

ERITREA ASSESSMENT

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1. SCOPE OF DOCUMENT

1.1 This assessment has been produced by the Country Information & Policy Unit, Immigration & Nationality Directorate, Home Office, from information obtained from a variety of sources.

1.2 The assessment has been prepared for background purposes for those involved in the asylum determination process. The information it contains is not exhaustive, nor is it intended to catalogue all human rights violations. It concentrates on the issues most commonly raised in asylum claims made in the United Kingdom.

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

1.4 It is intended to revise the assessment on a 6-monthly basis while the country remains within the top 35 asylum producing countries in the United Kingdom.

1.5 An electronic copy of the assessment has been made available to the following organisations:

Amnesty International UK

Immigration Advisory Service

Immigration Appellate Authority

Immigration Law Practitioners' Association



Joint Council for the Welfare of Immigrants

JUSTICE

Medical Foundation for the care of Victims of Torture

Refugee Council

Refugee Legal Centre

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

2. GEOGRAPHY

2.1 The State of Eritrea has an area of 121,144 sq km. It lies on the Red Sea coast of north-eastern Africa and is bordered by Sudan to the Northwest, Ethiopia to the south and Djibouti to the Southeast. At mid 1998 Eritrea's population was estimated by the United Nations to be 3,577,000. The population is fairly evenly divided between Tigrinya-speaking Christians, traditional inhabitants of the highland areas, and the Muslim communities of the western lowlands, northern highlands and eastern coast. The capital is Asmara and the main port cities are Massawa and Assab. Several languages are spoken, including Tigrinya, Tigre and Amharic. Arabic and English are also widely spoken. [1][2][3]

3. HISTORY

Refer to Africa South of the Sahara (source [1]) for more detailed history of events prior to 1991

FOUNDATIONS OF ERITREA

3.1 Italy ruled Eritrea from the late 19th century to 1941, when British forces captured the territory during the Second World War. The United Nations (UN) approved a federation between Eritrea and neighbouring Ethiopia in 1952, rather than outright independence. Under the autocratic rule of Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie, Eritrea's autonomy was eroded and in 1962 its status was reduced to that of an Ethiopian province. [1][2]

RESISTANCE TO ETHIOPIAN RULE 1952-1991

3.2 The Eritrean Liberation Front (ELF) began an armed struggle to free Eritrea from Ethiopian control in 1961. Splits within the ELF in the mid-1960s led to the breaking away of the reformist Popular Liberation Forces faction, which was renamed the Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF) in 1977. The ELF and the EPLF fought a civil war between 1972 and 1974. There were further splits within the ELF in 1977-78 and in 1985, following a second civil war. These defections to the EPLF destroyed the ELF as an effective military force. The most influential groups remaining outside the EPLF have been those associated with Ahmed Nasser, leader of the ELF-Revolutionary Council (ELF-RC), and an Islamist group that grew amongst Eritrean refugees in Sudan during the 1980s. The EPLF meanwhile emerged as a well disciplined political and military organisation. [1][2]

3.3 Following the revolution in Ethiopia in 1974, which brought the hard-line Marxist 'Dergue' regime to power, thousands of people joined the Eritrean resistance groups. Resistance to Ethiopian rule increased significantly following the Dergue's 1977 'Red Terror' campaign of political repression. The EPLF fought Ethiopian forces from its bases in the highlands throughout the 1980s and successful campaigns saw the EPLF develop from a guerrilla force into a regular army. The EPLF captured Massawa in 1990 and Asmara in May 1991. [1][2]

INDEPENDENCE 1993 & TRANSITIONAL GOVERNMENT

3.4 At the same time that the EPLF captured Asmara in 1991, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF), an anti-Dergue alliance led by the Tigre People's Liberation Front (TPLF), captured the Ethiopian capital Addis Ababa and ousted the Dergue. The EPRDF was sympathetic to Eritrean independence, accepting the EPLF as the provisional government of Eritrea, and agreed to the holding of an independence referendum in Eritrea in 1993. [1][2]

3.5 In advance of the 1993 referendum, the EPLF formed a government and established ministries, most of whose key personnel were EPLF members. Eritrea's economy was devastated from years of fighting and the EPLF undertook a programme of reconstruction. A UN-supervised referendum on independence from Ethiopia took place in April 1993. 1,102,410 Eritreans voted in the referendum with 99.8% of votes in favour of independence. Independence was proclaimed on 24 May 1993 with international recognition following on 28 May 1993. [1][2]

3.6 Following formal independence, the EPLF declared a four-year transitional period, intended to pave the way for a constitutional and pluralistic political system. The transitional government consisted of three elements: the Consultative Council, an executive body formed from the ministers, provincial governors and heads of government commissions; the National Assembly, a legislative body formed from the EPLF's central committee and representatives from provincial assemblies and appointees of the central committee; and the judiciary. The National Assembly elected the EPLF's Secretary-General Issaias Afewerki first President of independent Eritrea on 8 June 1993. [1][2]

THE PFDJ AND CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

3.7 President Afewerki appointed a Consultative Council of 14 ministers, all EPLF members, and ten regional governors in June 1993. At the EPLF congress in February 1994 the People's Front for Democracy and Justice (PFDJ) was formed, to transform the EPLF from a military front to a political movement for peace and democracy. The intention was to embrace all Eritreans, with the exception of people accused of collaborating with Ethiopia prior to independence. The EPLF/PFDJ espoused its support for a pluralistic political system. It was intended that a new constitution, which would be put to a national referendum, would establish a new political structure and regulate the formation of political parties. [1][2]

3.8 In March 1994 the National Assembly resolved to replace the Consultative Council, the former executive body, with a new State Council. A Constitutional Commission was also created. The Assembly also resolved to reorganise itself, to henceforth comprise 75 members of the PFDJ's Central Committee and 75 directly elected members, although no mechanism for their election was announced. There was no provision made for participation by opposition parties in the interim system. Later in March 1994, Afewerki reshuffled government ministries in what was seen as an attempt to formalise the separation of government functions and the PFDJ executive. [1][2]

3.9 Conferences on reforming the constitution took place in 1994 and 1995. There was extensive popular consultation with more than 1,000 meetings throughout the country attended by half a million people. However, no opponents of the Government were invited to contribute. [1][2]

3.10 In May 1995 Afewerki announced a government rationalisation programme. The 30,000 strong civil service was to be reduced by one third and 6,500 civil servants that had not been combatant members of the EPLF were made redundant immediately. Eritrea's ten administrative regions were reduced to six. New names for these regions were approved in November 1995 that are unrelated to the ethnic groups that inhabited them. [1][2]

3.11 A Constituent Assembly was established in 1997 to discuss and ratify the draft Constitution. The Assembly comprised 527 members, of whom 150 were selected from the National Assembly and the remainder from representatives of Eritreans resident abroad or elected by regional assemblies. A 30% quota for women was adhered to. A new Constitution was adopted by the Constituent Assembly in May 1997. Under the terms of the Constitution, the President would be elected for a maximum of two five-year terms. The President would have the power to appoint the ministers and Supreme Court judges. A two-thirds majority in the National Assembly could revoke the President's mandate. [1][2][4]

3.12 The new Constitution provided for 'conditional' political pluralism. With the adoption of the new Constitution, the Constituent Assembly was disbanded, having empowered a Transitional National Assembly to act as the legislative body until the holding of national elections. The Transitional National Assembly comprises 75 PFDJ Central Committee members, 60 members of the former Constituent Assembly and 15 representatives of Eritreans resident abroad. It was intended that elections to the new assembly would be held in 1998 but these have been postponed indefinitely since border hostilities with Ethiopia began in mid-1998. In October 2000 it was announced that elections would take place in December 2001. [1][2][4]

POLITICAL OPPOSITION

3.13 An effective ban on other political groups has operated since the EPLF took power in 1991. The ELF factions have maintained that hundreds of political prisoners have remained in detention. 26 members of the ELF-RC were detained in Ethiopia in 1994 and other ELF-RC members were reportedly returned forcibly to Eritrea. [1][2]

3.14 In December 1996 there were a number of political assassinations, including the ELF's former commanding officer, Abubekar Al-Hussein, and a former military commander of the radical armed Islamist group the Eritrean Islamic Jihad (EIJ). The Government blamed most of these incidents on the EIJ but some speculated that pro-Government elements involved in internal disputes might have been responsible. The killings were also linked to anti-corruption investigations in which PFDJ members were found guilty of involvement in smuggling activities. [1]

3.15 Opposition to the PFDJ Government continued in the late 1990s, mainly from disaffected Eritreans resident abroad. Radio broadcasts on the clandestine 'Voice of Free Eritrea' radio station, apparently broadcasting from Sudan from in late 1997, claimed to represent the Eritrean National Alliance, a group of Eritrean opposition organisations formed in Khartoum in late 1996. [1]

3.16 Following the outbreak of the border conflict with Ethiopia in 1998 (see Sections 3.17 - 3.23) Sudan took advantage of the fighting to resolve differences with Ethiopia at Eritrea's expense. Relations between Sudan and Eritrea had been tense since the early

1993, when members of the EIJ's military wing entered Eritrea from Sudan. Both countries subsequently accused the other of harbouring opposition groups. Further attacks by the EIJ against targets in Eritrea took place in 1995. Clashes took place along the border between Eritrean and Sudanese troops in 1997 when tension was particularly high. Ten Eritrean opposition groups based in Khartoum launched the Alliance of Eritrean National Forces (AENF) in March 1999, which is led by Abdallah Idriss, the Chairman of the ELF-CC, who has consistently opposed the EPLF/PFDJ from exile. The AENF announced that it would form an Eritrean Government in exile. The AENF has been dismissed as a creation of Sudan and Ethiopia. By mid-1999 Sudan had indicated its willingness to improve relations with Eritrea and in May 1999 President Afewerki and his Sudanese counterpart signed a reconciliation agreement. [1][2]

BORDER CONFLICT WITH ETHIOPIA 1998-2001

3.17 Relations with Ethiopia, which were good following independence in 1993, deteriorated in 1997 as disagreements arose following Eritrea's introduction of a new currency, the Nakfa. Fighting erupted in May 1998 in the disputed border area around Badme and spread in June 1998, with both sides carrying out air raids against towns in each other's territory. A cease-fire in aerial warfare was agreed to in June 1998. A lull in fighting after June 1998 was ended in February 1999 when further heavy fighting took place, both on the ground and in the air. Observers estimated that up to 30,000 combatants died in the fighting. The fighting diminished significantly in April 1999, with both sides declaring their commitment to Organisation of African Unity (OAU) peace plans. [1][2][5]

3.18 There were numerous clashes between Eritrean and Ethiopian troops throughout late 1999 and early 2000. In April 2000 delegations from Ethiopia and Eritrea agreed to attend OAU sponsored talks in Algiers although the delegations would not agree to meet face to face, and the talks collapsed after 6 days. [1]

3.19 In mid May 2000 hostilities resumed with Ethiopia launching a major offensive. It was estimated that between 500,000 and one million Eritreans had fled as fighting increased and that about 850,000 Eritreans and an estimated eight million Ethiopians were in need of emergency assistance. Hostilities continued into mid June 2000 but following extensive negotiations both sides expressed their readiness to accept the OAU cease-fire agreement and finally on 18 June 2000 the agreement was signed. [1][6]

3.20 This agreement provided for an immediate cease-fire and the deployment of a UN peacekeeping force in a 24-kilometre buffer zone inside Eritrea. At a meeting in Washington, DC, USA in July 2000 to discuss outstanding technical issues, the demarcation of the border and compensation for damages during the conflict, it was estimated that some 100,000 people had been killed and more than 1 million had been displaced. [1]

3.21 In mid-September 2000 the UN Security Council approved the deployment of a force of 4,200 peace keepers, the UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea (UNMEE). It was given an initial mandate of 6 months and charged with monitoring and ensuring that both sides complied with the agreement on the cessation of hostilities including the redeployment of forces to agreed positions. [1]

3.22 On 12 December 2000 in Algiers Ethiopia and Eritrea signed a comprehensive peace agreement ending the border conflict. The agreement provides for a permanent end to hostilities, the release and repatriation of POWs and civilian detainees, and an investigation into the origins of the conflict. It establishes two neutral commissions. One to delimit and demarcate the boundary and the second to resolve compensation claims. On 18 April 2001 the UN declared that a 25km buffer zone, separating the forces of the 2 countries, had been established. [2][10c][10i]

3.23 On 9 March 2001 the UN Security Council voted to extend the UN Mission until 15 September 2001. Problems continued in the Temporary Security Zone (TSZ) with complaints about its operation from Ethiopia, Eritrea and the peacekeepers. At the 8th meeting of the UNMEE Military Coordination Committee (MCC) the return of those displaced during the war and the reduction of tensions on the southern boundary of the TSZ were identified as priorities and both parties confirmed continued support for UNMEE and a commitment to establish peace. The 9th meeting of MCC scheduled for 3 October 2001 did not take place because discussion with the parties on a venue could not be completed in time. The return of prisoners of war, which had commenced, stopped in late July following Ethiopian concerns over the whereabouts of a missing pilot. On 14 September 2001 the UN Security Council voted to extend the UN Mission until 15 March 2002. On 23 September 2001 UNMEE expressed growing concern about the situation in the buffer zone between the two countries. In October 2001 Eritrea repatriated 24 mostly sick Ethiopian prisoners of war. [18][21a][21b][21c][10a][22a][22b][21d][10b][21k]

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

3.24 In 2001 dissent within the ruling PFDJ began to surface. In April 2001 a former Eritrean Government minister Mahmud Sherifo who had been sacked two months earlier openly criticised the government saying that the president did not support the creation of political parties. Sherifo, who had been local government minister and was involved in a committee drafting a law on political parties, said that he had been sacked after the President stopped publication of the draft laws. In late May 2001 reports surfaced of an internal letter signed by 15 senior members of the party accusing the President of working in an illegal and unconstitutional manner. In June 2001 two of the signatories of the letter, Petros Solomon and Haile Woldensae respectively ministers for fisheries and trade and industry were sacked and replaced. The 15 dissenters became known as the G-15 group. [10d][10e][10f][21f]

3.25 On 18 September 2001 the Eritrean Government arrested six members of the G-15 group and closed down eight privately run newspapers (see paras 5.52 - 5.53 for further information). An Eritrean official stated that the six had been arrested "for putting the country in danger and causing confusion". On 19 September a further five members of G-15 were arrested and later in the month the diplomatic passports of three of the members were revoked. [21f][10g][21g]

4. INSTRUMENTS OF THE STATE

POLITICAL SYSTEM

4.1 The Constitution, which came into effect in May 1998, provides for democratic freedoms but the provisions of the Constitution have not been implemented fully yet, mainly because of the outbreak of the border conflict with Ethiopia in 1998. [4][6]

4.2 The PFDJ continues to dominate the Government and is the sole legal political party in Eritrea. Moves towards a multi-party system have been delayed because of the border conflict with Ethiopia. Elections that should have been held in 1997 were postponed until 1998 and then, after fighting with Ethiopia broke out, were postponed indefinitely. However during 2000 the Government established two committees to develop guidelines and rules for new elections and the formation of political parties. National Assembly elections are scheduled to take place in December 2001. [2][6]

LEGAL FRAMEWORK & JUDICIARY

4.3 The judiciary is formally independent but is weak and subject to interference by the executive. The judiciary is administered as part of the Ministry of Justice and relies on the Ministry for logistical and salary support, which further limits the judiciary's independence. At a conference in Asmara on 23 July 2001 Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Teame Beyene, criticised the President's Office for intruding in the affairs of the court. Justice Teame was sacked within a week. [6][27]

4.4 The judiciary has three parts: civilian, military and special courts. The civilian court system consists of village, sub-regional and regional courts and a High Court that serves as an appellate court. The judicial system is still developing but suffers from a lack of trained staff and poor funding, which in practice limits the right of accused people to a speedy trial. 16 new courthouses were completed in 1998 but the conflict with Ethiopia has since limited development of the judicial infrastructure. [6]

4.5 At independence, the Government decided to retain the Ethiopian legal system. Village courts hear simple crime cases. Regional courts hear more serious cases and the High Court hears cases involving murder, rape and other serious charges. A panel of three judges hears cases before the High Court. A single judge hears cases in lower courts. The Government has developed new commercial, penal and criminal codes, which were ready for ratification by the National Assembly at the end of 2000 although these were not ratified by the end of the year. A new civil code is expected to be completed by 2001. [6]

4.6 Defendants have access to legal counsel, usually at their own expense. While there is no formal public defender's office, the Government has requested successfully that defence attorneys work without fee to represent defendants accused of crimes punishable by more than ten years imprisonment who are unable to afford legal representation. Verdicts may be appealed against to the High Court, which comprises a president and five judges. [6]

4.7 As the population is largely rural, most people only have contact with the legal system through village courts, which deal mainly with civil matters. Criminal cases are transferred to magistrates. Many local issues, such as property disputes and petty crimes, are adjudicated by local elders according to custom, or, in the case of Muslims, Shari'a law. Traditional courts cannot impose sentences involving physical punishment. [6]

4.8 To tackle the growing backlog in the civilian court system, the Defence Minister created the special court system in 1997. Judges in the special courts are senior military officers, most of whom have little if any legal experience. The special courts have jurisdiction over criminal cases, including capital offences, and cases of corruption by senior officials. The special courts may also re-try civilian court cases including those decided by the High Court. [6]

4.9 The special courts also handle cases of alleged corruption during the independence war by former members of the EPLF. Senior former EPLF fighters are often held to a stringent unwritten code of conduct and violations of this code are handled by special courts outside the normal judicial process. Former fighters accused of violating this code have been arrested and held without formal charge. [6]

4.10 In the special courts there are no defence lawyers and no right of appeal. The continued handling of civilian cases by the special courts raised problems of due process because of the absence of defence counsel and denial of appeal rights. [6]

4.11 The drafting of many civilians, including judges, defendants, lawyers and court officials, into the military because of the border conflict with Ethiopia that began in 1998 has had a significant negative impact on the judiciary. The High Court was reduced from seven to three benches and regional and village court personnel were reduced by 40%. There have consequently been lengthy delays in the processing of cases. During 2000 some of these personnel were permitted to return to work. [6]

4.12 Arbitrary arrest and detention remain a problem. The Penal Code limits the period a detainee may be held without charge to 30 days. In practice, however, the authorities sometimes hold suspects for much longer periods. [6]

5. HUMAN RIGHTS SITUATION

HUMAN RIGHTS: INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

5.1 The Eritrean Government has a poor human rights record. Although serious problems remain there were improvements in some areas in 2000. The Penal Code of Eritrea, a modified version of the Ethiopian Penal Code, and the Constitution prohibit torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. However, many observers believe that the police at least occasionally resort to torture and physical beatings of prisoners, particularly during interrogations. Arbitrary arrest and detention remain a problem and an unknown number of people suspected of association with the Ethiopian Mengistu regime, radical Islamic groups and terrorist groups remain in prolonged detention without charge. In August 2000 the Government allowed the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) access to Ethiopian civilian detainees and prisoners of war. Freedom of the Press remains limited although independent newspapers were flourishing until their closure in September 2001. (See paras 5.52-5.53 for further details.) [4][6][26]

ERITREAN HUMAN RIGHTS ORGANISATIONS

5.2 Responsibility for handling human rights enquiries is held jointly by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Local Government. All NGOs must register with the Eritrean Relief and Refugee Commission. Following a Government order in 1998 most NGOs left. In 1999 they began returning when the Government encouraged their involvement in development and humanitarian aid. At the end of 2000 there were 36 NGOs operating within the country. [6]

5.3 A local human rights organisation called Citizens for Peace (CPE) was formed in 1998 to investigate Ethiopia's deportations of Eritreans. In July 2000 this organisation was registered as a local NGO and widened its mandate to include other human rights problems. In June 2000 the CPE issued a statement appealing to citizens and the Government to safeguard the human rights of Ethiopians living in the country. [6]

INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS ORGANISATIONS IN ERITREA

5.4 With the exception of the ICRC most international human rights organisations are not permitted to operate within the country. During 2000 the ICRC continued its programmes providing food and shelter to approximately 243,000 people displaced by the conflict with Ethiopia. At the beginning of 2000 it was not permitted to visit all detainees. However in August 2000 access to first Ethiopian civilian detainees and then Ethiopian prisoners of war was granted. Access to Ethiopian detainees in Asmara was not granted until November 2000. In September 2000 the government agreed to conduct future repatriations of Ethiopian civilians under ICRC auspices and to allow the ICRC to

organise the return of Ethiopian POWs. Although the Government generally abided by this, on 14 October 2000, 881 Ethiopians were deported without ICRC participation. In January 1999 a delegation from Amnesty International visited Eritrea for the first time since 1991. Amongst others it met Government ministers and officials and representatives of the CPE. On 29 July 2000 Eritrea acceded to the four Geneva Conventions of 1949. [6][7a][20a]

HUMAN RIGHTS: SPECIFIC GROUPS

WOMEN

5.5 The Government has consistently advocated improving the status of women, many of whom played a major role as independence fighters. Since independence, women have had the legal right to equal educational opportunities, equal pay for equal work and legal sanctions against domestic violence. The Constitution and the transitional Civil Code prohibit discrimination against women and the Government generally enforces these provisions. [4][6][16]

5.6 Much of Eritrean society remains traditional and patriarchal and most women have an inferior status to men in the home and society. In practice, men retain privileged access to education, employment and control of economic resources with more disparities in rural than urban areas. [6]

5.7 The Government takes a firm public stance against domestic violence but observers believe that violence against women, particularly in highland areas, is pervasive. Spousal abuse, particularly wife beating is common, although domestic violence is seldom discussed openly by women. If any action is taken it is likely to be within the family or by religious clergy. [6]

5.8 Women between the ages of 18 and 40 are required to perform national service and women have been involved in fighting in the border conflict with Ethiopia that began in mid-1998. However, during 1999 the Government began removing women from direct combat and reassigning them to other duties, such as training. [6][16]

5.9 Women are under-represented in government and politics. To encourage greater participation of women in politics the PFDJ named three women to the party's 19 member Executive Council and 11 women to its 75 member Central Council at the last party congress held in 1994. Women filled almost half the positions in the constitutional Commission and hold senior government positions, including the posts of Minister of Justice and Minister of Labour. The Law reserves a third of regional National Assembly seats for women, and women are also able to compete for the non-reserved seats. [6]

5.10 Female genital mutilation (FGM) is widespread with an estimated 95% of women and girls having been subjected to it. Most ethnic and religious groups practice FGM. There is no law prohibiting FGM although the Government has worked officially to combat the practice of FGM. The Government and other organisations including the National Union of Eritrean Women sponsored education programmes that discourage the practice. In addition the UN Population Fund sponsors reproductive health projects which focus on the negative physical and psychological effects of FGM. [6]

5.11 For further information on Ethiopian women in Eritrea see para 5.32.

CHILDREN

5.12 The Ministry of Labour and Human Welfare is responsible for policies concerning the rights and welfare of children. The Children's Affairs Division, a part of this ministry covers childcare, counselling and probation. Child prostitution, pornography and sexual

exploitation are criminal offences under the law. [6]

5.13 The legal minimum age for employment is 18 years although apprentices may be hired at 14. Labour inspectors in the Ministry of Labour and Human Welfare are responsible for enforcing employment laws pertaining to children. The Constitution prohibits forced or bonded labour, including that performed by children, and there have been no reports that it occurs. However, it is common for children in rural areas who do not attend to school to work on family farms and in urban areas some children work as street vendors. The government has not yet ratified the International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention 182 on the worst forms of child labour. The Constitution prohibits forced or bonded labour including that performed by children and there were no reports in 2000 that it occurred. [6]

5.14 A small number of children under the age of 18 have reportedly entered military service, usually as a result of inadequate identification documents. When soldiers have been found to be below 18 they have been removed from service. [6]

HOMOSEXUALS

5.15 Same-sex sexual activity is legal for men and women in Eritrea and there have been no reports of discrimination or persecution of homosexuals. [14]

ETHNIC GROUPS

[A map of Eritrea showing distribution of ethnic groups is annexed as source document 11]

5.16 The Constitution prohibits discrimination on the grounds of race, ethnic origin, colour or language. The PFDJ discourages political movements based on ethnic or religious groups as it fears that they could exacerbate ethnic and religious differences. The population is divided fairly evenly between Tigrinya speaking Christians who traditionally occupy the highlands and the Muslim communities of the western lowlands, northern highlands and east coast. [1][2][4][6][8]

Ethnic Groups:

5.17 Tigre (Tigray) - the Tigre peoples represent about one third of Eritrea's population. Culturally and ethnically they are related to the Beja of Sudan. Claiming Arab origin, their language, Tigre, is Semitic. Mostly Muslim, their primary occupation is cattle herding. Most are nomadic but some have settled. The use of the Tigre language is declining under the impact of Tigrinya in Eritrea. There are three main Tigre groups, Haba, Ad Teklei and Ad Temaryam. [8]

5.18 Afar (Danakils) - the Afars are mainly Muslim and inhabit the coastal lowlands of the Danakil Depression. They speak Afar and Arabic and are mainly pastoral nomads. Afar leaders have been critical of the EPLF/PFDJ but have been in favour of the freedom enjoyed by the regional assembly in their home areas and the support given by the Government to the Afar-based Front pour la Restauration de l'Unité et la Démocratie in neighbouring Djibouti. [8]

5.19 Saho - the Saho live between Afar and Tigre areas and are nomadic or semi-nomadic people, and mainly Muslim. They speak local languages and Arabic. Land taken for the resettlement of 500,000 Eritrean refugees in Sudan is likely to be that used by the Saho. [8]

5.20 Bilen - the Bilen inhabit the area around the town of Keren. They are a mostly agriculturalist people, comprising two main tribes, the Bet Teqwe and the Gebre Terqe, of about 15,000 each. About a quarter of the Bilen population are Roman Catholics. [8]

5.21 Beni Amber - the Beni Amer are a branch of the Tigre people, living in the northern lowlands. They are Muslims and many Beni Amer are included in the thousands of Eritrean refugees in Sudan. [8]

5.22 Kunama and Baria - the Kunama and Baria tribes inhabit the southern part of the western lowlands. They are of Nilotic origin, like the inhabitants of western Ethiopia and southern Sudan. The Baria were forcibly Islamicised and about one third of the Kunama are Christians. During 2000 there were reports of Government and societal discrimination against the Kunama. As a result of the existence of a Kunama opposition group operating in Ethiopia and supported by the Ethiopian Government some Kunama in Eritrea are suspected of supporting or sympathising with the Ethiopian Government. During fighting in the border war from May to June 2000 Ethiopian troops occupied many areas inhabited by Kunamas, and after the withdrawal of Ethiopian troops some Kunama were accused of collaboration or looting. In June 2000 approximately 200 Kunama were detained without charges on suspicion of collaboration. Most were released within a few months although by the end of 2000 several Kunamas remained in detention. There were unconfirmed reports that the Government took land from some Kunama on the grounds that it was not being efficiently exploited. This land was said to have been given to members of other ethnic groups. Some societal discrimination against Kunama is due to the fact that they are seen as ethnically and culturally different from the majority of citizens. [3][6][8]

5.23 Jerberti (also known as Jiberti/Jabarti/Jaberti)- the Jeberti are Muslims scattered throughout the Christian Highlands who practice Islam but also observe some customs of the Christians among whom they live. The Jeberti speak the Tigrinya language and some Arabic. [12]

SUPPORTERS OF ELF AND ELF-RC

5.24 There were unconfirmed reports that the Government continued to hold numerous members of the armed opposition group ELF. However members of the ELF-RC faction who left at the time of independence have since returned and been appointed as Governors (mayors) as part of the Government's efforts to integrate different sections of Eritrean society into the administration. ELF-RC members have taken up posts in government departments such as the Ministry of Information and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs since their return to Eritrea. Membership of the ELF-RC has not prevented them from returning to the country or playing an active role in government. The organisation is still active in exile, mainly in Sudan and Ethiopia and the government's reaction to returning members of ELF or ELF-RC will depend on the position held in the organisations and the type of activity undertaken. Those who had been responsible for anything that could be interpreted as terrorism or violence may be likely to come to the attention of the authorities. [6][13]

ETHIOPIANS IN ERITREA

5.25 Before the border conflict with Ethiopia began in 1998 there were an estimated 100,000 Ethiopians working in Eritrea. They consisted of long-term residents, some married to Eritreans, and more recent migrant workers. The port of Assab in particular hosted some 35,000 Ethiopians. [5]

5.26 After the outbreak of the border war the Eritrean Government stated in June 1998 that Ethiopian nationals could leave Eritrea or stay if they wished. In early 1999 more than 3,000 Ethiopians resident in Eritrea returned to Ethiopia through pressure of unemployment or homelessness, as a result of the war. It appears that these returns were not as a result of Government expulsions or Government policy. This brought to more than 25,000 the total of Ethiopians who left Eritrea during the border war. The Ethiopian Government repeatedly accused the Eritrean Government of forced expulsions, detentions, torture and extrajudicial executions. In January 1999 the

Government admitted holding 6 Ethiopians for investigation into alleged espionage, Amnesty International could otherwise find no evidence to substantiate most of the claims made by the Ethiopian Government. [5][7a][7b]

5.27 In 2000 a number of problems for Ethiopians in Eritrea were reported. Some Ethiopians had difficulty renewing residence permits and were subject to detention when stopped by the authorities with an expired permit. There were occasions when Eritreans threatened and beat Ethiopians after fighting in the border war resumed in May 2000 and there were times when the police intervened too late to prevent or halt the abuse. There were reports that in May 2000 some Ethiopians were arrested for raising the Ethiopian flag in public places. In August 2000 the Government shut down all businesses in Asmara owned by Ethiopians (approximately 300) and gave Ethiopians occupying Government owned housing one month's notice to quit. It is reported that the Government froze some Ethiopians' bank accounts and seized assets. Some Ethiopians had difficulty renewing various licences and leases. It is not clear how many, but a significant number of Ethiopians lost their jobs or were dismissed because of their nationality; in some cases this would have been due to their Ethiopian employers fleeing or having their businesses closed down. [6]

5.28 During 2000 the Government detained between 10,000 and 20,000 Ethiopians, many of whom were repatriated or deported. Between June and September 2000 detention camps were established for Ethiopians scheduled for repatriation and deportation. [5][6]

5.29 Various problems were reported in the detention camps. Some detainees were forced to work outside their camps although after a visit by ICRC in late August 2000 POWs were no longer forced to work. Monitors reported that conditions in the camps were generally adequate although there were reports of sickness and death in some of the camps. There were credible reports that security forces beat Ethiopian detainees who were awaiting deportation or repatriation. There were also reports that security forces killed some detainees; in particular, six were reported to have been killed by camp guards at a camp in Wia. There was no investigation into these reports by the end of 2000. A guard at the Keren camp shot and injured a detainee, who was subsequently treated and repatriated to Ethiopia. No action is known to have been taken against the guard. [6]

5.30 An unknown number of Ethiopians, mostly men, were held in police stations, prisons and jails in Asmara. The Government stated that they were being held for their own protection, because they had committed a crime, or because they were due for deportation. In November 2000 the ICRC was allowed to visit a number of these police stations. By the end of 2000 there was no evidence that they continued to be held in police stations, prisons or jails. [6]

5.31 In August 2000 the Government began deporting and repatriating Ethiopians to Ethiopia. Most were repatriated voluntarily although many were forcibly deported. By the end of 2000 more than 25,000 Ethiopians had been returned. Only about half of the returns took place with ICRC participation. In July and August 2000 thousands of Ethiopians were deported under difficult and dangerous conditions without ICRC participation. As a result a number disappeared and are thought to have died. Some detainees were forced to march for 18 hours non-stop. In September 2000 the Government declared that it would conduct future repatriations of Ethiopian civilians under ICRC auspices and allow the ICRC to organise the return of Ethiopian POWs, although in October 2000 800 Ethiopians were deported from the Keren camp without ICRC participation. The ICRC continued to repatriate Ethiopians and in February 2001 announced that more than 5,110 Ethiopians most of whom were former detainees had been repatriated since early December 2000, a further repatriation of over 1,000 Ethiopians was announced in June 2001. [6][20b][20c]

5.32 In July 2000 the Government deported 92 Ethiopian women to Djibouti by boat and there were credible reports that Eritrean soldiers beat and raped some of the women

while in detention prior to deportation. Ethiopian women working as barmaids and prostitutes in Asmara were singled out for detention and deportation to Ethiopia. This was reported to be due in part to the fear that these women spread HIV/AIDS. It was reported that women who could demonstrate they had a child with an Eritrean father were allowed to stay, although some deportees alleged they were not allowed to take their children, as the fathers were Eritrean. [6]

5.33 An estimated 40,000 to 50,000 Ethiopians remain in the country and the Government has stated on several occasions that it has not adopted a policy of deporting all Ethiopians from the country. [6]

5.34 Following the cessation of the border war the Ethiopian Government continued to claim that Ethiopians were being detained and in particular in May 2001 claimed that thousands of Ethiopians had been rounded up and incarcerated. There were no reports substantiating this claim. In a report dated 5 September 2001 the United Nations Secretary-General expressed concerns about the treatment of Eritreans in Ethiopia in particular it was noted that those interviewed had reported long-term detention without due process, often in poor conditions. There were also allegations of ill treatment, discrimination in access to social services and harassment by civilians and officials. The Secretary-General called on Ethiopia and Eritrea to reconsider their positions with regard to the treatment of each other's nationals. He further urged them to comply strictly with international human rights and humanitarian law standards and their commitments under the peace agreement. [23][21e][24]

SUPPORTERS OF ETHIOPIAN DERGUE REGIME

5.35 Amnesty International has reported that some 120 officials of the former Ethiopian Dergue regime convicted of human rights violations were serving prison sentences of up to 15 years imposed for human rights abuses following trials it considers secret and unfair. [7a]

RELIGIOUS GROUPS

5.36 The population is fairly evenly divided between Tigrinya-speaking, mainly Orthodox, Christians, traditional inhabitants of the highland areas, and the Muslim communities of the western lowlands, northern highlands and eastern coast. Most Christians adhere to the Orthodox Church but there are also Roman Catholic and Protestant communities. At the end of 1997 there were an estimated 130,889 adherents of the Roman Catholic Church in Eritrea. A small percentage of the population adheres to traditional beliefs. [1][2]

5.37 The separation of the Eritrean Orthodox Church from the Ethiopian Orthodox Church was agreed in September 1993, shortly after Eritrea formally achieved independence from Ethiopia. [1][2][3]

5.38 The Constitution provides for freedom of religion, but the Government restricts this right in practice. Christianity and Islam are practised and tolerated widely with people free to worship at the church or mosque of their choice. The authorities continue, however, to harass, detain and discriminate against members of the small community of Jehovah's Witnesses. [4][6]

5.39 Clashes between Government forces and Muslim fighters of the Sudan-based military wing of the Eritrean Islamic Salvation (EIS) have taken place along the border with Sudan since 1993, which have led the Government to restrict travel along much of the border. The EIS occasionally lays mines, leading to additional travel restrictions. [1][2][6]

5.40 Jehovah's Witnesses have experienced harassment and discrimination because of their refusal on religious grounds to perform military service or vote in a referendum.

Jehovah's Witnesses did not therefore vote in the 1993 independence referendum and do not fulfil military service obligations and have consequently been denied Eritrean citizenship. Jehovah's Witnesses have also been subjected to dismissal from the civil service, had trading licences revoked and been denied passports, identity documents, exit visas and access to state-owned housing. [1][6]

5.41 The Ministry of Justice denies that any Jehovah's Witnesses were held without charge but acknowledges that some are in gaol for convictions on charges of evading national service. In 1998 several members of the Jehovah's Witnesses were arrested for failing to comply with the National Service Law and some were tried. There is no information available on the verdicts or sentences in these cases. At the end of 2000 approximately five Jehovah's Witnesses remained in detention without being tried or charged some for more than five years for failing to perform national service. The maximum penalty for refusing to perform national service is three years. Officials have denied that any members of Jehovah's Witnesses are being held without charge whilst admitting that some (in addition to some Muslims) are in jail following conviction for evading national service. The army has resorted to various forms of extreme physical punishment to force objectors to undertake military service. (See also sections 5.65 - 5.68) [1][6]

HUMAN RIGHTS: OTHER ISSUES

FREEDOM OF ASSEMBLY & POLITICAL ASSOCIATION

5.42 The Eritrean Government is dominated by the PFDJ, the sole legal political party. There are no legal opposition political parties. The Government has stated its belief that public education and institutional structures are needed before multi-party democracy can be established. Although the new Constitution came into force in May 1998 the Government has still not fulfilled its commitment in the Constitution to move towards a democratically elected government. Elections that should have been held in 1997 were postponed to 1998 and then, with the outbreak of the border conflict with Ethiopia in 1998, postponed indefinitely. During 2000 the Government established two committees to develop guidelines and rules for new elections and the formation of political parties. National Assembly elections are scheduled to take place in 2001. [4][6]

5.43 The Constitution provides for freedom of assembly and the Government respects this right in practice. A permit from the Ministry of Local Government is required for a public meeting or demonstration. Permits are, in general, granted freely for non-political meetings or gatherings and there were no reports in 2000 that permits for political demonstrations were denied. [4][6]

5.44 The Constitution also provides for freedom of association and states that every citizen has the right to form organisations for political ends. The Government has still not allowed the formation of any legal opposition parties although in 2000 it established two committees to set this in motion. It has also stated its opposition to the formation of religious or ethnic-based parties on the grounds that their formation may exacerbate religious and ethnic differences. [4][6]

FREEDOM OF SPEECH & OF THE PRESS

5.45 The Constitution provides for freedom of speech and of the Press but the Government in practice, restricts these rights, though to a lesser extent in 2000 than in previous years. [4][6]

5.46 The Government controls much of the media, including three newspapers, a radio and television station and one of only two newspaper printing presses in the country. There are no independent radio or television stations. Four independent newspapers

closed during the year when all their reporters were called up for military service. At the end of 2000 there were nine independent papers and magazines. Three independent newspapers - Setit, Kastedebana and Tsighenai - each have a circulation of 15,000. The pro-Government publication Trgta has the widest circulation of 20,000. Private ownership of broadcast media and foreign ownership of any media are not permitted. The Government has the authority to ban the import of foreign publications but has yet to use this power. [6]

5.47 The 1996-press proclamation forbids local reprinting of articles from banned publications. The Government continues to restrict the right of the religious media to comment on politics or Government policies. In theory, non-religious media are free to criticise the Government but criticism is limited and the media practices self-censorship. [6]

5.48 All newspapers must obtain a licence from the Ministry of Information (Mol) before publication. All reporters must register with the Mol. The Government has the authority to punish those who publish material that it considers insults or abuses the Government or that contravenes public morality. [6]

5.49 Journalists from Eritrea's eleven independent newspapers formed an establishing committee in late 1999 to form an independent journalists' organisation. They applied to the Ministry of Local Government for a licence but the Government refused a licence and the group had not been formed by the end of 2000. [6]

5.50 The Government uses the libel law to intimidate journalists. In 1999 a newspaper editor was arrested for refusing to divulge the source of an article. He has since been rearrested and further charges made and dropped. Some charges remain pending but the trial has been indefinitely suspended as the editor has been inducted into the army. The editor in chief of the independent newspaper Kastedebana has been charged in seven libel cases, but the cases were suspended pending the editor's return from a sentence for hard labour on another matter. In August 2000 the Government arrested and detained for a day the editor of an independent newspaper allegedly for having expired leave papers. In October 2000 officials from the Ministry of Defence detained eight journalists apparently to check their draft status. However observers believe they were detained because their newspaper had been calling for access to National Assembly elections. Six were reported to have been released and two others inducted into the military to fulfil national service obligations. [6]

5.51 Some journalists have alleged they were targeted unfairly for the draft. Some have complained of routine harassment by individuals they believe work for the Government, claiming to have received threatening telephone calls and alleging that unidentified individuals showed up at their offices and threatened them. [6]

5.52 In September 2001 the Government closed eight privately run newspapers stating that they had been "suspended temporarily" and would be allowed to reopen "once they learned to abide by Eritrean press laws". It was also reported that seven journalists working for independent newspapers had been arrested. [21f][10h]

5.53 Although the Government claims that there are no restrictions on academic freedom the University of Asmara has refused to give diplomas to students who completed their studies unless they did military service. In August 2001 following the arrest of a student union president it was reported that some 2,000 students were being held in detention in Wia. Reports suggested that the students had been detained for refusing to take part in a mandatory summer work programme. Two students died while at Wia. The Government stated that the students had not been detained but had been sent to Wia while a new summer programme was organised and the deaths were caused by climatic conditions in the makeshift camp at Wia. In late September following the return on many of the students to Asmara, it was announced that the University had reopened to allow for registration for the new term due to start on 8 October 2001. [21h][21i][19][21i]

FREEDOM OF RELIGION

5.54 The Constitution provides for freedom of religion, but the Government restricts this right in practice. Unlike in previous years, in 2000 there was no evidence that the Government discouraged proselytising by members of one faith amongst members of another. (See also sections 5.36 - 5.41 covering religious groups.) [4][6]

5.55 The PFDJ has stated its opposition to the formation of any religious or ethnic-based political party. A 1995 proclamation bans religious organisations from involvement in politics and restricts the religious media from commenting on political matters. [6][8]

5.56 The Government informed religious organisations in 1998 that religiously funded schools providing general education would be incorporated into the state education system. No action has been taken to implement this decision because of the outbreak of border hostilities with Ethiopia in mid-1998. According to officials in the Religious Affairs Office the Government is expected to allow religious schools to operate independently provided they follow a standard curriculum. [6]

FREEDOM OF TRAVEL/INTERNAL RELOCATION

5.57 The Constitution provides for the rights of free movement and emigration. Citizens may, in general, choose where they live and travel freely. Citizens are generally free to travel outside Eritrea, although there have been cases in which Jehovah's Witnesses, officials of the former Ethiopian Mengistu regime and those who have not completed national service have been denied passports or visas. Also, since the border conflict with Ethiopia began in 1998 the Government has increasingly denied exit visas to young people, apparently because they have been approaching the age of eligibility for national service. Citizens, in general, have the right of return although instances in which citizens living abroad have been declared ineligible for asylum in other countries are considered on a case-by-case basis. In addition returning Eritreans must show proof that they have paid a two percent tax on their annual income while abroad to the Government of Eritrea in order to receive government services on their return. [4][6]

5.58 As many as 75,000 ethnic Eritreans have been deported from Ethiopia since the border conflict began in 1998. The Eritrean Relief and Refugee Commission gives deportees resettlement grants. The deportees were placed with relatives or temporarily in camps with other internally displaced persons. Deportees are initially given temporary documentation, which is converted to full citizenship documentation, if the deportees can find three witnesses to testify to their Eritrean ties. The small minority of citizens who cannot demonstrate Eritrean ties are allowed to stay but are given documentation which identifies them as deportees. At times these deportees are subject to harassment and detention by military authorities. Deportees of military age who acknowledged Eritrean citizenship were ordered to report for military service. [6]

5.59 It is estimated that about 1.1 million citizens have been displaced internally as a result of the conflict with Ethiopia. At the end of 2000 approximately 243,000 remained inside camps and 100,000 outside camps. Camp conditions are basic but generally adequate. [6]

PRISON CONDITIONS

5.60 Conditions in Eritrean prisons are Spartan. Family members are permitted to visit prisoners three times a week. There are no juvenile detention centres and young offenders are often imprisoned with adults. There were no confirmed reports in 2000 of prisoners dying through a lack of proper medical care, although many observers believe that the police at least occasionally resort to torture and physical beatings of prisoners particularly during interrogations. [6]

5.61 Prior to 8 August 2000 the Government did not generally permit prison visits by local or international human rights groups. However, in 1998 the Government began to allow independent monitoring of conditions in detention facilities after the border conflict with Ethiopia began. As from 8 August 2000 the Government allowed the ICRC to visit and register civilian detainees in internment camps and prisons and as from 30 August 2000 the ICRC was permitted to visit Ethiopian POWs. In November 2000 for the first time, the ICRC was permitted to visit several police stations in Asmara where Ethiopians were reportedly being held. [5][6]

EDUCATION

5.62 Primary education is free but there is a shortage of schools and teachers and only about 60% of primary age children attend school. Education is officially compulsory from seven to 13 years of age. Secondary education is neither free nor compulsory and attendance is 53%. High school students are required to participate in summer work programmes, for which they are paid. 75% of Eritrea's population is illiterate. English is used as the language of instruction in secondary schools and university. The University of Asmara is the only one in the country. [6][2][10]

MEDICAL SERVICES

5.63 In the period 1990-1995 the infant mortality rate was estimated to be 101 per 1,000 live births. In 1991 there were 8 hospitals, 4 health centres and 8 health stations under the administration of the Government; these had increased to 17, 32 and 120 respectively by 1994. [2]

5.64 A statistical survey produced in 1997 by the World Health Organisation on the level of medical services ranked Eritrea 169 out of a total of 191 countries. Information provided by the World Health Organisation indicated in 1999 that 2.87% of the adult population live with HIV infection. [15a][15b]

MILITARY SERVICE

5.65 Major demobilisation of freedom fighters began following formal independence in 1993 referendum. Compulsory military service was introduced in 1994 to compensate for the contraction of the armed forces. National service was made compulsory for all Eritreans aged between 18 and 40 years, with certain exceptions, and consists of six months' military training and 12 months' service. Observers at the time suggested that the Government wanted to reduce the influence of potentially troublesome veteran freedom fighters while introducing a malleable younger element into the forces. High-ranking officers were also re-organised to remove political agitators and non-PFDJ members from the forces. Clashes occurred in 1995 and 1996 between Government troops and groups of young men unwilling to perform national service. [1][25]

5.66 In August 1999 Eritrea's active armed forces were estimated to number 200,000 of whom up to 150,000 were conscripts, including an army of about 180,000, and a navy of 1,100. In addition there were some 120,000 reservists. [1]

5.67 People who object to military service on religious grounds are not excused from it and there is no provision for any form of alternative service. The maximum penalty for refusing to perform national service is three years imprisonment. Members of the Jehovah's Witnesses religious group have experienced harassment and restrictions because of their refusal to undertake military service. (See also sections 5.40 - 5.41) Some Muslims have objected to universal military service with regard to the requirement that women perform military duty. [6]

5.68. During 2000 the Government deployed military police in Asmara to find deserters and draft dodgers, and those who had not undertaken their National Service were

detained in camps. Those detained were required to fulfil their military obligations or released if a military medical board deemed them to be unfit for military service. The University of Asmara refused to give diplomas to students who completed their studies unless they undertook their national service; additionally new graduates were occasionally pressured to work for government bodies. The army resorted to various forms of extreme physical punishment to force objectors, including some Jehovah's Witnesses, to undertake military service. These disciplinary actions included prolonged sun exposure in temperatures of up to 45 degrees Centigrade or the tying of hands and feet for extended periods of time. [6]

ERITREAN NATIONALITY

5.69 The rules governing eligibility for Eritrean nationality are contained in Eritrean Nationality Proclamation number 21/1992 *[annexed in full as source document 9]*. People are Eritrean by birth if they are born in Eritrea or abroad if their father or mother is of Eritrean origin, which is defined as meaning any person resident in Eritrea in 1933. The proclamation also contains provisions for the acquisition of Eritrean nationality by naturalisation, which covers people not of Eritrean origin but who resided in Eritrea between 1934 and 1951, provided that they did not commit what are termed "anti-people" acts during the campaign for Eritrean independence. People may be deprived of Eritrean nationality if they voluntarily acquire a foreign nationality. [9]

5.70 In July 2001 the Eritrean Ministry of Foreign Affairs asserted that participation in the 1993 referendum was not a relevant factor in deciding whether or not a person is entitled to Eritrean nationality. Persons applying for nationality or passports would be required to verify their claims to Eritrean nationality. [17]

DEATH PENALTY

5.71 The death penalty continues to be retained for ordinary crimes, however Amnesty International has no reports of the death penalty having been imposed or carried out in 2000. [7d][7c]

ANNEX A

CHRONOLOGY

1869 - Italian concession established near Assab

1885 - Italian control extended to Massawa

1889 - Italian control extended to most of modern Eritrea; Ethiopia recognises Italian control over Eritrea in Treaty of Ucciali

1941 - British forces capture Eritrea during the Second World War; Eritrea remains under British military administration until 1952

1952 - UN approves federation between Eritrea and Ethiopia; however Ethiopian rule effectively stifles Eritrean autonomy

1958 - Eritrean Liberation Movement (ELM) founded

1961 - Eritrean Liberation Front (ELF), which had superseded ELM, begins armed campaign for Eritrean independence from Ethiopia

1962 - Eritrea's status reduced to that of an Ethiopian province

1972-74 - Civil war in Eritrea between ELF and breakaway Popular Liberation Forces (which went on to form the Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF) in 1977)

1974 - Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia overthrown in revolution which brings hard-line Marxist 'Dergue' regime to power

1977 - 'Red Terror' campaign across Ethiopia by Dergue regime increases opposition to Ethiopian rule of Eritrea

1977-78 - Further splits within ELF

1985 - Second civil war between ELF and breakaway factions, leading to further splits from ELF, effectively neutralising it as an effective military force; EPLF now the main opposition force to Ethiopian rule

1990 - EPLF captures Massawa

5/1991 - EPLF captures Asmara; at same time EPRDF captures Addis Ababa and overthrows Dergue; EPRDF recognises EPLF as government of Eritrea and agrees independence referendum for Eritrea in 1993

4/1993 - UN-supervised referendum overwhelmingly approves independence from Ethiopia

24.5.1993 - Independence proclaimed

28.5.1993 - International recognition of independence of the State of Eritrea; EPLF establishes transitional government, with EPLF leader Issaias Afewerki becoming first President of Eritrea

8.6.1993 - Issaias Afewerki elected first President of Eritrea by the National Assembly

2/1994 - EPLF becomes the People's Front for Democracy & Justice (PFDJ) and espouses its support for a pluralistic political system

1994-1995 - Conferences on constitutional reform held throughout Eritrea, but Government opponents not invited to participate

5/1995 - Government rationalisation programme cuts size of civil service and reorganises administrative regions

12/1996 - Political assassinations of ELF's former commanding officer and a former military commander of EIJ

5/1997 - New Constitution adopted by Constituent Assembly

5/1998 - Border conflict with Ethiopia erupts into heavy fighting, thousands of Eritreans expelled from Ethiopia and many Ethiopians leave Eritrea

6/1998 - Fighting with Ethiopia escalates, lull in fighting after June

2/1999 - Upsurge in fighting with Ethiopia, 30,000 estimated deaths

3/1999 - 10 opposition groups based in Sudan form Alliance of Eritrean National Forces (AENF), led by ELF-CC's Chairman

4/2000 - Fighting diminishes and Eritrea and Ethiopia declare support for OAU peace plan

5/2000 - Ethiopia launches all-out attack on Eritrea, capturing territory taken by Eritrea in 5/1998

6/2000 - Eritrea and Ethiopia sign cease-fire agreement and agree to UN monitoring force along border

10/2000 - Eritrea and Ethiopia hold further peace talks in Algiers; UN peacekeepers deployed along common border

12/2000 - Eritrea and Ethiopia sign peace agreement in Algeria establishing commissions to mark border, exchange prisoners, return displaced people and hear compensation claims.

ANNEX B

MAIN POLITICAL ORGANISATIONS

Alliance of Eritrean National Forces (AENF) - grouping of 10 Sudan-based opposition organisations, formed in Khartoum 3/1999; led by ELF-CC's Chairman Abdallah Idriss

Democratic Movement for the Liberation of Eritrea (DMFLE) - opposition group; leader Hamid Turkey

Eritrean Islamic Jihad (EIJ) - radical armed Islamist opposition group; split into military wing and political wing 8/1993; leader of political wing Sheikh Mohamed Arafa

Eritrean Liberation Front (ELF) - successor to the Eritrean Liberation Movement founded in 1958; began armed resistance to Ethiopian rule in 1961; factional splits in 1970s led to formation of rival EPLF, with which ELF fought, and lost, two civil wars in the 1970s and 1980s; now broken into several factions - see principal factions **ELF-CC**, **ELF-NC**, **ELF-RC**

Eritrean Liberation Front-Central Command (ELF-CC) - founded 1982; Chairman Abdallah Idriss

Eritrean Liberation Front-National Council (ELF-NC) - leader Hassan Ali Assad

Eritrean Liberation Front-Revolutionary Council (ELF-RC) - established by former ELF members who remained outside EPLF; leader Ibrahim Mohamed Ali

Eritrean National Alliance (ENA) - opposition grouping reportedly based in Sudan

Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF) - formed in 1977 from Popular Liberation Forces which broke away from ELF in early 1970s; fought civil wars with ELF in the 1970s and 1980s as well as fighting against Ethiopia; took control of Eritrea in 1991 and formed first government of independent Eritrea in 1993; transformed into political organisation People's Front for Democracy and Justice (**PFDJ**) in 1994 - leader Issaias Afewerki, President of Eritrea

People's Front for Democracy and Justice (PFDJ) - formed 1994 from ruling **EPLF**; governing party of Eritrea 1994 to date; Chairman Issaias Afewerki, President of Eritrea, Secretary-General Alamin Mohammed

Popular Liberation Forces - breakaway faction from ELF which went on to form **EPLF** in 1977

[1][2]

ANNEX C

PROMINENT PEOPLE

Issaias Afewerki - Secretary-General of EPLF, Chairman of PFDJ and President of Eritrea June 1993 to present

Ibrahim Mohamed Ali - leader of ELF-RC

Sheikh Mohamed Arafa - leader of political wing of EIJ

Hassan Ali Assad - leader of ELF-NC

Adhanom Gebremariam - Former Ambassador to Nigeria member of G-15 group of dissenters

Mesfin Hagos - Former Defence Minister member of G-15 group of dissenters

Abdallah Idriss - Chairman of ELF-CC and leader of AENF grouping

Haile Menkorios - Former Ambassador to the United Nations member of G-15 group of dissenters

Alamin Mohammed - Secretary-General of PFDJ

Muhammad Sherifo - Former Local Government Minister arrested in September 2001 following involvement with G-15 group of dissenters

Petros Solomon - Former Foreign Minister arrested in September 2001 following involvement with G-15 group of dissenters

Hamid Turkey - leader of opposition DMFLE

Haile Woldensae - Former Trade and Industry Minister arrested in September 2001 following involvement with G-15 group of dissenters

[1][21f][21g]

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