their research that the level of usage of electronic information resources among students was low.

Today, it is very common to find electronic resources in most university libraries in Ethiopia, including the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library (ECSUL). However, based on the national level librarian meeting discussion hosted by Addis Ababa University library in Ethiopia, it was pointed out that their availability does not necessarily equate to their utilization. A lot of researches have been carried out in the area of access and utilization of electronic resources in African University libraries. However, as far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned, there is no research output in this area in the Ethiopian context. Accessibility and utilization of electronic information resources is a key to the success of postgraduate studies in any institution and the library plays the central role in making information available and accessible. It is, therefore, necessary to find out if the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library is performing its primary responsibility of providing E-Resources to meet its user's information needs, learning, and research. This research, therefore, would examine factors affecting access and utilization of digital information resources at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library.

## Problem Statement

In developing countries, there is an increasing need to enhance the quality of education and academic performance at the university level through the provision of some form of robust informative resources. An electronic resource is one of such robust informative resources which are today a welcome innovation all over the world as they are easily available over the internet and electronic applications (Okello-Obura and Ikoja-Odongo, 2010).

In today's global economy, successful societies are those that develop, disseminate, and apply knowledge and adapt flexibility to ever more rapidly changing circumstances. Higher educational institutions have to be at the center of these changes where libraries are transforming rapidly to meet the demands of the electronic age. Academic libraries in Africa do not provide the same information delivery methods as those in developed countries. Chisenga and Rorissa (2001) point out the great disparity in the access, adoption, and use of ICTs in academic libraries. Magara (2002) in Uganda pointed out that power unreliability, management attitude, and poor ICT skills of the libraries as a problem. Rosenberg (2005) identifies the challenges to access and use of digital services to lack of library software standardization.

As far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned, there is no previous research in this title, in the Ethiopian context. Ethiopian Civil Service University Library was able to take advantage of these developments to facilitate the process of teaching-learning and research activities. In spite of the perceived availability of electronic resources in ECSUL and their benefits to university education, their effective utilization by students is not well known yet.

The utilization of electronic information resources is key to the success of students' academic activities most especially in the

areas of research. In any institution, the library plays a vital role in making information available and accessible. To render such effective library services to the university community, academic libraries are investing hugely into the acquisition of electronic information resources such as e-books, e-journals, and subscriptions to scholarly databases to facilitate teaching, learning, and research. The true value of this huge investment will only be realized through the productive utilization of these resources. Xie (2006) stated that millions of dollars have been invested in the development of e-libraries despite they are still underutilized. Similarly, significant investment has been made in electronic resources and accompanying computer-based technology to ensure access to electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library too. It is important to find out their extent of accessibility and utilization. If some electronic resources are not being used or underused, it may be important to know this in order to make a recommendation regarding the possibilities of improving usage of the resources of canceling subscriptions.

Information from library statistics, register records, and information obtained from the preliminary survey are evident that, there is low use of E-Resources in ECSUL. Besides, according to the ECSU Library annual users' satisfaction survey of 2019, the low use of electronic resources was revealed, which attract the attention of the researcher. Low usage of the electronic resource is a challenge to library management since a lot of money is being spent on purchasing or subscribing to various electronic resource packages. Therefore, it is necessary to know why there is low usage of electronic resources at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. Hence, the study investigated factors inhibiting access and

utilization of digital resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library.

## Objectives of the Study

The study focused on achieving the following specific objectives.

1. To explore the extent of accessibility of electronic information resources by students in ECSUL.
2. Evaluate the extent of utilization of electronic information resources by students in ECSUL.
3. To find out the problems encountered by students while accessing and using the electronic information resources in ECSUL
4. Recommend strategies that would help mitigate the problems.

## Literature Review

In this section, relevant literature related to the accessibility and utilization of electronic information resources by postgraduate students is reviewed.

### Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

Technology Acceptance Model is the most influential, empirically tested, widely used model of technology acceptance. It was developed by Davis in the year 1993 and its concept is derived from the Theory of Reasoned Behavior (TRA) proposed by (Priyanka & Kumar, 2013). The basic concept of TRA is that individual behaviors are determined by their intentions to execute those behaviors. These intentions are in turn influenced by two factors, their attitudes, and beliefs about the consequences of the behavior; that is, what the important people in the life of these individuals will think about their behaviors. TRA has been successfully used to predict the choices made by people in diverse situations (Dillon & Morris, 1996).

The purpose of TAM is to predict user acceptance of technology by using two

technology-related factors, perceived usefulness, and perceived ease of use. Perceived usefulness (U) in TAM is the extent to which a user believes that the use of a system will enhance his or her performance. Perceived ease of use (EOU) is the extent to which a user believes that using the system will be effortless. According to TAM, both U and EOU significantly influence a person's attitude towards using the system (A). Behavioral intentions (BI) to use the system is determined by A and U. one of the main differences between TAM and TRA is that perceived usefulness directly influences the intention to use technology. Beliefs do not play any role in the intention to use a system.

Davis et al. (cited in Dillon and Morris, 1996) explained that in a job situation, an employee's intention to use a system will be strictly based on the impact of the system on his or her work performance, irrespective of his or her attitude towards the system. In other words, an employee may dislike a system but may use it based on the perceived increase in his or her job performance. This study adopts TAM as a theoretical framework because according to Dillon and Morris (1996), the diffusion theory offers little information on the factors that influence user acceptance. It rather focuses on characteristics that influence individual decisions in adopting technology, such as a compatibility and perceived complexity and the strategies used to market the technology to specific groups and organizations. TAM has been successfully tested on a wide variety of technologies including information systems computer applications. The TAM theory is therefore appropriate for investigating the access and use of digital resources by postgraduate students of the Ethiopian Civil Service University.

### Concept of Electronic Resources

Adeleke & Nwalo (2017) defined electronic information resources as “resources in which

information is stored electronically and which are accessible through electronic systems and networks”. Different types of E-Resources that are used in this study are: e-journals, e-books, online databases (such as EBSCOHOST, JSTOR) electronic thesis, and dissertation and Online Public Access Catalogue (OPAC).

The Library of Congress identifies four categories of electronic resources in a library (AACR2 Rule 9.0A1, cited in Lang, 2008).

1. “Acquire” electronic resources that are received through licenses or other agreements, and acquisition processes such as gifts, copyright deposits, exchange, ISSN requests etc.;
2. “Collect” electronic resources which are permanently owned by the library and for which the library has permanent ownership;
3. “Link” electronic resources which are remotely accessed through links from the library's web resources, and,
4. “Archive” electronic resources which are a permanent digital repository managed and maintained by the library or for the benefit of the library (Library of Congress Collection Policy, 2008).

Amankwah (2014) also indicates that electronic resources include full-text documents, resources available on the internet such as e-journals, Online Public Access Catalogues (OPAC), and other computer-based electronic networks. For the purposes of this study, electronic resources refer to e-books, e-journals, e-thesis and dissertation, OPAC, and academic databases subscribed by the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library.

### Types of Electronic Information Resources

The various types and forms of e-resources in academic libraries are; e-databases, e-journals, e-data archives, e-manuscript, e-maps, e-books, e-magazines, e-thesis and dissertation, WWW, e-newspapers, e-

research reports, and e-bibliographic databases (Ankrah & Atuase, 2018). Different types of electronic resources that are used in this study are: e-journals, e-books, online databases, e-thesis, and dissertation.

### E-Resources Accessibility

Access is a general term used to describe the degree to which resources, services, product, and the environment is accessible by as many people as possible. It can be viewed as the ability to access information with little or no stress. According to Aguolu & Aguolu (2002), resources may be available in the library and even identified bibliographically as relevant to one's subject of interest, but the user may not be able to lay hands on them. One may identify citations in indexes, but may not have access to the resources containing the relevant articles.

The more accessible information resources are, the more likely they are to be used. Readers tend to use information resources that require the least effort to access. According to the New York Library Association Report on Training and Technology (2004), libraries and their parent organizations need to create an environment that is supportive of the new Information Technology and should provide sufficient access to resources for training and delivery of information. Osundina (2004) studied the relationship between accessibility and library use in institutions in Nigeria and notes that the problem of users is not the question of wanting to use the library, but whether or not the library can provide for their needs and whether there will be access to the information provided. Aguolu & Aguolu (2002) revealed that efforts are being made worldwide to promote access to information in all formats. He grieved that



the attendant features of underdevelopment such as power failure, machine breakdowns, lack of spare parts, and technicians. which intermittently stall the performance of modern gadgets of information storage and transfer in developing countries.

### **Utilization of Electronic Information Resources**

The advent of electronic information resources has been a blessing to libraries and information centers. The significant changes associated with electronic information resources are the shift towards end-user searching, leading to big increases in the total number of searches carried out. Amankwah (2014) suggested that to utilize the growing range of electronic information resources, users must acquire and practice the skills necessary to exploit them using a variety of online databases. Kiondo (2004) reported that currently, libraries in institutions of higher learning have realized the potentials of electronic information resources in higher learning and teaching, hence more institutions are embracing it to enhance the quality of education. This is due to the fact that library automation is making profound changes to the teaching and learning environment, as the librarians make available to the user community a wide range of academic and scholarly information.

According to Schutte (2004), the utilization of electronic information resources and services has led to the shift from an emphasis on the book and journal collection to an emphasis on information services or from ownership to access. He further argues that the shift has been necessitated by new trends in the provision of higher education and developments in electronic information storage and their accessibility over computer networks. The use of online electronic information resources and retrieval systems require a basic knowledge of computing and searching skills. Aguolu & Aguolu (2002) observed that the use of electronic

information resources is also influenced by students' use of the library.

The more a student uses the library the more familiar he/she becomes with its resources including its electronic information resources. In a study conducted by Luambano et al (2004), it was found that the users of academic libraries are increasingly utilizing electronic information resources as more access points are made available. Most of the studies investigating the impact of electronic information resources reported that users must have the requisite skills to effectively exploit the electronic information resources available. Waldman (2003) found out that the use of E-Resources was influenced by factors such as the computing skills of academics. There is a significant relationship between computing skills and the use of Electronic information resources in the library including an online public access catalog (OPAC).

### **The Problems Encountered by Students in Accessing and utilizing E-Resources**

In order for academic libraries and information Centers to improve their e-resource services, it is imperative to better understand the impediments users encounter in accessing these resources. Bhatt & Rana (2011) also identified that the most common problems with e-resources are low Internet connectivity, lack of awareness about statutory provision for accessing e-resources by the institutions, technical problems, unavailability of sufficient e-resources, doubts in permanency, high purchase price, and lack of legal provision. A similar study by Shukla and Mishra (2011) revealed that the majority of research scholars have the problem of low internet connectivity. Madhusudhan (2010) averred the slow access speed of the internet as the most common problem. He also added that it takes too long to view or download pages and find it difficult to get relevant information. He

further indicated that huge information is retrieved and the students cannot make use of e-resources effectively due to the lack of proper IT knowledge.

The literature review for this study also found that the availability of E-Resources, discipline, and institutional factors affect the use of the resources by students and researchers. One other obstacle to the use of a library's resources and in particular, its electronic resources, is that they are not seen as being easily accessible. A study conducted by Bashorun, Tunji & Adisa (2011) also showed that low usage is reported for e-books, bibliographic databases, and e-journals. These attitudes may be the result of a lack of awareness about the e-resources provided by the library. There are issues like a large mass of irrelevant information. Other problems are download delay, failure to find information, lack of search skills, high cost of access, power outages, unavailability of some websites, inaccessibility of some websites, and difficulties in navigating through e-resources. Oduwole & Akpati (2003) also indicated a lack of ICT and power outages as constraints to the use of electronic resources. In the same vein, Watts and Ibegbulam (2006) discovered the inadequate ICT infrastructure and unaffordable online access as well as the absence of in-depth ICT skills as key problems. This is due to the fact that much is not invested in the provision of electronic resources which are pivots in research processes. In support of this view, libraries are therefore charged to put in place adequate mechanisms to enable effective and efficient access and use of e-resources.

The researcher tried to incorporate domestic research works so as to identify the gap created. However, as far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned there is only one research work is conducted in the Ethiopian context. Addisalem (2016), did research on the use of electronic information resources by postgraduate students at the University of

South Africa (UNISA) regional learning center in Ethiopia, the majority of respondents reported that Internet availability and electricity supply determined their use of electronic resources. His research also revealed that lack of information retrieval skills, lack of information literacy skills, lack of accessibility of the Internet, poor Internet connection, power failures, and the distance between respondents and the Akaki Branch Library are major challenges that hinder respondents not to use e-resources effectively.

### **Review of Related Empirical Studies**

As it is mentioned earlier, as far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned, there is no research output in this area in the Ethiopian context. Hence, the research gap is not identified based on previous local research works. However, based on international experiences, the following empirical studies are reviewed.

Ankrah & Atuase (2018) conducted a study on the use of electronic resources by postgraduate students of the University of Cape Coast. The cross-sectional survey design was used for the study. The total population for this study was 915 postgraduate students with a sample size of 275 which is 30% of the total population. Simple random sampling was used to sample the respondents. Quantitative analysis including frequencies, percentages, tables, and charts was used as a data analysis technique. The finding revealed that most of the postgraduate students were aware of the e-resources in the library. the respondents identified poor internet connection as the most significant constraint for ineffective access to e-resources. 183 (72.6%) respondents were of the view that poor internet connectivity was the major challenge they faced in accessing e-resources. Another 165 (65.5%) claimed insufficient skills hindered their ability to access e-resources while 157 (62.3) respondents indicated that they could not

access e-resources effectively due to limited subscribed titles. A total of 143 (56.7%) respondents said they did not have effective access to e-resources in the library because of inadequate computers.

Similarly, Eden & Egbe (2016) examined the extent of availability and utilization of electronic resources by postgraduate (PG) students in the University of Calabar (UNICAL) Library. Five research questions and a single hypothesis were formulated to guide the study. A descriptive survey was adopted and the population of the study was two thousand, seven hundred and twenty-six (2,726), while a sample of four hundred (400) postgraduate library users were selected through stratified sampling; two hundred postgraduate students each from the Faculty of Education and Faculty of Science. The questionnaire was the main instrument used for data collection. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as simple percentages and frequency count. Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) was the statistical analysis technique adopted to test the hypothesis under study at a 0.05 level of significance. Three hundred and eighty-two duly filled questionnaires were received, giving an overall response rate of 95.5 percent.

The result of the analysis revealed that electronic resources were available in UNICAL Library and Postgraduate students utilized them. The University Library had e-journals, e-books, access to databases, and Internet resources. Databases that were accessible at the time of this research was: Science Direct, Nigerian Virtual Library, HINARI, OARE, AJOL, SAGEOPEN, and TEEAL. The majority of postgraduate students in the University of Calabar often made use of the electronic resources in the University Library. However, online databases were underutilized. Electronic journals were the most often used electronic resources by postgraduate students. The problems postgraduate students encountered

while accessing and using electronic resources were: lack of computer skills, slow network, inconsistent internet connectivity, power outage, and mass of irrelevant information. The University Library had e-journals, e-books, and access to databases and Internet resources. E-journals were the most often used electronic resources. Lack of computer skills, slow network, inconsistent internet connectivity, power outage, and irrelevant electronic information resources was the problems postgraduate students encountered while accessing and using electronic resources in UNICAL Library.

This paper critically examined the concept of electronic resources, types of electronic resources, accessibility, utilization as well as problems encountered by students in accessing and utilizing the electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. Both local and international publications concerning the aforementioned topics were reviewed. The paper ended by taking into account relevant empirical studies as related to the variables of the current research study. From the review, it is clear that all of the empirical studies were undertaken from different geographical locations except Ethiopian Civil Service University, Ethiopia were reviewed. In the empirical studies difference that existed between the reviewed studies and the present study were noted. Therefore, it is clear that where variables matched, the geographical locations varied. This has created a gap in knowledge that the present study has intended to fill.

## Methodology

Issues herein included research design, location, target population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection instruments, and data analysis. Ethical issues are also discussed accordingly. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. It used both quantitative and qualitative approaches. It is conducted in the Ethiopian

Civil Service University Library which is located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The population of the study comprised of Five Thousand One Hundred Thirty-Two (5132) Postgraduate students who are registered and active in the Ethiopian Civil Service University at the time of this study (2020). To select the respondents, the overall sample-sized for this study was 400 registered students of the University. This is determined using Taro Yamane's (1967) formula. Hence simple random sampling is used to draw the sample from the population of the study so that each member of the population is given the equal or independent chance of being selected.

The questionnaire was administered to postgraduate students of the University. It comprised closed and open-ended questions to ensure that the respondents give comprehensive answers to the questions. In addition, Focus Group Discussion was held with the library director, deputy director, and Digital Library Section Coordinators to clarify the issues raised in the questionnaire. The quantitative data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics and SPSS software version 25. Descriptive statistics of frequency counts, simple percentages, and mode scores were used to analyze data generated by the research questions. The qualitative data was analyzed by sorting, classifying, and arranging data which was examined in relation to combined thematic analysis.

To assure the reliability and validity of the research, the researcher used a valid data collection instrument the questionnaire that contained relevant information to the study. Pre-testing was conducted to identify items characterized by difficulties and ambiguity. Regarding ethical considerations, a letter of introduction was provided using formal consent for the study. The principle of voluntary participation in the study has strictly adhered. Participants were well informed about the purpose of the study that

it is purely academic and assure confidentiality. All references cited in the study were appropriately referenced.

## Results and Discussion

The results of the study are presented below. A total of four hundred (400) questionnaires were administered randomly to ECSU postgraduate students to collect primary data, three hundred twelve (312) copies representing 78% were returned and found useable. Statistics of sampled Colleges showed that the College of Finance Management and Development (CFMD) had the highest response rate. Table 1 below shows the distribution of respondents according to their Sex, Age, Degree of Study, and Sampled Colleges. The majority of the respondents were male constituting (83.4%) while the remaining (16.6%) of the respondents were female.

From the age range of respondents, the majority of them (58.2%) were within the age range of 30-40 years. The second majority was the age range of fewer than 30 years, followed by the age range of 41-50 years. The least were respondents that were greater than 50 years of age constituting (6%). The distribution of respondents according to their degree of the study showed that the majority of them (98.7%) were MA students, followed by Ph.D. students which constitute (1.3%).

Out of the three colleges of the University, the College of Finance Management and Development (CFMD) had the majority of respondents (46.2%) while College of Leadership and Good Governance (CLGG) and College of Urban Development and Engineering (CUDE) had (39.5%) and (14.5%) respondents respectively.



Table 1: Distribution of Respondents

S. No	Items	Variables	F	%
1.	Sex	Male	256	83.4
		Female	51	16.6
2.	Age	Less than 30	96	30.9
		30-40	181	58.2
		41-50	32	10.3
		Greater than 50	2	6
3.	Degree of Study	PHD	4	1.3
		MSc. / MA	307	98.7
4.	College	CFMD	140	46.2
		CUDE	44	14.5
		CLGG	119	39.3

**Research Question 1:** To what extent are E-Resources accessible to students at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library?

From the table below, items E-Journals, E-Books, and Online Databases are accessible by students while, item E-Thesis and Dissertation was not accessible therefore, the extent of accessibility was low.

In relation to accessibility, students were asked from which location they accessed the University Library information resources.

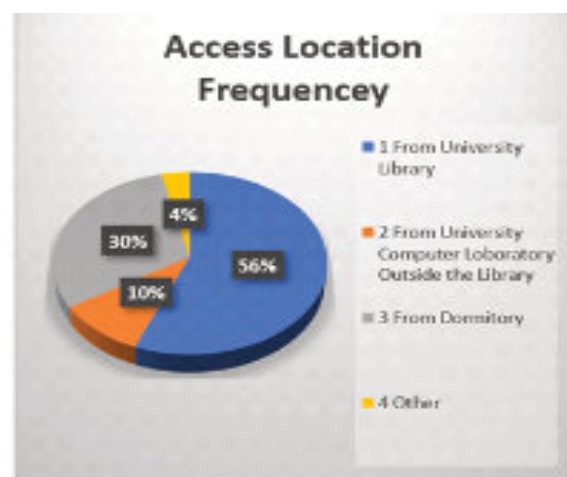
Table 2: The extent of accessibility of electronic information resources by postgraduate students at Ethiopian Civil Service University.

S. No	Item Statement	Very Great Extent		Great Extent		Low Extent		Very Low Extent		I Do not Know		Mean	Remark
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P		
1.	E-Journals	27	17.5	112	38.8	87	29.2	26	8.7	17	5.7	2	Great Extent
2.	E-Books	16	13.1	110	37.8	74	23.3	32	17.8	18	5.3	2	Great Extent
3.	E-Thesis and Dissertation	16	13.3	37	10.4	37	30.8	41	16.4	27	9.8	3	Low Extent
4.	Online Databases, such as JSTOR, Annual Reviews, EBSCO Host, etc.	16	13.7	58	19.4	83	27.6	48	13.7	34	11.6	2	Great Extent

Accordingly, the majority of respondents (56%) indicated that they accessed the resources from University Library, followed by (30%) respondents who access the library information from their dormitory, (10%) of respondents replied that they access the resources from University computer

laboratories outside the library, while (4%) of respondents replied from other location.

Figure 1: Accessibility Location



The researcher conducted Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with Library Director and Digital Library Section coordinator. In relation to accessibility, the participants reported that the library does not have collection development rules and regulations, which may create hindrance to make resources properly accessible to actual users.

On the other hand, infrastructure availability is the major means to make E-Resources accessible. Regarding the type of infrastructure available at ECSU Library, the informants further noted availability of computer laboratories, wired and wireless Internet services, Local Area Network, and Online Access Catalog as the main library infrastructure.

This finding agrees with the report of Quadri, Adetimirin, and Idowu (2014) who found out that electronic information resources, such as e-journals and e-books were accessible by students in academic libraries to a great extent. This also compares with Ibrahim (2006) who reported that electronic information resources are highly accessible by students with the highest frequency in the two MTN Universities.

This study finding showed that the majority of respondents frequently used electronic

resources, which is comparable to similar studies (e.g. Egberongbe, 2011; and Sharm, 2009).

**Research Question 2.1:** To what extent are digital resources Utilized at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library?

The study on the usage of electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library by postgraduate students revealed that the majority of the respondents (90.4%) were aware of the existence of electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library, and made use of them while the remaining (9.3%) did not make use of the electronic resources.

On the frequency of use of electronic resources, the majority of the respondents (48.8%) indicated that they often made use of electronic resources, followed by (28.2%) of respondents who very often made use of electronic resources. The remaining (13.7%) and (8.9%) of respondents indicated that they are not very often used and rarely used electronic information resources respectively. The findings showed that the postgraduate students frequently used electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library.

Responding to the purpose for using electronic information resource in Ethiopian Civil Service University Library, the result revealed that the majority of the respondents (63.3%) indicated that, they made use of e-resources for reviewing various literature, followed by 47.9% of the respondents who made use of them for getting general information, 31.8% of respondents use them for getting the answer for specific questions, while 27.7% of respondents made use of them for exams preparation. The findings of this research question show that the majority of respondents were aware of the availability of different types of information resources in the library. This finding is consistent with Okiki (2012). However, this result contradicts the findings of Togia and Tsigilis

(2009), who reported that most students were not aware of certain electronic resources at Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. They indicated that 43.4% of the respondents were not aware of ERIC, the largest digital source of literature in education.. This finding does not agree with the work done by Bayugo and Agbeko (2007). They conclude that majority of students at the University of Ghana were unaware of the two full-text electronic resource databases (HINARI).

Table 3: Utilization of E-Resources by Postgraduate Students in Ethiopian Civil Service University

S. No	Items	Variables	F	%
1.	Usage of E-Resources	Yes, I use E-Resources	281	90.4
		No, I don't use E-Resources	29	9.3
2.	Purpose of Using E-Resources	Research Work	177	56.9
		Exam	86	27.7
		For Reviewing Literature	197	63.3
		General Information	149	47.9
		Obtaining Answer for Specific Questions	98	31.5
3.	Frequency of Using E-Resources	Very Often	82	28.2
		Often	142	48.8
		Not Very Often	40	13.7
		Rarely	26	8.9
4.	E-Resources Often Used	E-Books	96	30.9
		E-Journals	133	42.8
		E-Thesis and Dissertation	92	29.6
		Online Databases	36	11.6

**Research Question 2.2:** To what extent did students utilize digital information resources at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library?

Table 4 shows the extent of utilization of electronic information resources by postgraduate students in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. E-Journals, E-Books, and E-Thesis and Dissertation are utilized by students while item 4 (Online Database) is not utilized by students therefore, the extent of utilization is low.

**Table 4:** Utilization of E-Resources (Item Type) by Postgraduate Students in Ethiopian Civil Service University.

S.No.	Item Statement	Very Great Extent		Great Extent		Low Extent		Very Low Extent		I Do Not Know		Mode	Remark
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P		
		1.	E-Journals	70	24.2	111	38.4	63	21.8	26	9.0		
2.	E-Books	42	14.9	93	33.1	92	32.7	37	13.2	17	6.0	2	Great Extent
3.	E-Thesis and Dissertation	34	12.1	95	33.9	85	30.4	35	12.5	31	11.1	2	Great Extent
4.	Online Databases, such as JSTOR, Annual Reviews, EBSCO Host, etc.	40	14.2	66	23.5	81	28.8	50	17.8	44	15.7	3	Low Extent

Source: Field Survey, 2020

As the Table shows, postgraduate students to a high extent utilized the available e-resources, especially e-journals, e-books, and e-thesis and dissertation. This finding agrees with that of Akpojotor 2016 who investigated the awareness and usage of electronic information resources among postgraduate students and reported that postgraduate students highly used electronic information resources. Similarly, the finding agrees with that of Quadri, Adetimirin, and Idowu (2014) whose study on availability and utilization of library electronic resources by undergraduate students reported that there was a high level of utilization of e-journals and the internet.

This finding disagrees with that of Urhiewhu (2014) who studied the availability and use of digital information resources (DIRs), by undergraduate students and reported to a low extent. The finding also disagrees with that of (Adeleke and Nwalo, 2017), whose study on availability, use, and constraints to use of electronic information resources by

postgraduate, and reported a low level of usage of electronic resources. This research finding has also collaborated with different

other researches. Heterick (2002) reported high utilization of e-journals and e-books because most library users relied on them for information to do assignments, write up term papers and dissertations.

**Research Question 3:** What are the problems encountered by students while accessing and utilizing the electronic information resources in Ethiopian Civil Service University?

Results from table 5 above showed a mode of response to problems encountered by students while accessing and utilizing the electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. From the above table, lack of IT (Computer) knowledge, inadequate computers in the library, poor Internet connectivity, and lack of relevant E-Resources in various disciplines are the problems encountered by students with Mode 2, 1, 2, and 2 respectively.

**Table 5:** Problems encountered by students while accessing and utilizing the electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library

S.No.	Item Statement	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		I Do Not Know		Mode	Remark
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P		
		1.	Utilizing E-Resources are time consuming	45	15.7	89	34.1	102	35.7	32	11.3		
2.	Lack of IT (Computer) knowledge to effectively use the services	34	11.7	97	35.3	75	28.2	32	11.3	22	7.9	1	Agree
3.	Uncooperative staff to facilitate any access	39	13.5	76	28.5	85	31.7	51	17.8	42	14.8	1	Disagree
4.	Inadequate computers in the library	32	11.0	76	28.5	84	31.3	37	12.9	28	9.3	1	Strongly Agree
5.	Poor internet connection	30	10.1	97	35.9	71	26.1	31	10.3	15	5.1	1	Agree
6.	Limited subscribed titles	31	10.1	75	27.7	89	32.8	28	9.8	38	12.8	1	Disagree
7.	Power Outage	23	7.9	73	27.1	85	31.3	39	14.1	30	11.0	1	Disagree
8.	Lack of relevant E-Resources in various disciplines	38	13.4	32.6	11.8	85	31.0	40	14.3	30	10.4	1	Agree

Source: Field Survey, 2020

While Utilizing E-Resources are time-consuming, uncooperative staff, limited subscribed titles, and power outage are not problems encountered by the students.

The researcher asked FGD participants to mention additional issues which might be considered as mentioned as problems for students while they are accessing and using E-Resources. Accordingly, responses from the participants generally showed budget problems to subscribe E-Resources, especially E-Books as a major problem. On the other hand, while other E-Resources are subscribed students were not part of the decision-making process, even the faculties also were not active actors of the decision-making process. Besides, shortage of computer laboratories, shortage of professionally skilled manpower, and lack of awareness of e-resources availability among the University community were further reported as key problems hindering

users from access to and use of E-Resources by the FGD participants.

As displayed in table 5 above, respondents showed that they encountered various challenges when accessing and using E-Resources at ECSU Library. The result of this study concurs with the work of Gakibayo et al (2013) who found that some students did not effectively utilize E-Resources because they lacked computer skills. Chimah and Nwokocha (2013), who studied motivation, challenges, and strategies in the use of electronic information resources by postgraduate library users reported different challenges including an insufficient computer, slow internet connectivity, and lack of ICT skills.

This finding agreed with the report by Ankraah and Atuase (2018) that poor internet connection, insufficient skills, as well as inadequate computers are a hindrance to effective access and use of electronic resources in academic libraries. The finding also compares with that of Eden and Egbe (2016) who also reported that inconsistent internet connectivity, lack of computer skills, and irrelevant information resources were the problems students encountered while accessing and using electronic resources in the University of Calabar Library (see also Madhusudhan, 2010)). This may serve as an obstruction to learning and research work, especially to postgraduate students. The availability of computer systems in the library is necessary since it would enhance the usage of e-resources and make electronic information accessible to students who might not be able to afford computers. However, inadequate computers in the ECSU library was a major limitation for postgraduate students conducting their research work.

## Conclusion

Based on the results of the findings, it can be concluded that majority of electronic information resources are to a great extent



accessible and utilized by students in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. However, students have encountered problems while accessing and using available electronic information resources. University researchers didn't upload their research work and past exam paper to be available for students to access and use online. The library didn't have an E-Resource collection of development rules and regulations. Besides, students were not part of the decision-making process while E-Resources were procured by the library.

The effective access and utilization were hampered by a range of problems including lack of IT (computer) knowledge to effectively use the services, poor Internet connection in the dormitory, lack of relevant e-resources in various disciplines, and inadequate computers in the library were the problems encountered by students while accessing and using electronic information resources. In addition, the study further revealed that major challenges in the library were inadequate budget and lack of skilled technical staff.

## Recommendations

Based on the above findings, the following recommendations are forwarded:

- User education (appropriate regular training and orientation) should be organized for students for better use of electronic information resources in the library. The current awareness campaign is a must for every academic library because it can facilitate awareness among students, lecturers, and researchers. This would influence their intention to use the resources and improve performance expectancy;
- Information literacy course/training should be included in the university curriculum or training program so as to regularly and continuously teach users how to know, locate, access, evaluate, use and communicate information; sufficient computer facility should be available in the library to give better

chance for library users to access electronic information resources; Library technical staff should be informed and trained so as to actively help students in accessing and using electronic information resources;

- The University Management should provide adequate funds for the subscription of relevant e-resources. The library should separate the E-Resource budget from monographs;
- Selection decisions for e-resources, especially for e-journals should be made with great care, taking into account the information needs of the academic community and collection relevancy, accessibility, usage, availability of full-text databases, and the overall cost of e-journals;
- The ECSUL is recommended that they must continuously review e-resources in light of the current interest of users, by conducting a need assessment about access to and use of e-resources; efforts should be made by the University Administrator and Library Management to improve and enhance internet connectivity problems to enable the students to have easy access to online e-resources;
- In order for ECSUL to be effective in influencing access to and use of e-resources, it is recommended that electronic collection development rules and regulation, guidelines and procedures for budget allocation, needs assessment, selection, collection maintenance, evaluation, and resource sharing be formulated and be implemented to enhance the efficient management of e-resource collection in the library;
- There should be some kind of mechanism for students to be part of the decision-making process in the procurement of e-resources.

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NA

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# ***The Implementation of Good Governance in Service Provisions: The Case of Yeka Sub-City, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia***

*Daba Moti Duguma\**

## **Abstract**

*Addis Ababa city administration is characterised poorly in the implementation of good governance. The main objective of the study was to assess the implementation of good governance while rendering services to the citizens. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches. SPSS statistic was used for the descriptive analysis. The findings indicate favourable results in meeting the needs of citizens. Although the implementation process has brought tangible results, it is not free from some challenges. Limitations in providing services while balanced interests in a timely, appropriate, and responsive manner; inefficiency and ineffectiveness; limitations in information distribution; and lack of equal opportunities in the decision-making process were the challenges. In conclusion, both achievements and failures were observed. At last, understanding customers' expectations in service provisions; systematizing customers' feedback; and continuous awareness creation to the staff are the recommendations identified for future development.*

*Keywords: governance, efficiency, effectiveness, transparency, accountability*

*\*\*Ethiopian Civil Service University*

*Director, Consultancy Coordination Directorate*

*E-mail: daba.moti@yahoo.com*

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## **Introduction**

The concept of good governance was incorporated in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as a major component of the battle against poverty and economic development. Good governance refers to the prevalence of government accountability, transparency in decision making, implementing the rule of law and regulations, early responsiveness to the demand of citizens, equity and inclusiveness among interest groups, effectiveness, and efficiency in resource utilization in service delivery approach (Dibaba, 2015). Governance is also a complex management practice through which citizens and interest groups of the country articulate their expressions and exercise their rights in the decision-making process. Good governance strategy is representative of a successful public sector institutions reform program, its implementation process is complex (Worwu, 2013). The concept of public or civil service sector reform and good governance has evolved

from isolated occurrences and is now seen largely as a global issue. The practice of governance associated with public sector reform programs has led to the formalization of good governance. The Mo Ibrahim Foundation defines good governance as the service provider in relation to political, social, and economic public goods and services. Each of these contains sub-categories under which they have been organized various indicators that provide quantifiable measures of the overarching dimensions of governance (Kodabux, 2017).

The adoption of the federal system of Government in Ethiopia resulted in open, transparent, and democratic governance that respects the right of all citizens, the adoption of the decentralization process, which gave power to regional governments to implement development policies and

strategies and provided the opportunity for residents to participate in development programs (Yirg a, 2010). The Ethiopian government has begun implementing reform in good governance due to service delivery dissatisfaction of citizens of the country and growing consensus that it is the root cause of all-round crises in the public sector (Chanyalew, 2014). The civil service reforms taking place in Ethiopia are meant for building the capacity for the implementation of good governance in the country. To enhance the capacity of public institutions in Ethiopia and to create an ideal environment for investment and economic growth, the public sector has gone through a series of reform processes including the civil service (Atkilt, 1996).

## **Problem Statement**

Ethiopia has faced challenges in implementing good governance in the country. To address the challenges in building good governance, the government developed a multi-sectoral national capacity building strategy. Despite endowed with resources that can help bring about economic miracles for the country, poor governance has contributed to the country's lowest economic and social indicators (Dibaba, 2015). According to Alemu, (2011), the inefficiencies and ineffective processes of organizational structure, management practices, outdated work processes, and procedures affected the governance system of the public sectors in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa City Administration which is the capital city of Ethiopia is providing services to its citizens. Addis Ababa city is also the seat of the Africa Union and various international organisations by organising its Administration institutions' levels in ten sub-cities. Although the achievements of the good governance implementation process in the city administration have been observed, the institutions are not free from the

challenges of bad governance (Meretu, 2015).

According to Chanyalew, (2014), the performance of Addis Ababa city administration indicated that there is poor accountability, lack of transparency, poor customer satisfaction, and ill commitment of leaders at all levels of the administration. The poor capacity and absence of skilled staff resulted in poor service delivery processes. The magnitude of the challenges is more described at the *woreda* administration office level where more services are required from citizens of the city. Because of these research facts, it requires more efforts to practice good governance in the government institutions to respond to the needs of the citizens. Therefore, this study attempts to identify the gaps of the prior researches by identifying the performance of the implementation of good governance and the root causes of these problems. The study will also have importance in identifying the current trend and factors hindering the implementation of good governance in public service institutions of Addis Ababa city Administration. The variables treated in the study include effectiveness and efficiency, transparency, accountability, participation, fairness and equity, responsiveness, and rule of law. Based on this background information, the study used the following basic research questions.

## **Research Questions:**

1. What are the implementation performances of each determinant variable?
2. To what extent each determinant factor affects good governance?
3. What extent of effect does the overall bundle of the determinant factors have on the performance of good governance?
4. What challenges did the institutions face in practising good governance?

The general objective of the study is to assess the implementation of good governance while rendering services to the citizens. Public institutions of Addis Ababa city administration have been providing services at each bureau, sub-city, and *woreda* administration office levels. Since it is difficult to investigate all the levels of the city administration, the study focused only on Yeka sub-city. From this sub-city, three *woreda* administration offices were selected for the study. Due to the real unknown number of customers/ service users of the administration offices, the number of respondents was restricted to be selected randomly using the probability approach. The findings of the study will help decision-makers and members of the administration in improving good governance which can lead them to efficiency and effectiveness.

## Conceptual Framework of Good Governance

Good governance is defined in different international literature. It stresses the importance of participation of several actors in government affairs that everyone is entitled to an international order in which the rights and freedoms can be fully realized (Legas, A., 2015). Good governance refers to the prevalence of government accountability, transparency in decision making, implementing the rule of law and regulations, early responsiveness to the demand of citizens, equity and inclusiveness among interest groups, effectiveness, and efficiency in resource utilisation in service delivery approach (Dibaba, S.2015). Good governance has to address the interest of stakeholders in policy initiatives (Dayanandan, 2013). Good governance is the mechanisms through which citizens articulate their legal rights, responsibilities, and meet their obligations and mediate their differences. The voices of the poorest, disadvantaged class, and the most vulnerable communities are heard in decision- making

process over the allocation of resources and decisions passed.

Good governance depends on the interaction among stakeholders and leaders and requires the exercise of legal frameworks that are enforced impartially to ensure equity among citizens. In this regard, rules and regulations that are implied should be clear and friendly enough to the public.

The implementation of good governance has eight major elements (UNESCAP, 2014). These are accountability, transparency and openness, early responsive manner, equity and inclusiveness of the interest groups, effectiveness and efficient utilization of resources, applying the rule of law, following participatory approach in the decision-making process, and consensus-oriented among interest groups. On the other hand, according to Khanna (2017), the good governance framework consists of seven basic principles as shown in fig.1 below. Even though different kinds of literature describe a different number of elements of good governance, almost all of them have similar concepts. Thus, according to UNESCAP (2014) and Khanna (2017), the following seven elements or principles and practices would become common tools for improving the service delivery and management strategy for achieving good governance as well as filling gaps that may exist between the current and desired state of governance affairs.

Fig. 1. Conceptual Framework



Source: Adopted from Khanna, 2017

## Effectiveness and Efficiency

Effectiveness and efficiency are exclusive performance measures, which entities can use to assess their performance. Efficiency is oriented towards successful input transformation into outputs, where effectiveness measures how outputs interact with the economic and social environment. Good governance requires all concerned institutions to perform effectively and efficiently as per their assigned roles and responsibilities. As such, institutions have to consider relevant factors so as to achieve the strategic goals, objectives, outcomes, and continuous development of the institution. Thus, performance management would play an important role in contributing to exercise good governance and improving institutional outcomes effectively and efficiently. According to Kefela (2011), the horns of Africa countries that are quite similar in terms of their natural resources and social structure have shown strikingly different performance in improving the welfare of their people. Bartuseviciene, & Sakalyte (2013) conducted a study on organizational assessment in effectiveness vs. efficiency. They found that organization revealed inefficient and ineffective and still survive at a high cost. Keeping in mind the findings of previous studies, this study hypothesised that:

*H1: There is a positive relationship between effectiveness and efficiency and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between effectiveness and efficiency and good governance*

## Transparency & Openness

Transparency indicates that public information should be accessible in an easily understandable system that should be freely available and directly accessible to stakeholders or citizens who will be affected by the policies, strategies, and practices of

the government. Information relating to the policies, products, and processes should be directly accessible to those citizens and enough information should be provided so as to understand and monitor the governance approach appropriately. The executives in the concerned institution should be as open as possible about all the decisions and actions that they take. The leaders or decision-makers of the government institution should give reasons for their decisions passed and information distributed when the public interests clearly demand. Openness as a leadership quality has many important things in it. When governance becomes open to change stakeholders could get the change that happens and how it will work for them and their institution (Legas, 2015). Transparency has to do with the leadership carrying out government business in an open, easy to understand, and explicit manner such that the rules made by the government, the policies implemented by the government, and the results of government activities are easy to verify by the ordinary citizens. Unfortunately, this is lacking in the public domain Adagbabiri (2015).

*H1: There is a positive relationship between transparency and openness and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between transparency and openness and good governance*

## Accountability

Accountability is a fundamental element of the implementation of good governance. Government institutions are accountable to the application of rules of law. According to Addisu (2015), accountability is an important quality for effective leadership. Accountability can be manifested by taking risks for both success and failure factors of the institution. Some scholars have argued that the enhanced performance of governmental agencies in any nation is a product of good governance, accountability,



transparency and trust, which in turn brings about the improvement in the living standard of the people.

However, Gberevbie, Oyeyemi, & Excellence-Oluye (2014) found that manifestation of unethical behavior amongst public officials is the major challenge hindering development in the country. It, therefore, recommends among others the need for the government to strengthen the existing anti-corruption agencies to enable them to enforce the proper ethical standard.

*H1: There is a positive relationship between accountability and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between accountability and good governance*

## Participation

Participation is a process whereby leaders invite the public or stakeholders on issues of citizens. This can happen in several ways. Community members have to have access to information, ask for their opinion, given the opportunity to make recommendations, and be part of the decision-making process. This will improve the overall governance implementation process, economic efficiency, and effectiveness and the overall development of the country as a whole. All players of governance in the institution would set an example of a good collective participation approach. Government officials would work in close association with each other for the overall development and smooth operation of the institution concerned. In other words, everyone concerned would have an opportunity to participate freely in the governance of the institution. As a result, such good participation would help the administrative management in creating an environment of good governance. Shehu, Dollani, & Gjuta (2013) found that the level of participation and community mobilization in the Kukes

Region is not satisfactory, being mainly at low levels. The reasons for such a thing are numerous. Lack of tradition of participation, lack of information about the importance of participation, and the unwillingness of state institutions to community involvement were the major problems identified.

*H1: There is a positive relationship between participation and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between participation and good governance*

## Fairness and Equity

The institutional framework that prescribes the procedures and policies of the concerned organization would be fair and enforced effectively so as to create an environment of good governance, whereas equity implies being fair and just to all concerned. It refers to material resources, specific power status, and environment that enable the institutions to achieve the desired goals and services. So far as the requirement for equity is concerned, all the institutional managers in the organization would have an equal status in discussions and have collective responsibility for its decisions. Thereby compliance with legal requirements that involve equal opportunities and anti-discrimination would be achieved. All interest groups, men or women have opportunities to improve their well-being (Legas, 2015). Jones (2009) found that recent decades have seen rising inequality and inequities in developing countries. The government is raising inequity that can and should be tackled by the development community and should be more firmly on the agenda.

*H1: There is a positive relationship between fairness and equity; and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between fairness and equity and good governance*

## Responsiveness

A government institution has to respond to the needs of its citizens. Understanding the government's responsiveness to its citizens needs is a key issue while providing services to its citizens. Early responses in the decision-making process add special value to the prevalence of good governance Timothy (2002). Wijaya, Glasbergen, Leroy, & Darmastuti (2018) conducted research focusing on the performance of the institution and their action to solve and serve the people of Indonesia. Good responsiveness is still hard to apply inside their government. They suggested that recovery during disasters/issues, recovery in all aspects to healing. Responsiveness of government to supply people's needs during issues, re-identified the problem, choose what most important is and that is good responsiveness to handle and solve environmental issues.

*H1: There is a positive relationship between responsiveness and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between responsiveness and good governance*

## Follows the Rule of Law

Rule of law means the decisions that are consistent with the legislation. Good governance requires government institutions to process, design, and implements the service delivery approach to serve the best interests of stakeholders within a reasonable quality and time frame. The consistency of decisions made in consonance with the rule of law is the legal competence of decision making government bodies. Johnston, M. (2006) found that avoiding excessive legislation and regulation, giving politics its place in good governance, building broad-

based support for reform, and paying close attention to incentives for leaders and citizens were the major problems.

*H1: There is a positive relationship between rule of law and good governance*

*H0: There is no positive relationship between rule of law and good governance*

## Materials and Methods

### Research Design

The study deals with the assessment of the implementation process of good governance while rendering services to the citizens. This type of assessment favors the use of an explanatory type of research. This study used two types of data collection methods, quantitative and qualitative, with the closed and open-ended questionnaire, interviews, and focus group discussions to capture in-depth and wider data for the analysis.

Although the result of the research might highly be dependent on the primary data that were gathered through the questionnaire, interviews, and focus group discussions, document reviews were also important to clearly understand the concepts and results of the implementation. Instead of concentrating only on the response to the structured questionnaire, the researcher triangulates the data gathered from the different sources. The importance of collecting and considering primary and secondary as well as qualitative and quantitative data is used to triangulate and supplement the diverse data generated from different sources which in return is used to make the research findings reliable.

Data quality was assured using appropriate data collection process techniques such as giving orientation to data collectors about the contents of the questionnaire and frequent supervisions; data collectors assisting the respondents in case of difficulties; the researcher's reporting problems encountered at the time of data collection immediately;

and taking appropriate measures. Questionnaires were checked for missing values and inconsistency. Those found to have lots of missing values and inconsistencies were excluded from the study and considered as non-respondent. Finally, data coding and entry were made by the principal investigator with the help of data entry professionals.

### Population and Sample Size

The target population of this study is all customers receiving services from city administration offices. For the data collection, through purposive sampling, the Yeka sub-city was selected. This type of purposive selection is because of consistency, time, and cost for the study. From this sub-city, three *woreda* administration offices were selected. Kothari R. (2004) advises researchers to take the value of  $p = 0.5$  where  $n$  would be the maximum and the sample would yield at least the desired precision. This would be the most conservative sample size assuming a 95% confidence level and  $P = 50\%$ . Overton, & Stehman (1995) provided a simplified formula to calculate a sample size when information about the population is not available. Here, it is difficult to get information about the total population of the study area who is being served permanently from the institutions.

$$n = p q z^2 / e^2$$

Where  $n$  = desired sample size

$p$  = population proportion (0.5)

$Z$  = confidence level (1.96)

$q$  = the value derived (0.5)

$e$  = acceptable error (0.05)

The sample size in this study is 384 respondents and has been calculated drawing on the above formula. To compensate for non-responses, additional (40%) respondents were included in the study. Accordingly, 538 copies of the questionnaire were distributed

to the respondents. The respondents were focused on those customers of the institutions that have been served on the particular days of data collection. After collecting and cleaning the data, 520 questionnaires were used for the analysis.

### Data Collection Instruments

Primary and secondary data were gathered using data collection instruments. Primary data were collected using data collection instruments that include structured and unstructured questionnaires, interviews, and focused group discussions. The secondary data were gathered from the documents of the institutions and research findings of various scholars on the topic under investigation. In the questionnaire, there were both close-ended and open-ended non-numerical questions. The closed-ended quantitative method was organized using the Likert five scale format (considered on a 1-5 points scale, where 1 represents the lowest level of satisfaction or high disagreement, whereas 5 represents the highest level of satisfaction or high agreement). The points of scale indicate the degree of satisfaction or agreement level of the respondents. It is also used to increase the response rate and response quality along with reducing respondents' frustration level.

### Data Analysis Method

After the completion of the data collection process, data screening, coding, entering, and analyzing was made so as to check the consistency and validity of data collected with different tools. Both quantitative and qualitative data were used for the analysis. Data from structured questionnaires are analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS software version 25. The descriptive statistics (minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation) help the study to examine the general level of performance implementation in good governance. The inferential statistics (correlation and regression analysis) is also

used to consider the validity and reliability of this study.

### Reliability of the Instrument

According to Kothari (2004), a measuring instrument is reliable if it provides consistent results. Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient of reliability. It is commonly used as a measure of the internal consistency or reliability of a psychometric test score for a sample of examinees. Thus, for testing the reliability of the data instrument, Cronbach's Alpha is calculated to test the reliability of the research instrument. The correlation coefficient is a statistical measure of the strength of the relationship between the variables. The values range between -1.0 and 1.0. A calculated number is greater than 1.0 or less than -1.0 indicates that there was an error in the correlation measurement. A correlation of -1.0 shows a perfect negative correlation, while a correlation of 1.0 shows a perfect positive correlation. A correlation of 0.0 shows no linear relationship between the movements of the two variables.

According to Zikmund & Griffin (2010) scales, coefficient alpha between 0.8 and 0.95 are considered to have very good quality, scales with coefficient alpha between 0.7 and 0.8 are considered to have good reliability, and coefficient alpha between 0.6 and 0.7 indicates fair reliability.

### Validity of the Instrument

Content validity involves the degree to which the study is measuring what it is supposed to measure. Linear regression analysis is used to measure the statistical significance of the effect of each individual independent variable on the dependent variable through F and P-value. This measurement is made by inferring the value of  $R^2$  to explain the magnitude of the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable. In order to measure the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable, a Multiple Linear Regression

Equation is used. The Multiple Linear Regression Equation is described as:

Good Governance =  $f$  (EE, TO, AC, PA, FE, RE, and RL)

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \beta_7 X_7$$

Where:-

$Y$  = Good governance

$X_1$  = Effectiveness and Efficiency

$X_2$  = Transparent and openness

$X_3$  = Accountability

$X_4$  = Participation

$X_5$  = Fairness and Equity

$X_6$  = Responsiveness

$X_7$  = Rule of Law

With the help of the above-given equation, the effects of independent variables on the dependent variable are measured.  $\beta_0$  is the intercept term that gives the mean effect on the dependent variable of all the variables excluded from the equation, although its mechanical interpretation is the average value of good governance performance when the stated independent variables are set equal to zero.  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6,$  and  $\beta_7$  refer to the coefficient of their respective independent variable which measures the change in the mean value of good governance performance, per unit change in their respective independent variables.

## Results and Discussion

### Results

#### Responses of the Respondents

In this section, details are given to the items of the assessment on the implementation of good governance in service provisions to the citizens. The customer perception in the assessment process is used as an instrument for identifying the gap between the desired results and achieved results in the



implementation process of good governance in the institutions. As indicated in the methodology section, 538 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents out of which 520 were correctly filled and returned. In addition to the structured questionnaire, three focused group discussions and nine interviews were conducted. The results in terms of the items of the elements of the implementation results are described as follows.

As can be observed from Table 2, the respondents responded in each item of the independent variables. The responses of the individual items reveal differences among respondents. However, the mean values of all the responses of the items of the determinant factors show above the moderate level (i.e 2.5). This shows that the implementation performances of each determinant variable are well. This implies that the institution's practice is well-accepted performance in

**Table 1: The average responses of the overall bundle of the determinant factors**

No.	Determinant Factors	Frequency	Response Level					Total
			Str. disagree	Disagree	Moderate	Agree	Str. agree	
1	Effective and efficient	Frequency	36.75	97.25	185.5	152.5	48	520
2	Transparent and open	Frequency	24.5	88.75	184	173.25	49.5	520
3	Accountability	Frequency	22.75	88.25	188.5	167.5	53.5	520
4	Participation	Frequency	19.75	92.25	191	168.75	48.25	520
5	Fairness and Equity	Frequency	20.75	71.5	187	190.75	50	520
6	Responsive	Frequency	29	104	217	132	38	520
7	Rule of Law	Frequency	30	99	208	143	40	520
<b>Average of Overall Responses</b>			<b>26</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>194</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>520</b>
<b>Overall Percent (%)</b>			<b>5</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Own survey, 2020

Table 1 shows the respondents' average of the overall responses of each item of the determinant factors. The responses of the individual items are summarized under each determinant factor. Each frequency describes the average responses of each item. Accordingly, 77% of the total respondents responded to a moderate level and above while only 23% of the total respondents show below the moderate level. The result implies that the institutions practice a well-accepted performance in the implementation of good governance.

good governance.

### Correlation Analysis

The hypotheses discussed in the conceptual framework aimed to investigate the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable Correlation analysis is done to examine this relationship. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient is a statistic that indicates the degree to which two variables are related to one another. The sign of a correlation coefficient (+ or -) indicates the direction of the relationship between -1.00 and +1.00. Variables may be positively or negatively correlated. A positive correlation indicates a direct positive relationship between two variables.

**Table 2: The minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation values of the responses**

Independent Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Effective and Efficient	1.00	5.00	3.1776	.92694
Transparent and Open	1.00	5.00	3.2410	.86391
Accountability	1.00	5.00	3.2769	.86798
Participation	1.00	5.00	3.2615	.86931
Fairness and Equity	1.00	5.00	3.3827	.84657
Responsiveness	1.00	5.00	3.1337	.84258
Rules of Law	1.00	5.00	3.2990	.88255

**Table 3: Pearson Correlation**

Correlation coefficient	Strength of the correlation
From 0.01 up to 0.09	Negligible association
From 0.10 up to 0.29	Low association
From 0.30 up to 0.49	Moderate association
From 0.50 up to 0.69	Substantial association
From 0.70 and above	Very strong association

Source: Joe ., Athens, Williams and Khata (2011).

A negative correlation, on the other hand, indicates an inverse, negative relationship between two variables.

Table 3 clearly shows that the relationship between two variables will be negligible, low, moderate, substantial, or very strong.

Determining the degree of association between the determinant factors and good governance performance is the main purpose of conducting an analysis using Pearson correlation. So, in this section, the hypotheses were tested based on the correlation result summarized in table 4.

**Table 4: Pearson Correlation Analysis between Independent variables and dependent Variable**

	Good Governance	Effective and Efficient	Transparent and Open	Accountability	Participation	Fairness and Equity	Responsiveness	Rule of Law
Good Governance	1.000	.789	.843	.808	.756	.808	.807	.807
Effective and Efficient	.789	1.000	.756	.808	.807	.808	.807	.807
Transparent and Open	.843	.756	1.000	.754	.807	.801	.800	.807
Accountability	.808	.808	.754	1.000	.750	.801	.801	.807
Participation	.756	.807	.807	.750	1.000	.802	.800	.803
Fairness and Equity	.808	.808	.801	.801	.802	1.000	.800	.800
Responsiveness	.807	.807	.800	.801	.800	.800	1.000	.800
Rule of Law	.807	.807	.801	.801	.802	.800	.800	1.000

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Table 4 describes the correlation analysis between the independent variables and the dependent variable; and among the independent variables. The result shows that the existing practices of effectiveness and efficiency ( $r= 0 .789, p<0.01$ ), transparency and openness ( $r= .0.843, p<0.01$ ), accountability ( $r= .0.808, p<0.01$ ), participation ( $r= .0.756, p<0.01$ ) and rule of law ( $r= .0.807, p<0.01$ ) have very strong association, positive relationship and statistical significant. Fairness and Equity ( $r=$

.0.648,  $p<0.01$ ) and responsiveness ( $r= .0.657, p<0.01$ ) have substantial association, positive relationship and statistical significant. Therefore, the entire null hypotheses (H0) are rejected.

### Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is a systematic method that is used to investigate the effect of one or more predictor variables on the dependent variable. Regression analysis is a reliable method of identifying which variables have an impact on a topic of interest. The process

of performing a regression allows us to confidently determine which factors matter most, which factors can be ignored, and how these factors influence each other. Thus, this multiple regression is used in order to investigate the effect of the overall bundle of selected determinant factors on the dependent variable. The coefficient of determination (denoted by  $R^2$ ) is a key output of regression analysis. It is interpreted as the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable. The coefficient of determination is the square of the correlation ( $r$ ) between the predicted variable and actual variable; thus, it ranges from 0 to 1. An  $R^2$  between 0 and 1 indicates the extent to which the dependent variable is predictable.

**Table 5: Multiple Linear Regression Equation Summaries**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					F Change	df1	df2	
1	.937 <sup>a</sup>	.878	.878	24740	878	516.050	7	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), effective and efficient, transparent and open, accountability, participation, fairness and equity, responsiveness, rule of law

b. Dependent Variable: Good Governance

As shown in table 5, the overall bundle of determinant factors explains 87.8 % ( $R^2 = 0.878$ ) of the dependent variable. This suggests that 87.8 % of good governance level in the institutions clearly depends on the independent variables while the remaining 12.2 % is determined by other

unaccounted factors in the study. If the P-value for the F-test of the overall significance test is less than the significance level, the null hypothesis can be rejected and conclude that the model provides a better fit. The result F= 526.050 which is greater than 1 and P<0.01 indicates that the combination of determinant factors have a positive effect on good governance which is statistically significant at 99%.

Table 6 compares the relative contribution of each independent variable by taking the beta value under the standardised coefficients. The higher the beta value indicates its strongest contribution to the dependent variable. Accordingly, effectiveness and efficiency (Beta=0.187) makes the strongest contribution in explaining the dependent variable in which the results revealed that, a one unit increase in effectiveness and efficiency would lead to a 0.187 unit increase the level of good governance and followed by both transparency and opens; and responsiveness (B=0.185).

participation have a statistically significant contribution (Sig < 0.05) for the prediction of the dependent variable. On the other hand, participation (Sig. = 0.416) shows that statistically less effect to make a significant prediction. The equation of multiple regressions is built on the dependent variable and independent variables. The objective of using the regression equation is to make it more effective at describing and predicting the stated variables based on their contributions to the dependent variable. Therefore, using the result in the regression coefficient described in table 6, the estimated regression model is shown below.

$$Y = 0.161 + 0.187 X1 + 0.185 X2 + 0.124 X3 + 0.022 X4 + 0.122 X5 + 0.185 X6 + 0.107 X7$$

$$\text{Good Governance} = 0.161 + 0.187 \text{effectiveness and efficiency} + 0.185 \text{transparent and openness} + 0.124 \text{accountability} + 0.022 \text{participation} + 0.122 \text{fairness and equity} + 0.185 \text{responsiveness} + 0.1078 \text{rule of law.}$$

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1						
	(Constant)	.161	.053		3.037	.003
	Effectiveness and efficiency	.187	.019	.246	9.911	.000
	Transparent and openness	.185	.031	.227	6.049	.000
	Accountability	.124	.023	.153	5.336	.000
	Participation	.022	.026	.027	.815	.416
	Fairness and equity	.122	.017	.146	7.206	.000
	Responsiveness	.185	.016	.221	11.558	.000
	Rule of law	.107	.032	.134	3.324	.001

N=520, Adjusted R Square = 0.881, F = 551.081, Durbin-Watson= 1.995, overall model significance = 0.000 level

Table 6 shows accountability, fairness and equity; rules of law and participation contribute to the dependent variable with beta values of B= 0.124, B=0.122, B=0.107, and B= 0.022 respectively. The statistical significance of each variable from Table 5 also shows that independent variables except

The beta value of the independent variable (effectiveness and efficiency) is 0.187 with t value of 9.911 and a significant level of .000. The beta value of the independent variable (transparent and openness) is 0.185 with a t value of 6.049 and a significant level of .000. The beta value of the independent variable

(accountability) is 0.124 with a t value of 5.336 and a significant level of .000. The beta value of the independent variable (participation) is 0.002 with a t value of 0.815 and a significant level of .416. The beta value of the independent variable (fairness and equity) are 0.122 with a t value of 7.206 and a significant level of .000. the beta value of the independent variable (responsiveness) is 0.185 with a t value of 11.558 and a significant level of .000. the beta value of the independent variable (rule of law) is 0.107 with t value 3.324 and a significant level of .001. This beta value indicates the amount of change in the dependent variable due to changes in independent variables. All independent variables have a positive and strong impact on good governance. Though participation has a positive relationship with the dependent variable, it has a weak impact.

## Discussion

### Performance – Effectiveness and Efficiency

Good governance requires all concerned institutions to perform effectively and efficiently as per their assigned functions, operations, roles, and responsibilities assigned. Good governance implies the processes implemented by the organisation to produce favorable results meet the needs of its stakeholders while making the best use of resources – human, technological, financial, natural, and environmental. According to Hailu (2018), Abuhay (2015), and Alemu (2011), the inefficiencies and ineffective processes of organisational structure and management practices affected the governance system of the public sectors in Ethiopia. Despite the endowed resources of the country that can bring about economic miracles and development in the country, due to poor governance, the country is one of the lowest in any of the economic and social indicators (Dibaba, 2015).

However, the findings of this study indicate that customers get favorable results. The

institutions' performance in effectiveness and efficiency is well which is acceptable. The institutions work effectively as per the customers' demand; use public resources effectively; provide quality services to their customers and have follow-up and supporting systems. Though the performance shows favorable results, the variable is not free from some limitations. Lack of infrastructures; low awareness in the system of resource utilization; low commitment of service provisions; lack of service quality; and lack of basic necessary knowledge, skills, and attitude of service providers were the major limitations.

### Transparency

Transparency indicates that public information should be accessible in an easily understandable system that should be freely available and directly accessible to stakeholders or citizens who will be affected by the policies, strategies, and practices of the government. The institution should also evaluate the progress of the implementation made towards the targets and disclose it along with other relevant information as required by the citizens. The executives in the concerned institution should be as open as possible about all the decisions and actions that they take. Openness as a leadership quality has many important things in it. The first and important quality of openness is a change or new idea acceptance by leadership (Legas, 2015). According to Hailu (2015), the institutions have not been found perfectly effective in transparency. This study found different results. The institutions have policies and strategies; distribute all information openly and timely to the public. However, lack of openness and transparency in decision-making processes; lack of trustworthiness, and shortage of information accessibility were the major problems identified.



## Accountability

Government institutions are accountable to the applicable rules of law. According to Legas, (2015), accountability is an important quality for effective leadership. Though the implementation of accountability is representative of a successful public sector institution reform program, its implementation process is complex (Worku, 2013). According to Bekele (2013), the autocratic or patron-client relations in the political process, the involvement of public servants in private business, poor service conditions, the decline of professionalism, and ethnicity contributed to the deterioration of accountability in Ethiopia. However, this study reveals a different result. The findings of the study indicate favorable results in terms of accountability. Weak accountability in decision-making processes; high level of corruption and discrimination; and misunderstanding as they are accountable to their customers are the major problems identified.

## Participation

Participation refers to a process whereby leaders engage citizens or stakeholders on their issues. Citizens have to have access to information, ask for their opinion, given the opportunity to make recommendations, and be part of the decision-making process. This will improve the overall development of the country. In other words, everyone concerned would have an opportunity to participate freely in the governance of the institution. As a result, such good participation would help the administrative management in creating an environment of good governance (Khanna, 2017). Hailu (2018), and Legs (2015) found that the societal participation is in progress but the participants of women and youth is constrained by harmful traditional practices. However, the findings of the study indicate favorable results in terms of participation. The institutions involve all customers while making core

decisions; listen to the voice or ideas of the customers; the customers have the practical right to express their ideas freely. However, weak accountability in decision-making processes and unfair opportunities in participation were the major problems identified.

Leadership direction and strategic vision: - Leadership is about setting the directions, developing the culture of the organization, determining its principles and values, and motivating the people in the organization to commit themselves to those principles and values. Leaders would plan and direct an appropriate strategy. They would also make effective arrangements to ensure that a good management system, including a decision-making system, is in place for the satisfactory operation and management of the institution (Oziegbe, 2015). According to Chanyalew (2014), the performance of Addis Ababa city administration indicated that there is an ill commitment of leaders at all levels of the administration. The poor capacity and absence of skilled staff resulted in poor service delivery processes. The magnitude of the challenges is more prescribed at the Woreda administration office level where more services are required from citizens of the city. Lack of effective leadership is the main cause of Africa's lagging behind from the rest of the world (Hasen, 2013). The findings of the study indicate favorable results in terms of leadership style with some limitations. The institutions have work commitment; have leadership skills; have an institutional vision; treat all customers equally. Lack of leaders' administrative skills and knowledge; lack of implementing policies directed from the regional government; weak interaction and relationship between people and leaders; Low awareness in understanding the vision of the institutions; and lack of strategic planning for the implementation processes were the major problems identified.

## Fairness and Equity Responsiveness and Following the Rule of Law

The institutional framework that prescribes the procedures and policies of the concerned organization would be fair and enforced effectively so as to create an environment of good governance. Thereby compliance with legal requirements that involve equal opportunities, consensus, and anti-discrimination would be achieved. Consensus oriented decision-making process is a decision system that seeks the agreement of most stakeholders. The consistency of decisions made in consonance with the rule of law is the legal competence of decision making government bodies. According to Chanyalew (2014), Legas (2015), and Hailu (2018), the institutions are characterized by poor performance. However, the findings of the study indicate favorable results in terms of the variables with some limitations. The institutions provide fair decisions to their customers equally; consider gender equality while providing services; consider religious and cultural equality; have the intention to work on consensus-oriented ideas; provide services timely, quality services and less cost response to the questions of the customers; and provide services according to rules and regulations of the institutions.

However, lack of awareness in balancing the needs of all customers and lack of speedy response to the citizens were identified as limitations pinpointed from the open-ended questions, focus group discussions, and interviews. Similarly, limitations in the complaint handling system; lack of empowerment, and lack of continuity in applying the rule and law were also pointed as problems.

Generally, the findings from previous researches and this study revealed different results in the implementation of the elements of good governance. The root causes of each element were different from study to study. It

can be said that it is difficult to expect similar findings from different study areas.

## Conclusion and Recommendation

The overall practices of good governance in the study area show that the institutions have been found to have well-accepted performance in the light of the elements of good governance. The quantitative performance in the implementation of all the elements of good governance is acceptable. However, the interviews and focus group discussions showed both positive results and limitations. The positive practices dominated the limitations. Although implementation practices of good governance have brought about tangible results, it was not free from some limitations. Challenges such as lack of infrastructures; low awareness in the system of resource utilization; low commitment in service provisions; lack of service quality; weak accountability in decision-making processes; high level of corruption and discrimination; unfair opportunities in participation; lack of service provision skill and knowledge of staffs; low awareness in understanding the vision of the institutions; and lack of continuity in applying the rule of law were observed.

Therefore, the institutions should highlight successful parts of the implementation process that should be developed and limitations that should deserve the attention of concerned bodies of the institutions to take corrective measures. Based on the findings and conclusion made, I have come up with the following recommendations.

- To bring effective and efficient performance, the institutions should use resources with commitment and evidence-based strategies for improvement in producing favorable results that meet the needs of the citizens. The institutions should improve efficient and effective service provisions by

creating greater transparency, accountability, and applying resource maximization principles. The institutions' staff should respect the rules and regulations of the institutions without any preconditions. Citizens have to proactively participate in all aspects of the governance process. Participation needs to be informed and organized, including freedom of expression and concern for the best interests of the stakeholders. Public institutions should allocate the citizens' resources fairly and reasonably to all without discrimination based on ethnicity, gender, economic level, and political view.

- To practice transparency and openness, the institutions should build on the free flow of information. The institutions have been obliged to the rights and duties of the governance. The customers have been served with decisions that are consistent with the rules and regulations of the government. The institutions developed the goal congruence among the multicultural of customers and mitigated the objections of the minority to reach a broad consensus of what in the best interest of the citizens. The customers have been responsively provided their basic needs.
- To promote the participation of stakeholders, the institutions should practice community-based organizations. The institutions should have customers' feedback systems. The institutions should listen to customers, collect information, and analyze the data to see any trends in customers' expectations. The stakeholders who directly represent the society can strongly contribute to building good governance in the institutions.
- To provide early and timely responses to citizens, the institutions should automate the organizational structure at a one-stop shopping system. Institutions have to be proactive and quick in giving solutions for complaints of the customer.

According to the Rule of the law of the public institutions, all service providers should be under the law. Government institutions should be abided by the laws of the city administration.

- To upgrade the knowledge, skills, and attitude of employees, institutions should provide continuous capacity building training in the area of good governance to the leaders and staff. Institutions in any of their activities are expected to be active. Institutions should correct delaying and long processes while serving the society or user understanding that customers are hurting.

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The author declare that he has no competing interests.

### Ethics Approval

NA

### Availability of Data and Materials

The data along with the survey questionnaire may be made available and accessible at the University data centre

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## The Magnitude and Causes of Hazardous Child Labour in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Kidanemariam G. \*, Kassa T.\*\*, Tesfaye C.\*\*\*, Desalegne Sh., Meshesha Z.\*\*\*\*\*, Woinshet M.\*\*\*\*\*, Hiwot W.\*\*\*\*\*

### Abstract

The main objective of this study was to assess the magnitude and causes of hazardous child labor in Addis Ababa. To address this objective, a mixed method research design that tilts towards quantitative approach was employed. The result revealed that about 90% of child laborers in Addis Ababa are working in hazardous working conditions, which is much higher than the Sub Saharan Africa average and ILO and CSA estimates for Addis Ababa. This affects physical and mental health and moral development of the children. Considerable proportions of child laborers are working in unhealthy environment mainly in areas exposed to dust, smoke, and fume; extreme cold and heat; loud noise or vibration as well as physical, psychological, and sexual abuses because of their work. Children work or engage in child labor for a variety of reasons. Accordingly, the most important factors behind child labor among children were found to be poverty, children's economic interest, and rural-urban migration. Therefore, the federal and regional governments are required to collaborate to reduce poverty induced child migration from regional states to Addis Ababa. That means there is a need to have poverty reduction strategies that reduce general poverty at the source and increase incomes and hence are likely to have a positive effect on reducing child labor. Every poverty reduction strategy needs to take child labor into account.

Key words: Child labor, hazardous, magnitude, cause, Addis Ababa

\*Lecturer at ECSU, Department of Economics, Email: [kidugidey@gmail.com](mailto:kidugidey@gmail.com)

\*\* Assistant professor at ECSU, Department of Economics, Email: [ktshager@yahoo.com](mailto:ktshager@yahoo.com)

\*\*\* Assistant professor at ECSU, Department of Economics, Email: [tesfayechofana@yahoo.com](mailto:tesfayechofana@yahoo.com)

\*\*\*\* Assistant professor at ECSU, Department of Economics, Email: [dessalegn4@yahoo.com](mailto:dessalegn4@yahoo.com)

\*\*\*\*\* Lecturer at ECSU, Department of Economics, Email: [mesheshazewde@gmail.com](mailto:mesheshazewde@gmail.com)

\*\*\*\*\* Lecturer, Department of Development Management, Email: [woin\\_mpa@yahoo.com](mailto:woin_mpa@yahoo.com)

\*\*\*\*\* Lecturer at ECSU, Department of Development Management, Email: [baby14hiwi@yahoo.com](mailto:baby14hiwi@yahoo.com)

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### Introduction

In the earlier years, work was considered as effective way of teaching children about life and the world. The residue of this notion still remains in developing countries. There is still a belief that children should take on casual jobs alongside school, both to gain an understanding of the way the world functions and to earn spending money for their own or their families (UNICEF, 1997). As a result, the vast majority of children were pushed into work that is often damaging to their development. For example, International Labor Organization (ILO) reported that approximately 168 million children aged between 5 -17 were trapped in child labor. The worst forms of child labor accounted for 85 million children (ILO, 2015) and larger proportion of these children were from developing countries. Consequently, developing countries are expected to experience high long term social and economic cost of child labor (ILO, 2015).

Like other Sub-Saharan African countries, many early age children in Ethiopia enter into the labor market that leads to high child labor prevalence. For instance, Young Lives survey showed that 90% of children engage in some form of work at age 8 (Woldehana et.al. 2011 and Pankhurst et.al, 2018). According to the 2015 National Child Labor Survey, national child labor size was 42.7% with 48.8% rural versus 14.7% urban areas while 23.3% of child labor were working in hazardous condition (CSA and ILO 2018). Considering the challenge, this study assessed the magnitude of hazardous child labor and suggested policy recommendations. Moreover, the findings of this study help to make informed decision.

## Statement of the Problem

Children need to be protected from physical and psychological harm that have lifetime impact. To protect child right, Ethiopia has ratified various UN conventions and the constitution has considered basic rights and privileges of a child. Moreover, Ethiopia has ratified the ILO's Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No.138) in 1999; the African Charter on Rights and Welfare of Children in 2002; and the ILO's Worst Forms of Child Labor Convention, 1999 (No. 128) in 2003. To realize these conventions a national action plan was designed and implemented in different periods. Despite efforts to address the problem, many children enter into child labor at early age.

In Ethiopia there are a number of factors behind this high child labor. Among these, poverty, cultural values, social factors, and failures of development efforts are the most common one (ILO, 2017; PIN, 2009). The report of ILO showed 90% of the children engaged into productive activities either to supplement family income or improve family condition. The other factor related to poverty is inability to support schooling (ILO, 2017). Cultural values are the other factor behind child labor. Ethiopian culture encourages the working of children as it is believed that it can enable children to acquire the necessary skills (PIN, 2009). Social factors including divorce, orphan hood, and various conflicts are behind child labor in Ethiopia. Also, this high and persistent child labor is partly because of failures of development efforts (ILO, 2010). These coupled with high rate of urbanization and migration the amount of child labor is increasing in cities like Addis Ababa.

According to 2015 NCLS the prevalence of hazardous child labor in Addis Ababa City was as low as 3.6% and preceded by 4.7% in Dire Dawa (CSA and ILO, 2018). Low prevalence of child labor in Addis was associated with sampling. That is, NCLS

conducted at household level underestimated the magnitude of child labor and its worst forms. This is because children engaged in child labor in Addis Ababa came from outside the city are not easily accessed for sampling as they often have no formal address or they may not have permanent working place during the survey. Hence, this study fills this gap by conducting establishment survey instead of household survey. Thus, this study assessed the magnitude and causes of child labor in Addis Ababa. The result of this research has suggested viable strategies that help to address the problem of child labor in Addis Ababa.

## Concepts of Child Labor

The concept of child labor is based on the ILO Minimum Age Convention (No.138), 1973 which represents the most comprehensive international definition of minimum age for admission to employment or work. Child labor refers to work that is in some way harmful or carries a high risk of harm to children. This is because of the nature of the work or hours of work or the way children are treated at work or simply it is exploitative in terms of low payment. In general, it refers to employment or work that is carried out by children that does not conform to standards established in the ILO Conventions on child labor and national laws/regulations in line with them (ILO, 2010). Not all work done by children should be classified as child labor. Children's work above the nationally designated minimum age that does not interfere with their schooling and health is generally regarded as being something positive. This type of child work is known as "light work". It includes activities such as helping the parents around the home or assisting in a family business (ILO, 2010). It includes the occasional performing of light work after school, or formal apprenticeship opportunities. Instead, in "child labor" an

exploitative situation prevails that involves: work at too early an age, full time, requiring exertion, under bad conditions, with inadequate pay, too much responsibility, denying access to education, undermining dignity and self-esteem, and detrimental to full social, and psychological development (ILO, 1983 and Fekadu, 2008).

Hazardous work refers to a work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions that could result in a child being killed, injured and/or made ill as a consequence of poor safety and health standards and working arrangements. It can result in permanent disability, ill health and psychological damage (ILO, 1999; ILO, 2013). Hazards could also derive from excessive workload, physical conditions of work, and/or work intensity in terms of the duration or hours of work even where the activity or occupation is known to be non-hazardous or "safe".

ILO convention no. 182 recommendation 190 provides that hazardous work shall be defined by the competent national authority, after consultation with organizations of employers and workers. In particular, it recommends that any definition of hazardous work should include:

1. Work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse; work underground, under water, at dangerous heights or in confined spaces;
2. Work with dangerous machinery, equipment or tools or work which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads;
3. Work in an unhealthy environment which may expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health;
4. Work under particularly difficult conditions, such as work for long hours or during the night, or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer.

## Theoretical Literature Review

Child labor theories date back to influential social scientists such as Adam Smith, Karl Marx, and Thomas Malthus in the 18th and 19th century. Smith argued that labor shortages led to increased fertility. Marx on his side noted that child labor replaced adult men labor, which in turn were replaced by machines during the industrial revolution. On the other hand, Malthus believed that increasing size of families made it harder to meet their basic need, which forces families to accept child labor. More specifically, according to Boyden, Ling and Myers (1998), there are about five theories that explain the causes of child labor based on large empirical studies and qualitative information.

**Theory 1: Child labor as a contribution to the family.** According to this theory, most children in developing countries work because the family needs their children to contribute to the family income and to engage into unpaid household work.

**Theory 2: Child labor as a means of self-actualization.** The principal argument of this theory is that many children would want to work even if they did not require to work. Many children also believe that work is a good way for them to get education and thus become competent and prosperous adults.

**Theory 3: Child labor as a consequence of family-dynamics.** This theory is the explanation of child labor as a result of inadequate family decision-making or relationships. Child labor can be a consequence of a breakdown in family values in which they do not fulfill their protective function and parents' ignorance about future benefits of investing in education. A breakdown in values is, for example, when parents sell their children into prostitution or bondage with the purpose of material benefit, for example a wedding. This theory also claims that child labor can



be a result of ignorant and irresponsible parents.

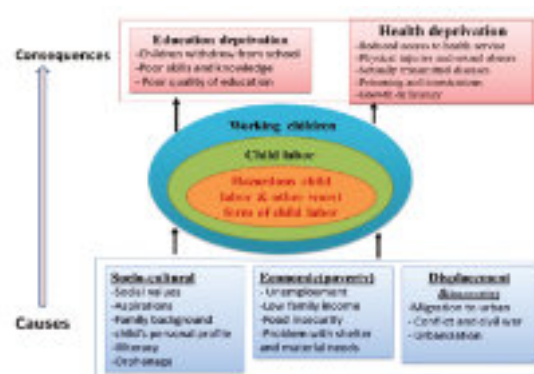
**Theory 4: Child labor as a result of poverty.** According to this theory, poverty is a cause of child labor in most developing countries. Poor families put their children in child labor more often than families in a better economic situation.

**Theory 5: Child labor as a result of low return to education in the labor market.** This theory considers child labor as a rational response to adults' low returns to education in the labor market, whether these low returns are actual or just perceived.

## Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework below depicts the causes of child labor and their effects on children's life. In general, determinants of child labor can be categorized as economic/poverty, socio-cultural, and political factors. Although economic factors can be considered as circumscribing the social and political factors at play, it is important to note that these factors are interrelated and not entirely mutually exclusive (Aldaba, Lanzona and Tamangan, 2004).

Figure 2.1. Conceptual frame work of the study



Source: Researchers' own construction

Many authors agreed that **poverty** (inability to meet the basic needs-food, shelter, and clothes) due to unemployment/underemployment had been the major (but not the only) push factor into child labor in developing countries. When parents fail to meet the basic needs of the household, in most cases, forces their children to engage in employment in their effort to improve their conditions and livelihood (Dachi and Garrett, 2003). The survival of many poor families depends on income generated by child labor. As a result, poor families put their children in child labor so as to contribute to family income and help with unpaid household work (Del Rosario & Bonga, 2000 and Anker, 2000). Therefore, many of young kids are obliged to work at a very young age while the older kids have to become a wage laborer working in places notorious for their poor health and safety conditions with very low pay (Anker, 2000).

**Socio-cultural dynamics** is another factor which leads to child labor. Social values, aspirations, illiteracy, child's personal profile, low returns to education, orphanage, and family background are among the main factors responsible for child labor. The last but not least reason for child labor is **displacement and insecurity**. This factor includes civil war/conflict, rural to urban migration, and urbanization. Political turmoil and warfare have a destructive impact on the socio-economic environment and can increase the risk factors associated with child labor. Conflict also increases the potential for children already working to be involved in more dangerous and harmful work. On the other hands, migrants are usually at high risk of exploitation for both cultural and economic reasons (ILO 1997). Children of migrant workers have to encounter at least two problems: no or limited opportunity for education, and to health care services existing in the destination country/region. As a result, the

probability of migrant children to engage in child labor remains high.

Child labor may adversely affect health status and educational attainment of children. Involvement in child labor has an adverse effect on health. Specifically, child laborers are more likely to be exposed to long and tiring working days, use of toxic chemicals, handling of dangerous items like axe, hot pans, knives, electrical equipment and lifting of heavy loads, insufficient meals, physical violence and sexual abuse. All these may expose them to many illnesses/injuries like poisoning & intoxications, physical injuries, sexual abuse, electrical shock, emotional health problems, musculoskeletal problems, malnutrition, infectious diseases, unwanted pregnancy, and sexually transmitted infections (Han, Fukui, & Miwa, 2008). For this reason, an international consensus has arisen against child labor and worst forms of child labor. The 1999 ILO Convention on Worst Forms of Child Labor reflects this concern and international consensus. In addition, child laborers may also be subject to educational deprivation. Usually those who engage in child labor are subject to dropout, absenteeism, and not attending at all. As a result, they are more likely to have poor skill and knowledge (Ibid).

## Empirical Literature

According to the ILO (2002), in 2000 more than 245.5 million children were engaged in child labor which is damaging to their mental, physical and emotional development. About 178.9 million children (aged 5–17) were engaged in the worst forms of child labor in sectors including agriculture, mining, construction, manufacturing, service industries and domestic service. This includes all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery such as the trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, and forced or compulsory labor, the forced or compulsory recruitment of children

for armed conflict, child prostitution and any forced work which is likely to harm the health or safety of children. Children in hazardous work represented the majority of these (170.5 million) with 8.4 million children engaged in unconditional worst forms of labor. Of those involved in hazardous work, 111 million were aged 5-14 and 59 million aged 15-17. ILO (2002) also disaggregated the number of children engaged in different types of unconditional worst forms of child labor.

More recent estimates indicate that the number of child laborers declined from 215-168 million from 2008-2012, Out of these, the number of children exposed to hazardous work – often used as a proxy for the worst forms of child labor fell from 115-85 million (IPEC, 2013). In 2012 it was estimated that there was a total of 85 million children engaged in hazardous work in the 5-17 years age group. That means it accounts for 51 per cent of child labor among 5-17-year age group (IPEC, 2013 as cited by ILO, 2017).

Accordingly, what the estimates show is that one-fifth of all African children are involved in child labor, a proportion more than twice as high as in any other region. Nine per cent of African children are in hazardous work, again highest of all the world's regions. In absolute terms, 72.1 million African children are estimated to be in child labor and 31.5 million in hazardous work (ILO, 2017).

The prevalence of child labor is highest in sub-Saharan Africa. Around 29 per cent of children (aged 5 to 17 years) are engaged in labor that is considered detrimental to their health and development. In the Middle East and North Africa, fewer than 1 in 10 (7 per cent) of children in this age group are performing potentially harmful work compared to 11 per cent of children in Latin America and the Caribbean (UNICEF, 2017).

## Research methodology

### Research Design

To quantify the magnitude of hazardous child labor the study employed descriptive research design. The study used mixed method research approach that combines both quantitative and qualitative data which were collected from primary and secondary sources. Accordingly, a cross-sectional survey was conducted to collect data from children engaged into child labor and aged between 5 and 17 from all sub-cities of Addis Ababa in the year 2018 and qualitative data were collected using focus group discussion (FGD), key informants' interview (KII), and in-depth interview.

### Sample Size Determination

To determine the sample size, we have used the following formula which is commonly used when the population size (N) is unknown:

$$n = \frac{z^2 * p (1 - p)}{e^2}$$

Where:

n = the resulting sample size

z = the standard normal variable at specified confidence interval

p = the proportion of the variable in the studied population

e = margin of error

Therefore, taking the assumption of child labor in Addis Ababa = 0.037 (3.7%) based on the 2015 child labor survey, the usual z= 1.96, and the wanted margin of error e=0.010816 (1.08%), the total number of sampled children engaged into child labor were 1172.

### Data Collection Techniques

To collect the primary data from child laborers, samples were taken from children

working in formal and informal sectors. Stratified sampling technique followed by simple random sampling was used to select children engaged in child labor from each 117 *woredas* in Addis Ababa. To select sample from different forms of child labor, strata was formed based on formal and informal sectors in which child labor were prevalent (which intensively use child labor) in Addis Ababa. To do this, information about the prevalent forms of child labor was collected from each sub-city and *woredas*. Then proportional sample was taken from each form of child labor from each *woreda*. Once the proportion was determined under each *woreda* a simple random sampling technique was employed to select a child worker from each of the strata from a given *woreda*. Then data was collected from each child by structured questionnaire. Similarly, to collect qualitative data, focus group discussion (FGD), key informant interview (KII), and in-depth interview (II) were used. The qualitative information was collected from government offices at different level which have a stake on children issues, NGOs working on children, researchers who have experience on children issues, members of the community who have more information about children issues, and children themselves. Furthermore, in-depth interviews were conducted to probe further information from children engaged into child labor. The main purpose of conducting the in-depth interview was to have insight how children engaged into child labor and understand their working conditions and how their engagement into child labor affects their education and health.

### Data Analysis

To analyze the quantitative data, various descriptive statistics techniques such as mean, variance, standard deviation, percentages, graphs, and correlations were used. In addition, the audio recorded data from all sources were transcribed and

analyzed manually using thematic content analysis.

## Results and Discussion

### Background of the Respondents

This section presents the conditions of children that have already been engaged in child labor in Addis Ababa. The mean age of a child was found to be 15 years. About 85.28% of the children were in the age range of 14-17 years. The result revealed also considerable number of children came from outside Addis Ababa (87.46%). This implies that the problem of child labor in Addis Ababa needs to be addressed at the source. Similarly, the result of the survey indicated that the majority of the respondents came from three regions, namely Southern Nations Nationalities and People's (38.91%), Amhara (26.71%), and Oromia (15.27%). Children were also asked to state with whom they were living preceding the survey. About 86.8% of children were living not with their parents, but with friends (40%) and relatives (18.51%). This implies many children engaged into child labor are living far from their parents and this push them to engage in child labor and subjected for exploitation.

Regarding the condition of parents of children, 66.01% of the children reported their parents were alive. This implies most children engaged into child labor either to satisfy their own need or support families. The finding showed 67.91%, 30.26%, 1.83% of the children came from poor, middle income, and rich family, respectively. This shows that majority of the children engaged into child labor are from poor families. Moreover, 67.81% and 79.48% of the children reported their fathers and mothers were never attended school, respectively. This implies that parents' level of education and child labor are related.

### Children's Engagement in Child Labor

The result from the analysis showed the mean age of joining the labor market for the sampled children was 13 years with standard deviation of 2.18 years. The minimum and maximum age for joining the labor market for the sampled children was 6 and 17 years, respectively. Children were also asked whether they joined the labor market by force or voluntarily. Accordingly, 92.44% of the children reported they started to work voluntarily because they were from poor families (67.91%) while 7.56% reported they involved in to work because they were forced to work. Furthermore, children were asked the bases of their employment. Accordingly, 6.93% of the children reported they have written agreement. This very low level of written agreement may expose children for exploitation. Among those who were employed using written contract, 46.97%, 39.39%, and 13.64% of the children reported the duration of the contract was less than one year, greater than one year, and do not know their contract duration, respectively.

### Duration of Child Labor

According to the ILO convention no. 182 recommendation 190, children should not work for long hours. It is exploitative when children work for long hours, as this not only endangers their health but also affects their school attendance. The Ethiopian labor proclamation No 377 /2003 allowed young children to work for 7 hours in a day and 6 days in a week. Similarly, ILO and CSA (2018) have taken 42 hours per week as a threshold so as to determine hazardous child work in Ethiopia. For the purpose of statistical measurement, we have followed this framework.

Then, based on the reported number of working days per week and number of hours worked per day, working children were grouped in to two: those children working



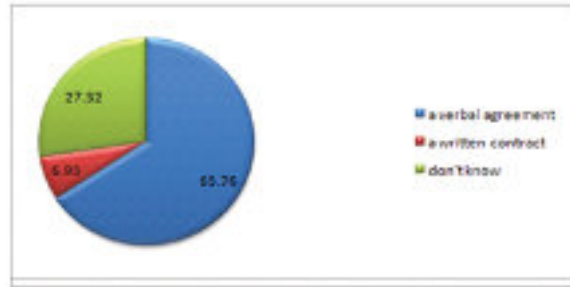


Figure 1. Distribution of Bases of employment of children  
Source: Survey data 2018

more than 42 hours per week and those working less than 42 hours per week. Accordingly, those children working more than 42 hours were termed as being in hazardous work conditions. Duration of hours worked by children is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Hours Worked Per Week by Children

Main background characteristics	Working more than 42 hours per week		Working less than 42 hours per week		Total		Mean weekly working hour
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<b>Sex</b>							
Female	335	89.81	38	10.19	373	32.72	64.77
Male	708	92.31	59	7.69	767	67.28	63.09
Total	1043	91.49	97	8.51	1140	100	63.64
<b>Age group</b>							
5-10 years	16	80	4	20	20	1.76	66.10
11-13 years	132	92.31	11	7.69	143	2.60	69.01
14-17 years	890	91.56	82	8.44	972	85.64	62.84
Total	1,038	91.45	97	8.55	1,135	100	63.64
<b>Economic activities</b>							
Paid and Unpaid family work	590	92.19	50	7.81	640	100	63.49
Hotel/cafe/restaurant	157	87.71	22	12.29	179	100	63.60
Night clubs and sex workers	66	70.21	28	29.79	94	100	53.37
Carrying heavy loads and ponders	257	92.11	22	7.89	279	100	63.54
Shoe-shining	139	88.54	18	11.46	157	100	65.68
Assisting taxi drivers	156	92.86	12	7.14	168	100	73.17
Street workers and vendors	174	91.10	17	8.90	191	100	65.21
Urban agriculture	65	84.42	12	15.58	77	100	60.51
Construction	102	93.58	7	6.42	109	100	56.08
weaving or spinning	53	86.89	8	13.11	61	100	57.87
Wood work	68	93.15	5	6.85	73	100	51.85
Metal work	83	91.21	8	8.79	91	100	53.97

Source: Survey data 2018

The average number of working hours per week among the sampled children was 63.46 hours. The average hours worked by a child

was significantly larger than the official maximum hours of work by an adult (i.e., 48 hours per week) in Ethiopia. When the distribution of work hours per week is disaggregated by sex, girls were found to have a higher mean number of working hours per week than boys (64.77 hours versus 63.09 hours per week). Children aged between 11 and 13 years spend 69.01 hours on work per week, which was slightly higher than 66.10 mean labor hours of work per week by children aged from 5 to 10 years and the average child labor hours of children aged between 14 and 17 years was 62.48 hours a week. This result implies that child labor hours of children within the age range 11 to 13 years are longer than child labor hours of children other two age cohorts.

With regard to economic activities, the research finding indicates that almost in all sectors children are working for a long hour.

However, the average child labor hours of children engaged in assisting taxi drivers (73.17 hours per week), shoe-shining (65.68 hours per week) and street work and vending (65.21 hours per week) was significantly higher than the mean value (63.46 hours per week).

Given the standards for child labor of Ethiopia and ILO the result signals that in Addis Ababa both the child labor and hazardous child labor size is significant. The length of hours of worked per week by children and average number of working days per week in Addis Ababa are contradicting with the national and ILO standards for hours worked and number of working days by children per week. The result from an *in-depth interview* with children engaged in weaving and shoe shining here under shows this fact as follows:

The *in-depth interview* results of two children migrated from southern Ethiopia (from Hadiya and Gamo zones) confirmed that they are working for longer hours in a bad working condition. Although these children were in their school age of thirteen, they are involving in weaving and shoe polishing. Their parents are alive. Although parents did not force their children to take child labor, parents could not afford education equipment including cloth. They drop out from grade three and four aiming to engage in child labor and their parents agreed with their migration for child labor. A shoe polishing child was from Hadiya and self-employed. A weaving child was working for another person for free for the coming three years until he develops good skill in weaving. The duration of child labor was long, for example, the child involved in weaving was working for six days or 78 hours per week. The working condition of children is bad even for adults. A shoe polishing child said that he is working on the road side, feeling bad smell from ditches; and dusts are blowing up on him and there is risk of car accident every day. A shoe polisher added that he has been suffering from headache and typhoid fever for the last 45 days, however; he lacked money and was not visit a doctor. A weaving child was working in confined place for the whole day, luckily, he has not faced a disease associated with his work.

### The Magnitude of Hazardous Child Labor

The result from our primary data shows that about 90% of the children were involving in hazardous child labor in Addis Ababa. This shows that on average 9 children out of ten total children in child labor are subject to hazardous child labor which is detrimental to

physical and mental health of children and their moral development. Our finding is higher than the SSA average and the finding of ILO and CSA (20018) for Ethiopia but lower than the findings of Ali, Khan, & Kazmi(2014) for Pakistan.

As reported in Table 2, the proportion of female children involved in hazardous child labor was 91.71% which is higher than 89.06% of male children undertaking hazardous child labor. The magnitude of hazardous child labor differs by age in Addis Ababa. Almost all of children in the age group 5 to 10 years were involving in hazardous child labor. The share of children aged 11 to 13-year old in child labor engaged in hazardous child labor are about 97 percent, while the hazardous child labor size for children age between 14 and 17-years was 89%.

This is an indicator that working children in Addis Ababa are in serious conditions that can affect their overall personality very badly. Therefore, there is a pressing need to design and strengthen a framework which focuses on appropriate prohibition and protection against hazardous work.

The result from the qualitative research also indicated that hazardous labor was the case



in all sub cities. Children are forced to work for their employers for long hour with no adequate food and water as well as payment. This was particularly the case of children who involve in weaving, weighing scale, street vending and domestic work. Children engaged in street prostitution and work in Shisha and chat chewing houses are the major evidences for the practice of worst and hazardous forms of child labor in Addis Ababa. Smugglers (illegal brokers) traffic young girls and use them for sex business (some even force young boys for homosexual purpose) that exposes them to sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/

the children also get desperate because of the psychological stress which they face for being unable to have someone around to emotionally support them.

### Hazardous Child Labor by Working Conditions

For the purpose of in-depth statistical analysis, we examined the hazardous working conditions in to four subsections. First, we examined children working in unhealthy environment. Second, we identified children operating heavy machines, tools and working with heavy loads. Third, we examined children working in hazardous work locations.

Table 2: Magnitude of The Hazardous Child Labor (Worst Form of Child Labor)

Main background characteristics	Hazardous child labor		Non-Hazardous child labor		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Sex</b>						
Female	354	91.71	32	8.29	386	100.00
Male	700	89.06	86	10.94	786	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,054</b>	<b>89.93</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>10.07</b>	<b>1,172</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<b>Age group</b>						
5-10 years	24	100.00	0	0.00	24	100.00
11-13 years	143	96.62	5	3.38	148	100.00
14-17 years	884	88.84	111	11.16	995	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,051</b>	<b>90.06</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>9.94</b>	<b>1,167</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: Survey data 2018

AIDS and moral damage. Apart from working for longer hours, day and night, girls who work in hotels and restaurants are exposed to sexual abuse at night times. Even their employers force them to involve in sex work when they see they are beautiful and young so that they can attract more male customers.

In most industries many children are working in dusty, suffocated, dark and cold working conditions with no safety wears. Those children are highly exposed to back pain, eye infection, kidney disease, and they have no access to schooling. Apart from physical harm resulting from restlessness,

Finally, we examined children exposed to work related abuse. The first group includes work environment exposed to dust, smoke, fume, fire, gas, flames, extreme cold or heat, loud noise or vibration, chemicals and explosives. The second group includes work which involves operating dangerous tools, operating heavy machine and work subject to heavy loads. The third category comprises work in underground; work at heights; work in polluted water/pond/river; workplace in too dark or confined places; and workplace with insufficient ventilation. The last group includes physical, psychological and sexual abuses.

### Children Working in Unhealthy Environment

Different studies indicated that many children in urban centers are working in a number of unhealthy environments (hazardous work conditions). For instance, a research conducted in 2009 in Luanda, Angola confirmed that, 88 percent of the observed children were working in areas where the air was contaminated by exhaust, smoke, or dust. Similarly, 72 percent of the observed children were exposed to excessive noise (BILA, 2017). Another research done in Pakistan, Punjab district described that 69.6 percent of the children were exposed to dust and fumes and the other most frequent hazard is heat of cold that was reported by 44.2 percent working children. This research confirmed that female children are more exposed to these types of hazardous work conditions (Ali et al., 2014)

In our research, children were asked about their work environment and any risk present there. Accordingly, children exposed to dust, smoke and fume in a work place account 56%, children working in an area with extreme cold and heat are 42%, children exposed to loud noise or vibration are 20.05%, children exposed to fire, gas and flames are 8.28% and children exposed to chemicals and explosives are 6.83% and 0.77% respectively. This finding is almost consistent with earlier studies conducted in Luanda and Pakistan. Male children are more likely exposed to dust, smoke, fume; loud noise/vibration; and chemicals than female children. On the other hand, female children are more exposed to extreme cold or heat than male children (see annex Table 1).

Children aged 11-13 years were more exposed to dust, smoke, fume and extreme cold or heat in their working place. When this is disaggregated by sector, children engaged in construction (76.36%), carrying heavy load and ponders (73.26%), and urban agriculture (70.89%) were exposed to dust,

smoke and fume. Concerning extreme cold or heat, night clubs and sex workers (50%), carrying heavy loads and ponders (48.96%) and assisting taxi drivers (45.61%) were more vulnerable than children engaged in other sectors. Further, children working in metal work (51.61 percent), wood work (50.68 percent), night clubs and sex workers (38.54 percent) and construction (25.45percent) are more vulnerable to loud noise and vibration. Over all our research indicates that considerable proportions of children are working in unhealthy environment mainly in areas exposed to dust, smoke & fume; extreme cold and heat; and loud noise or vibration. The result from an *in-depth interview* with taxi driver assistant here under shows this fact:

*Abraham Mulugeta is a 15 years old child working as a taxi driver assistant in Addis Ababa. He came from Gumbete, Zone 7, 3 years ago. He has attended his primary school up to grade 7 and dropped out of school because of lack of family support. He doesn't know his father and he was living with his mother. His mother could not afford to support him in his education, and he was forced to leave the school and come to Addis for daily labor to support him and his mother. He came to Addis, Ababa to fill the perception that he can do daily work and generate some money for him and for his mother. After he came to Addis, his mother doesn't know where and with whom he lives. He came to Addis and employed in a small grocery shop and worked for almost a year. He was not happy with his employees because they didn't pay and fired him. He decided to leave the grocery and started working as a taxi driver's assistant. He is working the whole day. He is now working for himself and supports his mother. But the payment is not so good. The driver and Abraham took the car to pay 200 bir per day and then, if they saw more than 200 bir, the driver and Abraham will distribute the money among themselves. But he mentioned that his share depends on the will of the driver. Sometimes they may not make money over 200 per day. Sometimes there will be maintenance cost.*

*He is not at school now. He wanted to finish and complete his education but he can't do it because of his family problem. He is planning to continue his education after saving some money and support his mother. But he doesn't know when he can get adequate money and start his education. The working condition is bad according to him. He is working with a lot of sun light, rain and cold weather. He said his work is full of conflict with customers. Some customers wanted to leave the taxi without payment, some ask change and some lie as if they paid. Some wanted to get off before they reach the place where we are supposed to let them get off. So, he said the job is really bad but he has no choice. He can't not if he does not work. He said, I need to clinic twice but the payment was not too much and my friend's paid it. I had severe injury because of the conflict I had with one of our customers. He was not willing to pay for the service and I confronted with him. He tried to see me many times and my face was injured. My eyes were also affected by the injury but I didn't go to hospital.*

The qualitative survey indicated that in many sectors, children are exposed to sun, heat, cold, rain, dust, bad smell and bad noise in their environment, especially those who work on the streets. In auto mechanic field, apart from the physical work, children are exposed to fire, fumes, and sharp materials. There are also many children who engaged in street vending and assisting taxi drivers. These children are highly vulnerable to abuse and different accidents. Street vendors often face with car accidents and falling while running to escape from the police officers chasing them. Taxi drivers harass, beat and abuse their assistants for not working properly, especially the young ones.



Even the taxi users don't treat young taxi assistants well. The discussants also mentioned the working condition of children is exposing them to addiction, unethical and immoral behaviors.

The research participants discussed, children engaged in domestic work and those working on weighing scale on the street are vulnerable to different types of labor exploitation. Traffickers or relatives or so-called employers purchase weighing scales and give it to the children and collect the money they make. Those children spend their whole days on the street being exposed to sun and dust with no proper compensation; however, they are expected to generate a minimum of 50 birr per day. Children who are engaged in domestic work are also being exploited by their own relatives who brought them to the city. According to the participants, the weaving industry is one of the sectors where children get highly abused and exploited. Additionally, the city is suffering from criminal activities where children are forced to involve in theft, drug trafficking and other illegal activities by those who benefit from it.

### Children Working with Heavy Loads, Operating Heavy Machines and Dangerous Tools

Out of the total sampled children, 27.73 percent were working with heavy loads, 12.63 percent were operating dangerous tools and only 9.64 percent of them were operating heavy machines. Child labor is gendered in Addis Ababa. Male children are commonly operating heavy machine and were working with heavy loads while relatively more female children are exposed to dangerous tools like knife, hot pan, and others.

As presented in Table 3, children aged 14-17 years were more exposed to heavy loads and heavy machines while those aged 5-10 were exposed to dangerous tools. Children operating heavy machine, working with

dangerous and heavy tools also varies spatially. Furthermore, most of the children engaged in carrying heavy loads and ponder (79.86%) and constructions (65.45%) were exposed to heavy loads.

The qualitative result also indicated that the conditions in which children are working are observed to be too bad. Some discussants emotionally raised their worry about children working in construction sites; based on their observation they believe the children are not treated as a human being. A participant from Bole sub city said "what you load on a donkey even need to be limited, however here they are forced to work beyond their physical capacity". Especially the girls are expected to work harder to convince their employers to secure their job.

Table 3: Children working with heavy loads and operating heavy machines and tools

Main background characteristics	Operate dangerous tools		Operate heavy machine		Work with heavy load	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Sex</b>						
Female	87	22.54	17	4.40	56	14.51
Male	61	7.76	96	12.21	269	34.22
Total	148	12.63	113	9.64	325	27.73
<b>Age group</b>						
5-10 years	4	16.67	2	8.33	6	25.00
11-13 years	11	7.43	4	2.70	35	23.65
14-17 years	131	13.17	107	10.75	282	28.34
Total	146	12.51	113	9.68	325	27.68
<b>Economic activities</b>						
Paid and Unpaid family work	97	14.76	79	12.02	191	29.07
Hotel/cafe/restaurant	41	22.40	5	2.73	15	8.20
Night clubs and sex workers	8	8.33	5	5.21	15	15.63
Carrying heavy loads and ponders	33	11.66	70	24.31	230	79.86
Shoe-shining	10	6.25	7	4.38	45	28.13
Assisting taxi drivers	6	3.51	7	4.09	55	32.16
Street workers and vendors	17	8.72	19	9.74	58	29.74
Urban agriculture	6	7.59	8	10.13	19	24.05
Construction	14	12.73	26	23.64	72	65.45
weaving or spinning fibers for weaving	1	1.61	1	1.61	5	8.06
Wood work	17	23.29	17	23.29	24	32.88
Metal work	16	17.20	37	39.78	37	39.78

Source: Survey data 2018

### Children Working in Hazardous Work Locations

Children in a child labor reported whether they had been working in dangerous work locations in the last 12 months preceding the survey. The proportions of children exposed to hazardous work locations were moderate.

Children worked underground are 3.84 percent, children worked at height are 6.06 percent, children worked in polluted water/pond/rivers are 2.65 percent, and children worked in a very dark or confined area 4.95 percent and children worked with insufficient ventilation 4.61 percent. When it is disaggregated by sex, relatively more proportion of male children are working in underground, at height, in a polluted water while more proportion of female children worked in a very dark or confined and suffocated work place. In terms of sector, relatively more child laborers (19.35 percent) engaged in weaving or spinning are working in underground, 31.82 percent children engaged in construction are working at height, 15.19 percent children engaged in agriculture are working in polluted water, 23.96 percent children engaged in night clubs and sex work are working at a dark and confined area, 12.5 percent children engaged in night clubs and sex work are working in a workplace with insufficient ventilation.

### Children Exposure to Work Place Violence

Article 19(1) of the UN convention on the Rights of the Child stipulates that all children have the right to be free of "all forms of physical and mental violence, injury or abuse. But many working children—especially those away from home—experience threats to their wellbeing as well as abuse and exploitation by their employers and fellow workers (HRW 2006 ; UN 1989 : as cited by Hartjen & Priyadarsini, 2012). Child abuse not only affects them psychologically but also emotionally. They lose their self-esteem and confidence and fear to face any strangers and even their friends. In some extreme cases, they are left in trauma that keeps them haunting for rest of life. This type of shocks sometime is worse than physical shocks. Friends and family member console them in case of physical shocks but children usually hide where

they face emotionally or psychologically (Ali et al., 2014).

In this particular section, the prevalence of children to work place abuse is assessed which includes physical, psychological and sexual violence. As presented in Table 4, a considerable proportion of the children engaged in child labor are exposed to physical, psychological and sexual abuses in work places in Addis Ababa as presented in Table 6. Children engaged in child labor and emotionally harassed were 55.2%, children physically bitten were 20.82%, and about 10 percent were sexually abused. The share of female children involved in child labor that were exposed to emotional harassment were 67.62%, and female children faced physical harassment were 28.76%. With female children involved in a child labor and experienced sexual harassment rate of 26.68% were largely higher than 1.53% of male children that were experiencing sexual harassment. Overall, the work place violence is gendered in the city as female children in the child labor are experiencing more all forms of work place violence than that of male children.

Table 4: Children Exposure to Work Place Violence

Characteristics of a child	Bites/physically hurt		Emotionally harassed		Sexually abused		Others	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Sex</b>								
Female	111	28.76	261	67.62	103	26.68	6	100.0
Male	133	16.92	386	49.11	17	1.53	10	100.0
Total	244	20.82	647	55.20	115	9.81	16	100.0
<b>Age group</b>								
5-10 years	8	31.33	14	58.33	1	4.17	1	100.0
11-13 years	43	29.05	88	59.46	11	7.43	3	100.0
14-17 years	193	19.40	542	54.47	103	10.35	12	100.0
Total	244	20.91	644	55.20	115	9.85	16	100.0
<b>Economic activities</b>								
Paid and Unpaid family work	160	24.35	397	60.43	71	10.81	12	100.0
Hotel/cafe/restaurant	48	26.23	114	62.30	49	26.78	3	100.0
Night clubs and sex workers	47	48.96	79	82.29	70	72.92	1	100.0
Carrying heavy loads and ponders	65	22.57	174	60.42	12	4.17	3	100.0
Shoe-shining	23	14.37	69	43.13	2	1.25	3	100.0
Assisting taxi drivers	42	24.56	107	62.57	7	4.09	4	100.0
Street workers and vendors	43	22.05	112	57.44	14	7.18	4	100.0
Urban agriculture	12	15.19	44	55.70	2	2.53	0	0.00
Construction	17	15.45	54	49.09	5	4.55	2	
weaving or spinning fibers for weaving	11	17.74	36	58.06	0	0.00	0	0.00
Wood work	5	6.85	23	31.51	1	1.37	1	
Metal work	9	9.68	34	36.56	1	1.08	0	0.00

Source: Survey data 2018

When the type of abuse is disaggregated by age cohorts, children in the age group 5-10 were more prone to physical abuse (33.33 percent) than those in the other two agecohorts age groups. This could be due to the fact that children of this group could not protect themselves from physical abuse as they are physically immature. On the other hand, children aged 14-17 years were more prone to sexual abuse (10.35 percent) than the other age groups. This might be due to the sexual attractiveness of these age groups as they are in the age of puberty.

Work place child violence varies by sector. For example, children engaged at night clubs and sex work were more subject to physical psychological, and sexual abuse than those engaged in the other sectors. Following night club and sex workers, children who work in hotels/cafeterias/restaurants and those working as paid and unpaid family workers were more vulnerable to different abuses

than children engaged in the other sectors (see Table 6 for detail). The finding related to physical, psychological and sexual work place abuse of children is based on self-report of children involved in a child labor. But children exposed to various work place abuses cannot usually tell the misconduct for other people. Therefore, the actual magnitude of abuse is expected to be more than the above report. Over all those female child laborers; those children engaged in night clubs and sex work; hotels/cafeterias/restaurants and paid and unpaid family work need a particular policy concern as they are the most vulnerable to workplace abuses.

## Causes of Child Labor

Children work or engage in child labor for a variety of reasons. These may include poverty or low family income; cultural values; family disintegration due to divorce or separation; death of parents; inability to support schooling such as uniforms, exercise books, school fees, food, etc.; lack of interest

in schooling; family debt; absence of school in the nearby areas; deception by brokers or forced; civil war and conflict; and rural-urban migration. There are different classifications of these causes of child labor. Some classified these causes (factors) into three: child related factors, household related factors, and community related factors. UNICEF (1997) classified the causes of children into three key factors: poverty, absence of education, and traditions. Others like Johansson (2009) classified child labor as a contribution to the family; as a means to self-actualization; as a consequence of family dynamics and; as a result of poverty.

Table 5: Causes of Child Labor by The Sex of The Child

Causes of child labor	Female		Male		Total		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Poverty	yes	18	47.67	372	47.33	556	47.44
	no	41	52.67	414	52.67	616	52.56
Family dynamics	yes	56	14.51	91	11.58	147	12.54
	no	33	85.49	695	88.42	1,025	87.46
Family dissolution	yes	17	4.40	35	4.45	52	4.44
	no	36	95.60	751	95.55	1,120	95.56
Dispute with	yes	23	5.96	46	5.85	69	5.89
	no	36	94.04	740	94.15	1,103	94.11
To help family	yes	13	33.68	261	33.23	391	33.36
	no	25	66.32	525	66.79	781	66.64
Help pay family	yes	6	1.55	12	1.53	18	1.54
	no	38	98.45	774	98.47	1,154	98.46
Parents like their	yes	61	15.80	130	16.54	191	16.30
	no	32	84.20	656	83.46	981	83.70
Self interest	yes	26	67.62	623	79.26	884	75.43
	no	12	32.38	163	20.74	288	24.57
Peer pressures and	yes	53	13.73	96	12.21	149	12.71
	no	33	86.27	690	87.79	1,023	87.29
Forced by	yes	42	10.88	12	1.53	54	4.61
	no	34	89.12	774	98.47	1,118	95.39
Education	yes	53	13.73	128	16.28	181	15.44
	no	33	86.27	658	83.72	991	84.56
Not interested in	yes	26	6.74	73	9.29	99	8.45
	no	36	93.26	713	90.71	1,073	91.55
Schooling not	yes	10	2.59	36	4.58	46	3.92
	no	37	97.41	750	95.42	1,126	96.08
Public school too	yes	10	2.59	21	2.67	31	2.65
	no	37	97.41	765	97.33	1,141	97.35
Conflict and	yes	8	2.07	5	0.64	13	1.11
	no	37	97.93	781	99.36	1,159	98.89
Rural-urban	yes	71	18.73	157	20.33	228	19.79
	no	30	81.27	616	79.69	924	80.21

Source: Survey data 2018

In Addis Ababa children do both paid and unpaid works from their very young age because of a number of reasons. Accordingly, the most important factors behind child labor among children were found to be poverty, children's their own economic interest, and rural-urban migration. The result reported in Table-5 showed that about 75% of the sampled children involved into child labor because of

their own economic interest. This high interest of children to work may arise from low understanding of children and their parents on the negative effects of child labor on futurity of children. The result also showed that poverty is among the most powerful force that derives children into child labor. Significant size of children (47.44%) reported that they were working because of poverty i.e., because of low family income or to supplement low family income or to have enough to eat. Thus, there is a need to have poverty reduction strategies that reduce general poverty and increase incomes and hence are likely to have a positive effect on reducing child labor. Every poverty reduction strategy needs to take into account also child labor. The other factor found to be important cause of child labor was rural-urban migration. For example, 19.79% of the children reported that they engaged into child labor because they have migrated from outside Addis Ababa. This implies tackling child labor requires tackling problems at the source. The result from the qualitative study also showed socio-cultural, political, and attitudinal factors were contributed to child labor. It is important to note that these causes of child labor are not mutually exclusive.

## Summary and Conclusion

The result of this study showed that 90% of the children engaged in child labor were involved in hazardous child labor in Addis Ababa which is significantly higher than hazardous child labor ratio estimated by ILO and CSA. Majority of children involving in hazardous child labor in Addis Ababa were migrant children. The disaggregated analysis clearly showed that considerable proportions of child laborers were exposed to hazardous work conditions (dust, smoke and fume; extreme cold and heat; loud noise or vibration; and heavy loads). Moreover, the child laborers were exposed to emotional, psychological, physical and sexual violence.

The result also indicates that almost all children are working for a long hour which may not only endangers their health but also affects their school attendance. Specifically, approximately 91% of children were involving in hazardous child labor with an average 63.46 working hours per week. The exposure to hazardous child labor varies with gender, age and economic sectors in which children engaged. Over all those female child laborers; those children engaged in night clubs and sex work; hotels/cafeterias/restaurants and paid and unpaid family are more subject to physical, psychological, and sexual abuse than the other groups. Children exposed to any abuse usually cannot tell anyone about any misconduct. Hence, the actual magnitude of abuse is expected to be more than reported.

With regard to the causes of hazardous child labor, the most important factors behind child labor among children were found to be poverty, children's their own economic interest, and rural-urban migration. About 75% of the sampled children involved into child labor because of their own economic interest. This high interest of children to work may arise from low understanding of children and their parents on the negative effects of child labor on futurity of children. Poverty is also among the most powerful force that derives children into child labor. Significant about 47% of the children reported that they were working because of poverty i.e., because of low family income or to supplement low family income or to have enough to eat. The other factor found to be important cause of child labor was rural-urban migration.

For example, 19.79% of the children reported that they engaged into child labor because they have migrated from outside Addis Ababa. This implies tackling child labor requires tackling problems at the source. The result from the qualitative study also showed that socio-cultural, political, and



attitudinal factors have contributed to child labor.

## Recommendations

Child labor is the product of an array of economic, social forces and political forces. Thus, a clear understanding of the push and pull factors behind child labor is indispensable for designing appropriate interventions to address the problem. As the cause of child labor is not a single factor, child labor problem cannot be addressed with single policy. Therefore, policy responses to child labor requires a set of policy instruments such as awareness creation, alleviating poverty, enhancing stakeholders' collaboration, and enforcing laws and regulations directed towards regulating child labor exploitation. Besides the policy interventions need to be integrated into broader national development efforts and adapted to local circumstances. Thus, mainstreaming child labor into broader social development policies, rather than treating it as an isolated issue is important.

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## Author Contributions

This research was undertaken by 7 researchers: Kidanemariam Gidey (MSc), Desalegn Shamebo (PhD), Kassa Teshager (PhD), Tesfaye Chofana (PhD), Meshesha Zewdie (MSC), Woinshet Mengestu (MA) and Hiwot Woldu (MA). They contributed equally from the inception up to the completion of the research.

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## Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## Ethics Approval

Administrative clearance for the research was obtained from the Ethiopian Civil Service University and Addis Ababa City Administration Bureau of Labor and Social Affairs.

## Availability of Data and Materials

The data along with the survey questionnaire may be made available and accessible at the University data center

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