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1. The Contribution of Private HEIs to Ethiopian Growth and Transformation (Prof. Derebssa Dufera) ................................................................. 1

2. A Quest for Higher Education Quality to Realize the Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP): Necessary and Actual Conditions (Dr. Firdissa Jebessa) ................................................. 12

3. Current State of Total Quality Management and Quality Assurance in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions (Serawit Handiso, Seid Mohammed and Yibeltal Ayalew) .................. 28

4. Causes and Consequences of Ethiopian Female Migrants to Middle East (Merid Adamu) ---- 50
The Contribution of Private HEIs to Ethiopian Growth and Transformation, by: Derebssa Dufera (Prof).

Introduction

Education has a critical role to play in any country’s development. But the role is particularly acute when it comes to developing countries like Ethiopia that are at the start up or take off stage of development. High-quality human capital is developed in high-quality education systems, with higher education providing the advanced skills. There is witness that the sustained prosperity of a nation depends upon the level and quality of its education system. Most developed countries in the west and Asian countries in the east have seen a substantial rise in the proportion of their young people receiving higher education and as a consequence experienced fast economic development.

There are many evidences that associate economic growth with education in general and with HE in particular. For all the sectors to develop adequately there must be the abundance of well-developed human capital to power them. Education is the manure which fertilizes human capital development. Higher education system is a hub of knowledge generation, knowledge reproduction, and dissemination in a given society. Higher education systems have also been moving from elite to mass to universal access, as Martin Trow pointed out in the 1960s. In North America, much of Europe, and a number of East Asian countries, academic systems approach universal access, with close to half the relevant age group attending some kind of postsecondary institution. In some countries, however, access remains limited.

Throughout Africa, access is limited to a tiny sector of the population. According to the World Bank 2015 Only 6 percent of young people in sub-Saharan Africa are enrolled in higher education institutions compared to the global average of 26 percent. Access is an increasingly important issue everywhere, as populations demand it and as developing economies require skilled personnel. Ethiopia has lagged behind in higher education; it has the lowest enrolment. Ethiopian higher education system remained very small for decades up to late 1990s. Repaid expansion after 1997 jumped from just two universities to 43 universities within 20 years. Gross Enrollment has also jumped from thousands to hundreds of thousands in relatively in short span of time.

Ethiopia: Higher education expansion
The government has radically expanded the numbers of higher education institutions from two public universities to 43 in just over a decade with another more universities to come soon.
Undergraduate enrolment has jumped from 447,693 in 2010/11 to 553,848 in 2012/13. By the end of 2019/20, the figure is expected to reach over 800,000 (GTP II, 2015). Equally, enrolment on postgraduate programmes is on a sharp upward trajectory. The figure has risen from 7,211 in 2007/08 to over 31,000 in 2012/13; and it is expected to triple in the coming five years.

According to the World Bank (2003), Ethiopia’s tertiary gross enrolment ratio stood at 0.8 percent in 2000 against 4 percent for Sub-Saharan Africa. The current Ethiopian higher education enrollment ration is estimated to be 9%.

Although the Ethiopian Government has done a lot in expanding access to education at all levels, due to fast population growth, enrollment ratios at the tertiary level is very low (9%) as compared to the developed contraries. The largest world’s proportion of population increase over the next five decades is projected to occur in Sub-Saharan Africa. Over 800 million people are expected to be added to this region. Countries such as Nigeria and Ethiopia are likely to rise quickly in the ranking of the largest contributors to population growth. Nigeria and Ethiopia, which were at the rank of 15th and 32nd in 1950 respectively, ranked 7th and 15th in 2002, and were projected to rank 5th and 9th in 2050. At the opposite side, the developed countries are expected to experience a population decline over the next 50 years.

**Table 1: The Top 10 populous Countries: 1950 2002 and 2050**

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**Table 2: Country Rank by Size of Annual Population growth: 1950, 2002 and 2050**
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In spite of the recent expansion, in the face of this population growth (over 100 million), half of which is young, the public sector alone is unlikely to:

- effectively respond to the rapidly expanding enrolment at the primary and secondary levels,
- meet the rising and urgent skills demands of Ethiopia’s expanding economy and
- Accommodate the rising population.

Given the limited resources, the government alone is unlikely to successfully bridge this gap by expanding access in a short period of time without additional resources from the private sector. There is also the pressure to accommodate the large secondary education output – which is likely to increase as Ethiopia intensifies its efforts to meet the education Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In addition to these efforts by the state to expand higher education, the private sector has also been expanding higher education. Private provision of tertiary education has been permitted by the government as a key component of this expansion strategy, and private tertiary institutions now host 25% of all tertiary students. However, there is considerable concern – both
public and private – about the place of private provision in Ethiopia’s higher education sector. These range from concerns about quality and the possible erosion of the effect of higher education to the job market. In any case, it is important to add that a wave of private provision of higher education is sweeping across the nation, a wave that Ethiopia is unlikely to escape. Unfortunately, not much is known about the contribution of the private higher education institutions to Ethiopian growth and transformation upon which policy can be based.

1. The Contribution of Private HEIs to Ethiopian GTP
Since the mid-1990s, the private provision sector has grown following reforms introduced by the 1994 Education and Training policy whose objectives were to increase access to educational opportunities with enhanced equity, quality and relevance. The establishment of PHEIs draws its background from the government policy which encourages the privatization of education. This policy is based on the recognition that a few public higher education institutions could not manage to satisfy the needs of all sectors of society that are in demand. Thus the purpose of this paper is to contribute to the emerging literature on contribution of the private higher education institutions to Ethiopia’s growth and transformation.

The study shows that the private higher education sector is making a demonstrable contribution to:

- improving access to higher education in Ethiopia and
- Providing intermediate-level technical manpower to the government and private sectors.

Private HEIs are making a substantial contribution both to the ministry’s expansion targets for higher education and to the government’s goal of economic growth. Currently, more than 100 private higher education institutions are licensed by both the regional and federal governments to offer education and training of different levels (Certificate, Diploma, and Bachelor and Masters Degrees) in Ethiopia.

These private institutions offer access to growing numbers of students who might otherwise not be admitted to tertiary education, enable a significant expansion of tertiary enrolments at very little additional cost to government.
The opening of these private higher education institutions has directly and indirectly contributed to the expansion of higher education and the development of human resources.

A major argument in support of the emergence of private universities in Ethiopia is that they contribute immensely to:

- Expanding access, thereby tremendously meeting the unmet demands for university education
- Produced needed human resources to serve some critical sectors of the economy.
- Many students have lower-level academic profile than those in public universities, but their outcome academic performance, in general, is not lower than their counterparts.
- Low drop-out rates and high graduation rates, highly motivated students and high employment rates.
- Changed the concept of university education from a supermarket model to a boutique model offering limited but well catered.
- Ensuring continuity in university work, as there have been no disruptions due to staff and student strikes
- Going beyond bare academics by dwelling on students’ personality development
- Eliminating cultism among students, thus ensuring peace on campuses.

The expansion of PHEIs led to mixed feelings among the Ethiopian public. While some laud the opportunities and advantages these new institutions bring, others are apprehensive that the quality of education might be compromised by an expansion motivated by monetary gain.

2. People’s Concerns about PHEIs in Ethiopia
While Ethiopia recognizes the contributions that PHEIs are making to education and development, many people, continue to raise issues about the quality, quantity and integrity of these contributions. Some of these issues pertain to the:

- Although the PHEIs claim that they are meeting the unmet demands for higher education, the total number they admit hardly make a dent in the large number seeking to go to higher education institutions.
- Quality and number of staff and the preponderance of part-time staff who moonlight.
- Lack of or limited infrastructure and equipment
➢ High cost of fees making private education unaffordable to a large segment of the population. It creates its own elitism.
➢ Academic interest and courses not necessarily motivated by national philosophy but private needs and financial considerations.
➢ Courses requiring less investment in terms of infrastructure and other facilities.
➢ Emphasis placed on teaching as the main function carried out by many of the private universities to the neglect of research.
➢ Contribution by private institutions to weakening public universities through staff attrition.
➢ Rapid expansion of the higher education system which reduces the quality of teaching, research and promotional criteria.
➢ emphasis has been on low-investment and employment-related programs
➢ fees are not affordable to average families
➢ the concentration of private universities advanced zone and towns of the country, they seem to create geo-political educational imbalance

3. How PHEIs Can Contribute to Ethiopian GTP: The Way Forward
We can make PHEIs better, more development oriented and more responsive to the needs of the society and productive partners of sustainable development. Several things need to be done by organizations, governments and the private higher institutions themselves. Ethiopian PHEIs must be entrepreneurial in outlook and must create and deliver something of value that other people want or need:

➢ at a price they are willing to pay and,
➢ in a way that satisfies the customer’s needs and expectations.

Charging very expensive fees by private higher education institutions in order to be seen as elitist can no more be justified in a new system which seeks to pursue sustainable development through meeting the massive unmet demands for higher education in Africa. HEIs have always three major missions: teaching, research and community service. But the community service and research missions are overlooked by private higher education institutions.
Private higher educational institutions in Ethiopia should not be allowed to follow their narrow interest which ultimately leads to profit making alone. They must genuinely engage the community to find lasting solutions to poverty eradication, people-centered and planet-sensitive agenda to address the universal challenges of the 21st century:

- promoting sustainable development,
- supporting job creating growth,
- protecting the environment and providing peace, security, justice, freedom and equity at all levels

Private higher education in Ethiopia must be radically transformed into one which seeks to promote:

- Accountability – being answerable for decisions and having meaningful mechanisms in place to ensure adherence to all applicable laws, regulations and standards.
- Transparency / openness – having clear roles, responsibilities and procedures for making decisions and exercising power, and act with integrity.
- Stewardship – enhancing the value of entrusted public assets.
- Efficiency – applying the best use of resources to further the aims of the organization.
- Leadership – promoting an entity-wide commitment to good governance starting from the top.

4. Conclusions
In a globalized 21st century technology-dependent world, Ethiopia requires a progressive education that lives on knowledge economy. Economic growth alone is not sufficient to ensure social justice, equity and sustained prosperity for all people. Private higher education in Ethiopia, like their public counterparts, must develop multi-skilled and multi-tasked educated persons who can contribute to Ethiopian GTP through research. The private universities academic community must pursue transformational agenda that create jobs, develop infrastructure, raise productivity, improve competitiveness and promote sustainable production and consumption.

It should tap into the potential presented by a larger, more educated and better skilled workforce, new technologies and innovation, and the expansion of national, regional and global markets. The only way to the future is for Ethiopia government to engage the private sector and willing
individuals and organizations in partnerships to finance higher education. A commitment to improving private higher education will give the next generation of leaders an opportunity to create a better future for themselves, their community, and their country. Finally, the private universities in Ethiopia should take responsibility for quality enhancement in higher education, both at the institutional and at the systems levels. It is the duty of Ethiopia government to support all universities, using whatever formula, with the enabling conditions, including policy and funding. Once these are done, private higher education institutions would well be on their way to contribute to sustainable development of Ethiopia.
A Quest for Higher Education Quality to Realize the Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP): Necessary and Actual Conditions. By: Firdissa Jebessa (PhD)

Abstract
Quality has become a survival strategy for countries in general and for us- working in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in particular. This is because nowadays we are living in a dynamic and competitive world characterized by interconnectedness, technology-dependent and decentralization with shared common sense of purpose. The case in turn demands people who are life-long learners, critical and creative thinkers, well informed, empowered, committed, motivated, knowledgeable, skillful, enlightened, inspired and innovative, possibly with quality and by quality. The purpose of this paper is, therefore, to investigate the environments of quality higher education for implementation of the Growth and Transformation Plan of Ethiopia (GTP), which is a medium term strategic framework outlining development pillars, implementation strategies, and resources. Data were collected by reviewing extant literatures, and by synthesizing and reflecting personal experiences. In doing so, the ideals and actual conditions of HE quality environments (including quality assurance, dimensions, and causes of quality failures and prevention mechanisms) have been addressed followed by concluding remarks.

1. Introduction
Inasmuch as universities are ideal places for harvesting the required quantity and quality workforces, research outputs and relevant services; they are expected to be frontiers of quality assurance. Quality assurance is a deliberate, systematic, unending and incessant process and action of guaranteeing the system to provide adequate confidence about the inputs, processes and outputs of the dimensions of the university functions. Above all, quality assurance within the university culture is doing the right things right. In the current day knowledge based economy and technological landscape; quality assurance has become a survival strategy for universities. Universities all over the world are pressurized to guarantee their quality. For Sallis (2002), quality is about always trying to do things right first time and every time, rather than occasionally checking if they have gone wrong.

By implication quality demands quality, and can be written as: \( Q_O = Q (I_1, I_2, I_3, \ldots I_n) + Q (P) \), where \( Q_O \) is the quality of the outputs of the university functions, \( Q (I_\ldots n) \) refers to the quality
of inputs, and Q (P) stands for the quality of the processes by the university in the effort to achieve their respective vision, mission, and goals (Firdissa, 2009: 33). University quality is, therefore, inherent within inputs, processes, outputs and impacts with people at the center (Figure 1).

Figure 1: People-Centered Input-Process-Output-Impact Quality Framework in a Context

Above all, quality people are at the center of quality assurance: empowered, committed, motivated, and trustworthy staff and leaders.

Cognizant of the role of universities for harvesting the required quantity and quality workforce for the emerging economy, Ethiopia has: 1) legislated quality issues; 2) put in place considerable publicity; and 3) formulated Growth and Transformation Plans (GTP I and currently GTP II). Equally, we are living in a dynamic and competitive world characterized by: 1) interconnectedness, 2) technology-dependent, and 3) decentralization with shared common sense of purpose. The local, national, and global aspirations and contexts demand universities to produce people who are: life-long learners, critical and creative thinkers, analyzers and solvers of problems, well informed, empowered, committed, and deeply motivated, knowledgeable, skillful, enlightened, inspired and innovative citizens, possibly with quality and by quality. This paper, therefore, outlines objectives, discussions and results on quality assurance and quality conceptions, required quality for GTP, causes for quality failures, and mechanisms of preventing the quality failures/faults followed by concluding remarks.
2. Objectives
The overall purpose of this paper is to investigate the environments of quality higher education for implementation of the Growth and Transformation Plan of Ethiopia (GTP). More specifically, the study intended to achieve the following specific objectives:

To fine-tune quality and quality assurance conceptions,

To identify the required HE quality for GTP,

To investigate causes for quality failures, and

To disclose mechanisms of preventing quality failures

To achieve these objectives, qualitative data have been collected and utilized by reviewing extant literatures supplemented by personal reflections.

3. Discussions and Results
1. Quality Assurance and Quality Conceptions

Quality assurance demands doing the right things right, knowledge sharing, empowerment, learning new ways of doing our business, changing our world and managing it, being alive, and seeing the head of the future. Defining quality in higher education, nonetheless, remains a challenging task. Whereas quality has become an everyday word today, it has no clear-cut conception and there is no consensus view on ‘What is meant by quality? Arguably, many people often talk of quality, but they hardly explicate what it really signifies. Particularly in our country, everybody talks of quality, but with little clear understanding of what it is all about. This could be due to different reasons that Firdissa (2013:29-30) indicated as presented here under.

1) Priority Differences: Different stakeholders prioritize the importance of different dimensions of quality according to their perspectives, purposes, cultures, and level of understanding. Different constituencies, thus, judge the quality of higher education in various ways. Equally, quality with its indicators is ‘determined by a wider set of criteria which reflects the broadening social composition of its review system; it becomes a composite, multidimensional concept (Furlong & Oacea, 2005, cited in Firdissa, 2006a).
2) **Perceptual Shift**: Our notion of quality assurance has been changing following the recently witnessed considerable HE expansion and globalization, which is at crossroad. Consequently, massive enrolment and diversity of students, instructors, and institutions add many layers of complexity to the existing practices of quality assurance efforts in our country. Compounding the situation is globalization, calling for internationalization, regional integration, and the ever-increasing mobility of students and scholars expanding the need for internationally recognized standards or benchmarks to help guide the comparison and evaluation of academic and professional qualifications (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009). As a response to these demands, Ethiopia has embarked on clustering its universities, harmonizing curricula, putting in place peer review mechanisms, and many more.

3) **Changes Overtime**: A Quality element change and evolve overtime with each passing decade and continues to adapt to changing contexts and exigencies. As Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009: taken from van Ginkel and Rodrigues Dias, 2007) indicate, at the 1998 UNESCO world conference, quality in higher education was viewed as:

“…a multidimensional concept, which should embrace all its functions, and activities; teaching and academic programs, research and scholarship, staffing, students, buildings, facilities, equipments, services to the community, and academic environment”

The same authors (citing in Vlasceanu, et al., 2007) further indicate that a decade later the definition provided in a UNESCO-CEPES report reflects quality in higher education as:

… a multi-dimensional, multi-level, and dynamic concept that relates to the contextual settings of an educational model, to the institutional mission and objectives, as well as to the specific standards within a given system, institution, program, or discipline.

4) **Antecedents within the Origin of Quality**: The concept and the concern for assuring and enhancing quality were developed in the business sector in the West for commercial purposes. As things started to change in the western societies as of the late 1980s, however, stakeholders demanded relevant and quality academic programs at Higher Education Institutions (HEIS). Following the demand, quality has become part and parcel of management system of HEIs-worldwide and also a recent concern in our country.
Equally, whereas higher education was introduced to our country in 1950, its expansion is a recent phenomenon. Higher education quality, therefore, is not yet well established as value of all concerned stakeholders and consequently less well conceptualized as it ought to be.

Due to these reasons and other features, the concept of quality remains fluid, illusive, complex, and slippery. It is, nonetheless, possible to synthesize some quality conceptions (Figure 2)

(Figure 2)

Figure 2: Quality Conceptions (source: Firdissa, 2013:31)

1) **Quality as Exceptional (High Standards):** performance that is exceptional; attainable only in limited circumstances. This can happen only when very able and brightest students are admitted to the system, mainly in world class universities.

2) **Quality as Consistency (Zero Defects/Errorless):** this deals with producing perfection through continuous improvement, among others, by adopting Total Quality Management (TQM) to create a philosophy about work, people and human relationships built around shared values. This definition implies fulfilling ideal standards so entails ideal environment in which all achievements can be measured and verified. This aligns with positivist paradigm which espouses for the belief that the world is definable, fixable, discoverable, and describable.

3) **Quality as Value for money (Return on Investment, Accountability/Efficiency):** this is to see quality as the ability to provide value for resources invested and to be publicly accountable for the ‘bucks’ and for the ‘bangs’. It goes with the types of learners joining our universities and the concerns of tax payers, funding agencies and governments. This conception may be popular
with today’s changing landscape of higher education and the competitive climates for scarce resources, particularly in countries like ours.

4) **Quality as Transformative (as Enhancement or Improvement, an Ongoing Process that Includes Empowerment and Enhancement of Satisfaction):** today the world demands adaptive knowledge, skills and attitudes. This calls for enhancing the readiness and capability of HEIs to transform students on an on-going basis and add value to their knowledge and personal development. This aligns with current concerns for higher education for the masses, where emphasis is more on value adding per se rather than value adding from an already high level.

5) **Quality as Fitness for purpose (Fitting Customer Specifications, Needs, and Priorities):** this sees quality as fulfilling the purposes or missions of all parties involved in and affected by the program and/or the services we render.

6) **Quality as Fitness of Purpose:** this deals with doing the right things (instrumental) setting and implementing appropriate purpose to bring change and betterment in the practices and for transforming the learners for the world of life, work, and competition.

7) **Quality as Culture:** These deals with a supportive set of shared, accepted, and integrated systems (embedded), patterns of quality, an attitude and set of group values, taken-for-granted practices, and a specific aspect of organizational culture that guide how improvements are made to everyday working practices and consequent outputs. It serves as social glue to hold an organization together’ being made up of many variables—modes of interaction, assumptions, rituals, membership, structures, control mechanisms, training, educational sessions and so on’. In the spirit of quality culture, it is the responsibility of each unit to ensure the quality of their own work. The emphasis is on ensuring that things are ‘done right first time’. (Firdissa, 2013:31-32, citing Vlăsceanu, Grünberg and Pârlea, 2004; Harvey and Green, 1993)

For our purpose, we shall view quality assurance as a process where key elements of higher education are measured; and performance, standards, norms, accreditation, benchmarks, outcomes, and accountability overlap to form the foundation of the quality culture emerging in higher education everywhere (Adelman, 2009, cited in Firdissa, 2013:32). Inherently, therefore, the conceptions of quality as ‘fitness for purpose’ and ‘fitness of purpose’ could be acceptable.
The former conception is more of utilitarian and conformance to the requirements, priorities and needs of our customers. In this sense, we need to strive to fulfill the utmost needs of the different level stakeholders of our services. Implied within the latter conception is ‘what the purpose itself needs to be’ for transforming the learners for the world of life, work, and competition.

Whatever conceptions for quality we espouse, academic standards (the level of achievement that a learner has to reach to gain academic award) need to be maintained if we want to sustain our credibility as learning institutions. If not, we may mislay the game for the clients consider us venders not producers of the required knowledge, skills and competence (Firdissa, 2009).

2. Required HE Quality for GTP

GTP is a medium term strategic framework for five rolling years (the 1st was 2010/11-2014/15, and the 2nd is 2015/16-2019/20). Basically, GTP targets a middle income country, and attain global targets, quality, relevance and efficiency with the purpose to produce the required workforce, prioritizes science and technology; competitiveness, competency, equality, and quality.

GTPII has a general objective of sustaining the accelerated growth and establish a spring board for economic structural transformation and thereby realizing the national vision of becoming a lower middle-income country by 2025 (NPC, 2016:80). As the same source (pp.80-81) indicates, GTP II has set out the following specific objectives:

i) Achieve an annual average real Gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate of 11 percent within a stable macroeconomic environment and thereby contribute towards the realization of Ethiopia’s vision of becoming a lower middle income country by 2025, while pursuing comprehensive measures towards narrowing the saving-investment gap and bridging the widening trade deficit.

ii) Develop the domestic engineering and fabrication capacity and improve productivity, quality, and competitiveness of the domestic productive sectors (agriculture and manufacturing industries) to speed up structural transformation;

iii) Further solidify the on-going public mobilization and organized participation to ensure the public become both owners and beneficiaries from development outcomes.
iv) Deepen the hegemony of developmental political economy by strengthening a stable democratic developmental state.

Moreover, GTP II sets out some pillar strategies that are built on that of GTP I complemented by additional pillar strategies that serve as foundation for sectorial plans. Therefore, in order to achieve the objectives of GTP II, the following pillar strategies have been pursued.

i) Sustain the rapid, broad based and equitable economic growth and development witnessed during the last decade;

ii) Increase the productive capacity and efficiency to reach the economy’s production possibility frontier through concurrently improving quality, productivity and competitiveness of productive sectors (agriculture and manufacturing industries);

iii) Speed up and catalyze transformation of the domestic private sector and render them a capable development force;

iv) Build the capacity of the domestic construction industry, bridge critical infrastructure gaps with particular focus on ensuring the quality of infrastructure services through strengthening the implementation capacity of the construction sector;

v) Properly manage and administer the on-going rapid urbanization to unlock its potential for sustaining growth and structural transformation of the economy;

vi) Accelerate human development and technological capacity building and ensure its sustainability;

vii) Establish democratic and developmental good governance through enhancing implementation capacity of the public sector and mobilization of public participation;

viii) Promote women and youth empowerment, ensure their participation in the development process and enable them equitably benefit from the outcomes of development;

ix) Build climate resilient green economy (Ibid, P.81).

Inherent within the GTP II objectives and pillar strategies, is national development, which is the ability of the country to improve the social welfare of its citizens. National development is a
result of many conditions one of which is qualified labor force with appropriate knowledge, skills, attitudes, disciplines, commitment, motivation, and values all of which result from quality education and training. By implication, achievement of GTP II requires some quality dimensions as illustrated in Figure 3 below.

![REQUIRED HE QUALITY DIMENSIONS FOR GTP?](image)

- (In) visible hands, ad hoc decisions, and institutional fatigues (see Figure 4 below), Competence, as a dimension of quality, deals with staff qualifications, theoretical, practical and up to date expertise, communication skills, and proficiency in medium of instruction.
- Tangibles refer to sufficiency, modernity and ease of access of learning and teaching facilities, appealing environment, and support services.
- Attitude deals with responsiveness to and understanding students’ needs, respecting diversity, Willingness to help, Availability for guidance and advice, giving personal attention, Emotional sets, courtesy, and disposition.
- Content deals with relevance, effectiveness and completeness of curriculum to the current and future lives accommodating basic competencies (specific, general and transferable).
- Delivery deals with Effectiveness of Sequencing, presentation, supporting students, and feedback to and from students.
- Reliability refers to Trustworthiness, Giving valid award, Keeping promises that match to the goals, competencies, and Handling complaints, solving problems.
• Assessment deals with the Competencies, feedback, continuous, Consistency and Fairness, and Level of difficulties (Firdissa, 2013).

3. Causes for Quality Failures

Field observations, readings and practices show that quality at our universities remains searching aback gold in a dark room! We occasionally witness quality failures resulting from systemic and/or unit level causes. In the first place, our universalities are in a state of “hopeless pride” due to status quo, quantitative targets/gains, instability/busy

![Diagram of Causes for Quality Failures](image)

Figure 4: Causes for quality Failures

Hopeless pride has resulted from petite strategic moves for authentic quality. Whereas the quality intents and efforts at institutional and at national levels are appreciated, they are more of descriptive, not strategic, they barely show how to design quality management systems appealing to the contexts, conditions and situations. As a result, plea, applaud, emphasis and resources are geared towards quantitative gains-resulting in vain satisfactions (Firdissa, 2012).
Other than these, there are deficiencies on how to set up quality assurance procedures. Many of the efforts hardly demarcate decisions whether: 1) outcome-orientated or process-orientated; 2) internal or external; 3) qualitative or quantitative? 4) evaluated against self-defined criteria or against a model set by a regulatory agency like Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) in Ethiopian context; and 5) decision on the level of utilization of information collected in the effort to assure quality.

Leadership commitment to quality initiatives is also questionable in many of our universities. Studies show that 80% of quality initiatives fail in the first two years, mainly because of lack of senior management backing and commitment. Such management environment also fails to measure and rectify costs of failure, which results in loss of opportunities. This is mainly because; managers in non-Total Quality Management (TQM) organizations spend 30% of their time in dealing with systems failure, complaints- Fire- fighting (Sallis, 2002).

Besides low leadership commitment, deficiencies in policies, systems failure, inability to delegate, appointment of staff who do not share the culture and philosophy of the specific institute; wrong people at the wrong level/place; inappropriate actions to correct faults; and blame games are some of the reasons for early quality failures (Ibid). As Sallis (2002:39) indicates it is “teachers who are seen as the scapegoats for failures in the education system”. Moreover, fearful organizational culture causes quality failure resulting in low/no shared values, lack of constancy of purpose, short-term thinking, job-hopping, visible/invisible figures, hopeless satisfaction, and mistrustful environment.

The causes can be either common that can only be solved by making changes to the institution’s policies, systems, processes, procedures; or special or assignable causes that can be put right without the upheaval of a new policy or redesigning/altering the system, but by the management (with the staff). Other than these, fragility of quality improvement process due to the fluid, illusive, complex, and slippery nature of quality in HE resulting from priority differences, perceptual shift, changes overtime, and antecedents on quality origin (Firdissa, 2013).

Worsening the effects of the causes for quality failures are HEIs’ low or no readiness for pressures such as: accelerated changes in business environment, increased competition,
universality of business, technological changes, scarcity of resources, shift from industrialized to knowledge–based societies, instability in the markets, and visible/invisible hands.

Mechanisms of Preventing the Quality failures/faults

One may ask: Can the quality failures be reversible? The answer is, definitely, yes, but it calls for doing the right things right rather than trying to do everything right.

![Figure 5: Reversibility of Quality Failures (Firdissa, 2015)](image)

As can be seen from Figure 5 the quality failures is reversible by way of: 1) designing a quality system linked to the needs and expectations of faculty, students and stakeholders; 2) defining processes and responsibilities needed to attain quality assurance systematic installation; and 3) making quality assurance activities part of the budget. Basically, putting the systems right often means putting the quality right (Sallis, 2002, Firdissa, 2015).

As HEIs exist to serve customers, their all parts and systems must dovetail, addressing critical success factors, and considering necessary and sufficient conditions for designing effective quality system. In systemic sense, a university has to be treated in a holistic manner and consideration has to be given to the effect of changes on all the other parts. It also requires considering national bylaws, directives; institutional mandates and functions. Ultimately, all gain if the system is managed for the benefit of all. Specifically, addressing requirements and needs to the level of satisfaction can be seen in terms of the interests of governments, the key players; citizens who pay taxes; future employers of graduates; students and their parents; teachers,
professionals, leaders who have to play multiple roles in assuring continuous improvement, in fulfilling accountability and compliance; and other educational establishments or organizations. The case also calls for defining why the university as an institution exists (mission); demarcating what it can do to achieve its long term view (vision); fine-tuning institutional culture and core priorities and beliefs that are shared among its stakeholders (values), and looking the future in a systematic manner (strategic planning)-or orchestrated by leaders (Firdissa, 2008).

This is because leaders are ideal figures for quality assurance. They should feel that quality improvement is too important to leave to others, beyond their ownership. They should feel that unless they do the right things right, there is little that anyone else can do and drive quality. It is when leaders take ownership of quality with integrity and honesty that trust can be built and ownership, vision and mission are shared among the university community.

Leaders are also catalysts to put in place and make functional continuous monitoring, support, evaluation, follow up and action as part of the processes of quality assurance (internally and externally). This is to see how the institution is meeting requirements of its customers, and is achieving its strategic mission and goals. Continuous monitoring, support, evaluation, and follow up take place at three levels: 1) immediate: daily checking, 2) short-term: structured and specific to ensure that things that need to be put right are corrected, and 3) long-term: achieving strategic goals, mainly institution-led evaluation, large- scale and resulting in cyclical steps and processes (see Figure 6, below)
Figure 6: Cyclical steps in quality improvement program

These cyclical steps imply defining processes and responsibilities to attain sustainable quality assurance systematic installation augmented by institutional change of culture and structural alignment delineating responsibilities. The structure should be flat, showing clear roles, unit optimization, vertical and horizontal alignments, pragmatic command for each process, and line of accountability.

Figure 7: Structural Alignment of Quality Assurance Responsibilities
Implied within the effort of structural alignment of quality assurance responsibilities is making quality assurance activities part of the budget. This in turn, serves both as preventive and remedy from failures. Though student centeredness is the slogan of the day, it is also true that educational success is very often resource driven (Sallis, 2002).

Overall, realization of the Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) calls for consideration of the necessary and sufficient conditions. It is, therefore, essential to: 1) prioritize quality over quantity, 2) empower quality team and staff with resources, 3) make quality issues part of strategic role, 4) link budgeting with the effectiveness and efficiency, and 5) link budgets to case-loading- giving the teaching/academic units a leeway to decide.

In Conclusion, the actual conditions at our HEIs show that there are quality failures resulting from systemic and/or unit level causes. All should bear in mind and act accordingly that success in quality assurance for the realization of GTP depends on:

1. authentic and effective systems, procedures, commitments, trustworthy and empowering environment;
2. emphasizing critical success factors;
3. putting up with honest mistakes;
4. Properly handling complaints: seeing, rectifying, creating feedback loop.
5. aligning quality system to mission, vision, values and goals;
6. focusing on learning and quality prevention, not cure; and
7. Going beyond the comfort zones of quantitative reporting-all of which are owned through and by leadership and staff!

A Quest for Quality, therefore, Demands Quality!

4. References


Current State of Total Quality Management and Quality Assurance in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract

Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions (EHEIs), when observed from the very essence of quality assurance (QA) and Total Quality Management (TQM) principles, are in a very terrible loop of spurious performance. This paper examines the quality management practices of thirty-three public and five private universities from the perspective of Quality assurance (QA) and the stakeholders’ point of views. The research focused on how quality management is practiced on educational input and processes, and the quality of the output of students. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected by means of questionnaires and interviews. More than six hundred randomly selected respondents filled the semi-structured questionnaires. Systematically selected stakeholders, education managers, student union representatives, senior instructors, and senior students were interviewed. The finding indicated that the existing educational leadership contradicts the TQM and QA principles. Educational quality planning process is not participatory. Merit-based, inclusive empowerment of employees is a far cry from veracity. The leadership is not well acquainted with TQM/QA principles, lack commitment to share the vision, policies and strategies to their employees. Evidence-based service delivery emanating from stakeholders’ need is missing. Best practices are hardly tested on small settings before scaling it up for a wider application. Superficial performance of students basing mainly on CGPA and internship results doesn’t show the true picture of students’ achievements when compared with their lower achievements in national exit exam and graduate assistants’ tests. Customers’ needs, performance tracking, teaching methodologies and taking actions influence the students’ performance in Ethiopian universities. Poor teachers’ motivation, lack of creativity, and lack of students’ participation along with inadequate number of qualified and committed teachers manifested in pretended practices of quality assurances and the craving of the administrations for
achievement, but fails in acquiring qualified and committed teachers, providing sufficient and relevant teaching materials, mobilizing all the stakeholders toward the achievement of the quality objectives. Thus, the higher education institutions must revisit the traditional “quantity-based” practice replace it with the appropriate quality assurance and total quality management principles and practices.

Key Words: - Quality, Quality Assurance, Total Quality Management, Universities

1. INTRODUCTION
Total quality management and Quality assurance in Ethiopian higher education Institution (EHEIs) has received considerable attention from almost everyone - the public, the government, stakeholders, employers of graduates, and private institutions. At this age of globalization when international organizations demand world-class standards, the universities are under pressure to produce graduates who are up to these standards. One way of looking at the question of quality, especially of public institutions, is to ask whether they are ‘fit for purpose’. The challenges are quite daunting and demand a clear, systematic analysis of the objectives that have to be met to ensure the right solution for the right outcomes. Higher education, undoubtedly, is a source of great potential for the socio-economic development of a country like Ethiopia (Hayward, 2009).

In addition to the poor enrollments at all education levels, poor quality of teaching and high failure rate was other grave factors that underscored the need for reforms. In universities throughout the country, infrastructure is weak, laboratories are not optimized and quality of education still needs improvement (Mulu, 2012). Emphasizing to improve the higher education system in public and private sector, the Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) and Higher Education Strategy Center (HESC) were established. It took various measures to ensure quality and there was a substantial increase in the number of institutions of higher education. The number of universities in Ethiopia has increased from 2 in 1990 to 35 in 2015 (ESC, 2014). It is observed that quality assurance practices are not adopted in its true spirit. These institutions like that of other countries throughout the world are striving hard to satisfy the stakeholders. It has been observed throughout the country that efforts are needed to implement quality through quality strategies in HEIs.
The basis of this study is the status and challenges of TQM/QA practices in Ethiopian higher education institutions. The first reason is that quality assurance is not being fully implemented in factual stamina. There is still ongoing concern about the implementation of the QA across universities. Secondly, the research on higher education on quality assurance is far from adequate (Mulu, 2012; Amare, 2007). A review of some of the books written in Ethiopian higher education (Teshome, 1990; Damtew and Albatch, 2003; Teshome, 2007; Amare, 2007) had limited focus on quality assurance practices related to learning. This implies that there is still a huge research gap in the topics of impacts of quality assurance. Third, there is an environmental change in the Ethiopian higher education landscape. Fourthly, none of the researchers saw the outcomes of QA practices in Ethiopian higher education. Not any of the stakeholders of the university graduates had been studied in terms of their satisfaction. The fifth reason is that there are no well documented materials in reference to the foremost quality enhancement procedures that needed to be acted upon the implementation of the quality assurance. Mulu (2012) had studied on the issue in a comprehensive way. However, the research samples had only limited to three public universities. Besides, the study did not consider the impact of conducting the quality assurance program. Many scholars had done a considerable review on quality (Firehiwot Amsalu, 2014; Wiliam Saint, 2004; Rekik Aemiro, 2015; Abebaw et al., 2012; Michaela Martin, et al., 2006; Teshome, 2006; HERQA,2006, Rediet Tesfaye, 2014; Wakgari and Ranjan, 2012; Materu, 2007; Abebe, 2015) . Nevertheless these papers never devise an in-depth study of the impacts of the QA. Such issues necessitate the undertaking of the study such this, which helps to fill the research gaps on quality assurance practices in the Ethiopian university.

Quality in higher education is a much more complicated term than a product and a service quality in the general business arena. The academic organizations have unique characteristics that make their functioning elusive and very different from other organizations. Defining concept of quality in the context of higher education, therefore, becomes so problematic and requires more constructive approaches. This study criticizes the higher education from total quality management (TQM), quality assurance (QA) practices, quality award and stakeholders’ perceptions of higher education institutions in Ethiopia (EHEIs).

1.2. Objectives of the Study

1.2.1 General Objective
This research was meant to explore the status and challenges of implementations of total quality management (TQM) and quality assurance (QA) practices on the institutional performance in the context of higher education in Ethiopia.

1.2.2 Specific Objectives

- To assess the extent to which total quality management (TQM) and quality assurance (QA) programs are being implemented in Ethiopian HEIs
- To study the outcomes of the total quality management (TQM) and quality assurance (QA) system in Ethiopian HEIs
- To evaluate the challenges that impedes total quality management (TQM), quality assurance (QA) practices in Ethiopian HEIs

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Meanings and Concepts of Quality

The question of what is “quality” and “quality assurance” had been asked and answered in a philosophical sphere globally over the decades. However, the concepts “quality” and “quality assurance” are broadly perceived.

“Quality, like “freedom” or “justice”, is an elusive concept, instinctively understood but difficult to articulate. In searching for a working definition of concept, Garvin (1988) classified the various definitions of quality arising from scholars in four disciplines (philosophy, economics, marketing, and operations management) into the following five major approaches: Transcendent definitions, Product-based definitions, User-based definitions, Manufacturing-based definitions, and Value-based definitions. These definitions define quality in relation to costs and prices. Quality is perceived as providing good value for costs.(Lagrosen,et al., 2004).Harvey and Green (1993) provided different ways of thinking about inter related concepts of quality in which quality is viewed in terms of exceptionality, as perfection or consistency, as fitness for purpose, as value for money(Lomas, 2002), as transformative process of change from one state to another.

Quality may be linked to fitness for purpose concept as they look for the competencies of the graduates (Lagrosen et al., 2004). As to Sarrico, et al (2010), the multidimensionality of quality in higher education should be combined with the demands put forward by students, universities
and society each time one intends to assess quality. Skolnik (2010) pointed out that the different viewpoints of quality were its political dimensions. Higher education institution is a dynamic system, encompassing an environment that inputs some form of energy to the system which under goes transformative process to give some outputs into the environment, and must be seen in its own uniqueness and totality for quality management (Mishra, 2007; Mukhopadhyay, 2005). Quality may thus take different, sometimes conflicting, meanings depending on stakeholders’ interest, its references, attributes; and the historical period (Vlăsceanu, Grünberg and Pârlea, 2004).

2.2 Quality Assurance in Higher Education

Quality assurance is the mechanism put in place to guarantee that the education is “fit for purpose” i.e., is good. It is used in a general sense to include audit, evaluation, accreditation, and other review processes and elements (Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette, 2006). On top of that, Belawati and Zuhairi (2007) contend that quality assurance has been defined as “systematic management and assessment procedures adopted by higher education institutions and systems in order to monitor performance against objectives, and to ensure achievement of quality outputs and quality improvements”. It facilitates recognition of the standards of awards, serves public account-ability purposes, helps inform student choice, contributes to improved teaching-learning and administrative processes, and helps disseminate best practices with the goal of leading to overall improvement of higher education systems. In general, the term quality assurance refers to a process of defining and fulfilling a set of quality standards consistently and continuously with the goal of satisfying all consumers, producers, and the other stakeholders (Belawati and Zuhairi, 2007). It concerns, protocols and practices– it appears to be context specific. Watty (2006) stated that quality in higher education is about efficiency, high standards, excellence, value for money, fitness for purpose and/or stakeholder focused. Each approach of viewing quality in higher education has advantages and disadvantages, being more or less suitable for a specific period of time and institutional or national context.

2.3. 'Total Quality Management (TQM) and Ethiopia Quality Awards

Total Quality Management (TQM) is about leadership development, employee commitment, stakeholder satisfaction, customer-focused service delivery and continuous improvement.
Different people (e.g. Daniel and Fasika, 2003) consider TQM as a program, a process, the Deming’s approach, employee empowerment and teamwork techniques, etc. However, TQM is a management philosophy for achieving highest standards in customer satisfaction and quality of work at lowest cost through employee participation that emphasizes to meet external and internal customers' needs and expectations and the importance of doing things right first time. Oakland (1995) defined it as: "An approach to improving the competitiveness, effectiveness, and flexibility of a whole organization. It is essentially a way of planning, organizing and understanding each activity, and depends on each individual at each level." A good deal of multi-national companies world-wide have implemented TQM as a way of maximizing customer satisfaction, gaining better product quality, and obtaining higher productivity through the systematic removal of waste and the-reduction of nonproductive activities. Many companies in developing countries want to follow suit, but they do not know how to implement TQM, or which factors/activities are important and in most cases regard it only as quality circle activities (Madu, 1997).

3. METHODOLOGY
This study employed a mixed methods design based on the premise that total quality management and quality assurance in higher education is a complex and multifaceted phenomena on that involves the perspectives of different actors and requires the collection and analysis of data drawn from different sources using different methods. The quantitative approach was used to generate and analyze data on respondents’ knowledge and experience about quality assurance, where as the qualitative approach was employed to get deeper explanations about the reasons and possible factors underlie existing quality assurance practices. Thirteen one public and Five private universities were included in this study. Questionnaires, interviews, documents and a review of the scholarly literature were employed to gather data for this study. SPSS 20 was used to analyze the quantitative data.
4. RESULT
4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the respondents

Respondents selected for the questionnaire comprised of 1625 students, 78 mid and low level managers, 12 top managements, 147 teachers. Different items were prepared and distributed. They were selected from the randomly selected departments/programs in each generation and band.

4.2. Status and challenges of Total Quality Management

4.2.1. University Leaderships’ Role in Total Quality Management

In most institutions, the university top management has no adequate knowledge about TQM/QA (Quality Assurance) and its implementation. They don’t actively participate in TQM/QA and supports the improvement process. Their awareness on quality related concepts, new work environment and new skills in the implementation of TQM are very low. The management barely encourages employee involvement in TQM and rarely empowers employees to solve quality problems. On top of that, the university top management often allocates inadequate resources on education & training of academic and administrative employees on the TQM. Discussions on quality-related issues and TQM/QA were quite low in their management
meetings. The top management focuses less on how to improve the performance of students and employees apart from relying on financial criteria. On the other hand, the leadership pursues long-term stable performance instead of short term temporary solutions. The leadership was unable to properly design & document short term & long term planning. There is no adequate monitoring system for all the academic activities in the university. The management is not providing all the necessary resources required to improve the quality of education in the university. Thus, the management failed to formally assesses the requirement of market and other stakeholders before launching any program.

4.2.2. Vision

Most universities have clear written vision statement. However, the vision is not widely known and shared by the staff. In addition, their vision was not in such a way to effectively encourage their staff to improve the performance of their students and their institutions. Academic and administrative processes in most universities are not well aligned with their vision. More importantly, the majority of the universities lacked well defined academic and administrative processes and performance measures as well as policies. Employees from different levels, on the other hand, are not adequately involved in developing the policies and plans.

4.2.3. Measurement and Evaluation

In reality, only few universities regularly audit their practices according to policies and strategies. Some universities benchmark their academic and administrative processes with other institutions’ best practices. They lacked standard performance measures (e.g. number of publications, course evaluations, absenteeism, job satisfaction) to evaluate the performance of the institution and TQM/QA implementation. Standard performance measures are not used to evaluate the performance of university's top management in most universities. Nevertheless, the standard performance measures are not being used to evaluate the performance of academic units such as colleges, institutes and departments. The standard performance measures are not used to evaluate the performance of faculty members. In most cases, the aim of the evaluation is not for improvement, it’s just for criticism. Thus the findings implied that the university is not in a good statue when it comes to measurement and evaluation.
4.2.4. Process control and Improvement

The study participants clearly articulated that the university couldn’t meet the expectations of their students and employees. With all the differences among university generations and public and private universities, they have modern facilities (e.g. laboratories, library, computers, internet) to enhance the effectiveness of education. Facilities of university (e.g. classrooms, laboratories, computers, heating systems and air conditioners) are not, however, maintained in good condition according to periodic maintenance plans. The processes are not designed to be “fool proof” to minimize the source of error. Inopportune, the universities hardly collect statistical data (e.g. error rates on student records, course attendances, employee turnover rates) and fail to evaluate them to control and improve the processes. Therefore, the finding showed that the universities’ process control and improvements are in serious trouble for ensuring TQM.

4.2.5. Program design

Students' requirements are not thoroughly considered in the design of the curriculum. This is the case in almost all universities. The experienced academicians' suggestions are not thoroughly considered in the design of curriculum, as relationships are being basis for participation. The needs and suggestions from the business world are not thoroughly considered in the design of curriculum and new academic program. Most of all, the curriculum and academic programs are not evaluated and updated annually. Education facilities (e.g. laboratories & hardware) and resources (e.g. Finance and human resources) are not considered in the development and improvement of the curriculum and programs. This implies that there are big challenges in program design.

4.2.6. Quality system improvement

Many leaders inferred that TQM/QA in the universities is continuously improved. However, the university is not committed to TQM/QA to establish the quality system to a level to be certified by international standard organization, if not by HERQA. The universities have no clear, workable quality manual, quality system documents and working instructions. Thus, from system improvement perspectives, universities are not yet up to the desired position.
4.2.7. Employee involvement

The respondents confirm that the university has cross-functional team and supports team-work. As a result of quality efforts in universities, coordination and collaboration among their employees has been enhanced. Their employees, however, are not actively involved in TQM-related activities. The universities have an established suggestion system, though not functioning well, to improve the process by the employees. Most admit that employees' suggestions are not carefully evaluated and implemented, obviously, if accepted. Employees are not very committed to the success of their universities and their quality. The findings clearly indicated that the employees of the universities, be it academic and administrative, are not adequately involved in quality enhancement endeavors.

4.2.8. Recognition and reward

Total quality management embarks on motivated employees that are encouraged to contribute more than their immediate turfs. Thus, recognition and reward is exceedingly essential. The universities in most cases lacked a reward program to recognize employee TQM/QA efforts and their participation to the activities related to the university's mission. Above all, the universities have no clear procedures for employees' rewards and failed to apply them transparently.

4.2.9. Education and training

Human needs are unlimited. Even this is apparent in education. That’s why life-long learning becomes the central concern of the current education world. However, the universities occasionally encourage education and training activities of their employees for academic excellence. Special training for work-related skills is not provided to all employees. The university unable to organize training on TQM/QA for employees and encourages employees to participate. Financial resources are available for employee’s education and training in the university, however, they are not efficiently utilized for their intended purposes. Employees, as the organizations most valuable and long-term resources, are not considered worthy of receiving the necessary education and training in order to achieve the university's vision. Hence, the universities are not in a good shape from the perspectives of training on TQM.
4.2.10. Student focus

One major concern of the public these days is that student-centeredness of the teaching learning in higher education institutions of Ethiopia. The university by no means collects students’ academic complaints and fails to evaluate them carefully. Most universities just overlooked to conduct a course-evaluation survey for every course taught in each semester regularly. Conversely, they support the extra-curricular activities for students. But nearly all universities are short of organized efforts on continuous education of their students for their business-life and personal development after graduation. Thus, the extents of student-focus actions are not yet up to the expected level.

4.2.11. Other stakeholders’ focus

Stakeholders of the higher education institutions such as the community, the employers, the researchers and scholars, the international community and parents are raising the issues quality and transparency of the universities. Most of the interviewees argued that the university collects employee complaints and evaluates them carefully. They by no means take into consideration the changing needs of the business world. The universities barely conduct surveys on job satisfaction of the employees. Universities failed to carry out organized efforts to understand the expectation of industry regarding their graduates. Thus, they don’t follow up the career path of their graduates. The universities bungled to undertake organized efforts to identify the academic and administrative needs of their employees. Therefore, the universities are lagging behind in terms of stakeholders’ focus.

4.3. Internal Quality Assurance

4.3.1. Policy

The overall result showed that there are differences among the managements of different generations on the presence of clear policy (Mn ± SD = 3.12 ± 0.39, Md= 3.0), strategy (Mn ± SD = 3.00 ± 0.89, Md= 3.0) on internal quality assurance (IQA) and stake holders’ roles (Mn± SD = 3.04 ± 0.77, Md= 3.0).

Table 1. Mean mode and standard deviations of different items in different university generations
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<th>ITEM</th>
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The preponderance of top managers from first generation reflected that the institution has a clear policy (Mn = 3.00 and Md = 3.0) and strategy (Mn± SD = 3.89 ± 1.17, Md = 3.0) on IQA, while considerable number of second generation said that there is clear policy (Mn± SD = 3.8 ± 0.43, Md = 3.0) and strategy (Mn± SD = 3.4 ± 0.33, Md= 3.0) of IQA.

4.3.2. Monitoring

The major indicators of monitoring are student evaluation, student progress system, structural feedback from the labor market (employers), and structural feedback from the alumni. The perceptions of the first (Mn± SD = 3.22 ± 1.48, Md = 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.40 ± 0.33, Md = 3.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.83 ± 1.13, Md = 3.0) generation top level managements exposed that there is student evaluation in appropriate manner.

Student progress system is one of the most important means of measuring monitoring than student evaluation as the main intention of quality assurance is progress. Most of the managers of the first (Mn± SD = 3.37 ± 1.22, Md = 4.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.8 ± 0.43, Md = 3.0) and third (Mn± 3.08± 1.00, Md = 4.0) generation top level managements said that there is a high student progress system in the university. Most managers of the first (Mn± 3.33± 1.22, Md = 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.40 ± 0.89, Md = 4.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.0 ± 0.74, Md =3.0) generation said that there is a strong structural feedback from the labor market (employers). Structural feedback from the alumni is high, as indicated by most of the managers of the first (Mn± SD = 3.33 ± 1.01, Md= 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.0 ± 0.0, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.83± 0.72, Md = 3.0) generations.

4.3.3. Periodic Review of the Core Activities

One of the key attributes of a higher education institute is the presence of a periodic review for the core activities (education, research and the contribution to society and the community). There was a significant variation among the different generations and generations of universities on the
existence of a periodic review of the core activities. It was found that there was periodic review of teaching/learning. Most managers of the first (Mn± SD = 3.44± 1.33, Md= 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.0± 0.71, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.37± 1.07, Md= 3.0) generations said that there is a periodic review of research. With respect to research, most managers of the first (Mn± SD = 3.33± 1.33, Md= 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.40± 0.33, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.83± 1.13, Md= 7.0) generations said that there is strong periodic research review. A good number managers of the first (Mn± SD = 3.33± 1.33, Md= 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.0± 0.71, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.37± 1.07, Md= 3.0) generations said that there is a strong, periodic review of the contribution to the society and the community. Overall, the review on teaching (Mn± SD = 3.33± 1.09, Md= 3.0), research (Mn± SD = 3.92± 1.13, Md= 3.0) and community service (Mn± SD = 3.88± 1.11, Md= 3.0) was strong.

4.3.4. Quality assurance of the student assessment

The presence of sound criteria for assessments, assessment procedures, regulations to assure the quality of assessment, and appeals procedures are the major issues to address the quality assurance of the student assessment. The majority of the first (Mn± SD = 3.33± 1.33, Md= 3.0), second (Mn± SD = 3.80 ± 0.43, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn± SD = 3.30±1.17, Md= 3.0) university generations reflected that the institution has a criteria for assessment, while considerable number of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.78±0.97, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.0± 0.71, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn ± SD = 3.33± 0.89, Md= 3.0) generations of them said that there is assessment procedures. On the other hand, the cumulative mean of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.44±0.73, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.20±0.43, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn ± SD = 3.08±0.31, Md= 3.0) generations mid level management of generation said that there are regulations to assure the quality of assessment. Nevertheless, of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.89±0.3, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.0± 0.71, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn ± SD = 3.0± 0.3, Md= 3.0) university generations management appeal procedures.

4.3.5. Quality Assurance of staff

This study tried to systematically evaluate the universities’ staff appointment procedures, staff appraisal system, and staff development activities to determine quality assurance of staff. The majority of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.33± 1.32, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.80± 1.10, Md= 3.0)
and third (Mn ± SD = 3.73± 0.97, Md= 3.0) generations university managers reflected that the institution has a staff appointment procedures. On the contrary, nearly all of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.00± 1.41, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.0± 1.0, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn ± SD = 3.17± 1.03, Md= 7.0) university generations management agreed about Staff appraisal system. The cumulative mean of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.33± 1.32, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.30± 0.33, Md= 3.0) and third (Mn ± SD = 3.37± 0.89, Md= 3.0) generations said that there are strong staff development activities. The finding implied that the quality assurance of the staff is not up to the expected level set by the ESDP-V and the GTP-II.

4.3.6. Quality Assurance of Facilities

Universities had been assessed on the basis of the presence of computer facilities, library facilities, and the laboratories among others. There are a well-established computer facilities in the university, according to considerable proportion of the first (Mn ± SD = 3.11± 1.43, Md= 3.0), second (Mn ± SD = 3.40± 0.89, Md= 7.0) and third (Mn ± SD = 3.37± 0.89, Md= 3.0) university generation managers. According to considerable proportion of the managers, the computer facilities (Mn ± SD = 3.32± 1.17, Md= 3.0), library facilities (Mn ± SD = 3.73± 1.34, Md= 7.0) and laboratory facilities (Mn ± SD = 3.77± 1.11, Md= 3.0) are remarkably high.

4.4. Quality Assurance (QA) at Program Level

The status quo of the traditional, input-based quality assurance at program level has not been challenged on the issues of goals, objectives and learning outcomes, program content, program specification, program organization, staff quality, student advice and support, staff development activities, feedback stakeholders and output/pass rates. Thus, the TQM/QA problem lies at the grass root levels in several universities.

4.5. Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions from Ethiopian Quality Award perspective

According to EQA (2009), leadership, policy and strategy, resource management, process management, customer satisfaction, business performance and impact on society are the major criteria of quality. Almost all of the public universities have not got tangible benefits of ISO 9001 certification. No achieved quantifiable benefit that shows continual improvement except for one company. Main reason for failure in getting better benefits of ISO 9001: universities have
not given emphasis to continual improvement of their institutional performance. The universities did not get the competitive advantage they thought they would get; lack of providing sufficient training for their staff, lack of appropriate motivation, no preference is given to the private universities, the government support of private universities lacked continuity. Although, public universities attempt to measure the benefits of having QMS in terms of customer satisfaction and continual improvement, their measurement lacks objectivity because they don’t quantify in a figure. The main challenges that public universities are facing during implementation of QMS are resistance to change, inconsistency in implementing QMS, turnover. It can be implied from the finding that the universities failed to effectively address quality leadership, design a sound policy and strategy, resource utilization, process management, customer satisfaction, business performance and impact on society.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations
5.1. Conclusions

Quality assurance had been a common language in all the universities studied though the principles of Total Quality Management are eroding. The structure and performance of first generation universities was superior to the second generation, which preceded third generation universities. Public HEIs are better in terms of facilities than the private universities. Absence of professionally capable, motivated and committed leadership is the major challenge in the Ethiopian universities. This is accompanied by lack of competent, motivated and engaged faculty; ill preparation of incoming students, lack of reasonably adequate resources, and absence of a supportive professional culture for quality education. So far, the universities do not have systematic and functioning internal quality assurance systems geared towards improving learning outcomes. The traditional quality assuring mechanisms are not functioning well and many of the academic staff members lack competence or engagement/commitment in their jobs. These problems are attributed to leadership ineffectiveness. These internal constraints in turn are reflections of the problems in the external environment of the Ethiopian universities. Amid superfluous problems, the inappropriateness of using a pattern of standards and indicators as “one size fits all” in quality assessments of all higher education institutions was perceived as a very important problem by most university. Arguably, the university administrators’ perceptions about current practices of countrywide QA policies reflect three notions of TQM/QA in the
higher education system that were widely discussed in the literature. The universities failed
to effectively address quality leadership, design a sound policy and strategy, resource utilization,
process management, customer satisfaction, business performance and impact on society. At the
outset, there were differences in defining of quality in higher education which have led to
employing different methods in quality measurement. True, quality of higher education is a
multidimensional concept that relates to the contextual settings of the institutions. Lastly, quality
assurance efforts need to be more flexible and sensitive to the particular missions of the given
institutions. Overall, the findings in this study show that many of the necessary conditions for
total quality management and quality assurance to effectively function are missing in the context
of the Ethiopian universities.

5.2. Recommended Options for MoE, HERQA and HE Institutions

The following are recommended options for MoE, HERQA and HE Institutions:

R1. Train university leadership and employees on TQM and put policy levers to implement the
Total quality management (TQM) principles in HEIs

R2. Encourage application of the appropriate tools and methods of quality management/control
by all employees. The positive effects of the use of TQM tools and methods on both operational
and financial performance must be demonstrated to all employees.

R3. Cooperation, Partnership, Collaboration: - There must be a university net to minimize
plagiarism, share best practices, Promote evidence-based decisions, Make periodic external
auditing, based on which accredit programs and institutions, Periodic & meaningful supervision
by MoE, Harmonize the structure of quality assurance directorate across universities, Introduce
qualification exam,

R4. Capacity building: - there should be unreserved effort to develop teachers professionally,
Strengthen the inter and intra relationship among universities, Work to break the vicious circle of
quality problem and investigate the reasons for self-serving bias, Empower the quality assurance
and enhancement directorate, Work to capacitate the university management, Allocate adequate
budget to the general education sector.
R5. Instill National Quality Award (NQA) initiative as a means to promote quality and service excellence of both in public and private universities implications TQM and QA

R6. Exit exam/competency tests/ should be instilled for all graduating students from all programs at national level.

R7. Incentives for the good performers and repercussions or sanctions for compromising quality education

5.3. Recommendations for Further Research

Future research should include analysis of the application of each principle of total quality management (TQM) and quality assurance (QA) approach, such as accreditation, quality audit, external quality assessment, qualifications framework, excellence, cost-effectiveness studies on QA implementation to investigate how much the government and higher education institutions invested and how much benefits they obtained.

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Causes and Consequences of Ethiopian Female Migrants to Middle East

By: Merid Adam, RVU Student, Thesis

Abstract
Labor migration is a movement of people from one geographic area to the other for the purpose maximizing their utility and/or to reduce risk of life and their families’ life and it started from the beginning of human creation. The numbers of migrants fleeing from Ethiopia to abroad increases over time in the last decades after fall of Dergue regime. Pull and push factors are phenomenon initiating migration in Ethiopia like other countries. The main objective of this study was to see causes and consequences of Ethiopian female labor migrants to Middle East. Data were collected from 113 returnee migrants and 52 ready migrants by using simple random sampling mixed with systematic sampling technique through prepared questionnaire and personal interview. Descriptive statistics (mean, frequency, table and graphs) for describing socio-economic characteristics of female migrants had employed and for inferential statistics probit model was used to see effect of socio-economic variables of migrants on their current economic life. The research showed that young and educated females mainly from urban Ethiopia and mainly from large family size characterized by high dependency ratio are migrating to Middle East countries to fulfill their economic need. Unemployment problem, low income, challenging to get job and failing to pass grade ten national exam are push factors and good payment abroad, employment opportunity and modern life are found the major causes to migrate to middle East found by this research. Looking at current economic status of returnee migrants most of them are economically benefited from migrating. Using probit model employed for the study at (P>0.005) the significant variables in effecting economic life of returnee migrants were: original residence of migrants if urban, migrants’ mothers educational status, family housing ownership status if owned, salary used to be paid in abroad, expense after migration, saving level after migration positively and visa cost for migration negatively.

Key words: International migration, pull and push factors, socio-economic behavior, female migration

1. Introduction
1.1. Background of study: causes and consequences of migration

Migration is a purposeful movement involving change of permanent residence. It is a phenomenon that raise a lot of questions: why do people migrate, what factors influence intensity of migration flow, which are effect of migration and what are the main pattern of migration (Robinson, 1937). Migration is a process; present migration cannot be understood without reference to past migration (Skeldon, 1997). Movements of people searching for a better life, livelihood or refuge, or rushing to flee natural disasters are as old as humankind. People migrate
within their own countries, mainly from rural to urban areas, as well as across borders (Fernandez, 2010).

In Ethiopia the movement of people has long been of importance. It takes many forms such as rural-to-rural, urban-to-rural, urban-to-urban, rural-to-urban and international migration. Rural-to-rural migration from any kinds of migration is the dominant one while rural to urban migration is the next one (Dawit, 2007).

The cause of migration range from natural to man-made (social) to others. They can generally be termed as voluntary, involuntary, permanent or temporary, distant or short or with factors termed as pull or push; natural factors are many like earth quake, drought, volcanism, diversification...etc. Man-made can be war, ethnic conflict, politics...etc. There are also culturally determined movements where in some tribes of Africa, an integral part of adolescent males’ imitation to man hood (Parnwell, 1997).

Ethiopian modern history with tremendous social and political turmoil, famines, economic crises, warfare and repression has had a large impact on people’s migration (Regt, 2007). In the past two decades Ethiopian young females are flooding to Middle East from every corner of the country. While international labor migration was restricted under socialist regime of Mengistu H/Mariam, the government that comes to power in 1991 made the right to free movement part of the constitution and every one willing and able to go to abroad can go (Beyene, 2005;Eyrusalem, 2010). Some women use the Umra and the Hajji as a pretext to go to Saudi Arabia and move from there to other countries even when they are not Muslim (Kebede, 2001; Regt, 2007). Unfortunately reliable statistics are lacking because many women migrate via illegal channels and are not registered (Regt, 2007).

The high oil price observed in the 1970’s and 1980’s resulted in larger transfer of capital from oil importing countries to oil exporting countries over a short period of time. The oil exporting countries of Middle East have rapidly developed their economies and to do this, need to have larger labor forces. Migration is not a new feature of Gulf economy and traditionally Arabia has been a location of many movements such as the Hajj pilgrimage to Mecca, the Frank increase Caravan routes and the discovery of oil in the region in 1930s both quantity and direction has changed (Gauhar,1982).

The migration of females whether it is international or migration is the burning issue of every family, community and government. Some parts of society think the event as good opportunity. They said that remittances from the migrants help their family and even have contribution for economic growth of a country in a way of getting foreign currency. On the other hand some part of society argued contrarily by saying, when females are abroad to work there will be labor abuse, corruption of culture and there is more event of economic change. In general some see migration policy as positive role to development and growth while others tell that it has negative effect (Skeldon, 1997). As Ehrenberg and Smith (1996) noted the influence of age, access to
information the potential gaining in earning and distance are all relevant to international migration. One aspect of the potential gains from migration that is especially important when analyzing international flow of labor is distribution of earning that can help as compared with the receiving country.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia is one of the least developing countries within an increase in number of population over time. In 2014 the estimated number of people in Ethiopia was 96,958,732 out of which 50.08% were female (World Bank, 2016). This increasing number of population is more experienced in rural parts of country which comprise of 80.7% of total population (World Bank, 2016). But the country’s GDP or economic growth lags behind this population growth (CSA, 2012).

Cross boundary migration from Ethiopia to overseas increases over time. ILO report of 2013 on migrant workers indicated that, one of the largest current international migration flows is Ethiopian women migrating to the Middle East as domestic workers. According to ILO the number of trafficked Ethiopian women and children in the Middle East is as large as 130,000 (ILO, 2013), though Gudetu(2014) said accurate data indicating the incidence is lacking.

Some of literatures on Ethiopian female migrants to Middle East available and various support compiled over years by government and NGOs discuss the topics of gender and migration, and human trafficking to the region. However, their studies were not comprehensive and donot generally support their conclusion with systematic empirical research finding. This lack of systematic research finding and comprehensiveness necessitates this study on this burning issue which is the choice between life and death.

The studies undertaken so far shown that Ethiopian females have started migrating to Middle East since 1980s. They migrate through two ways: formally by government and private agencies and informally through personal trafficking of females for the need of good living standard (Fernandez, 2010). His study excluded cost of processing visa up to arrival and opportunity forgone in processing it.

Study by Gudetu (2014) showed female trafficking is highly increasing in Ethiopia through dishonest agents. The study saw at bad effects of migration bring on to our females and excludes the positive fruits migrating to Middle East gave to our females in Gulf States. According to Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate, as cited by Selemawit (2013) about 1500 domestic workers are legally migrating to Saudi Arabia and Kuwait every day. Her study dealt with how rural Ethiopian females were persuaded by brokers and the challenge they faced through interview she made. But, this may be difficult to judge migration is bad or good based on its consequence without looking at economic gain and loss. Again as consequences her study dealt on psychological problems our females faces at abroad like racial discrimination, class discrimination and gender discrimination which is more of sociological study.
In study conducted on Ethiopian migrant returnees, Birke discussed that many returnees endure extreme hardship which harm their emotional integrity, humiliation, unmet expectation and social defeat at their destination and therefore they face mental disorder after they returned back to their home (2005, 64). According to International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2003) trafficked migrants displayed negative copying of behaviors to their isolation and depression. This includes, excessive drinking, smoking, using drug and so on. Her study does not consider the economic impacts of migration on individual migrant and it entirely depend on secondary data.

Females migrate from more oppressive to non-oppressive environment to where they get actual access to wage work as such, leaving home and obtaining increased economic independence and freedom to challenge traditional gender roles. This can be seen to be strengthening women’s position by obtaining degree of control over economic asset. This leads to hostility between wife and husband who feel ashamed. Hence migration leads to domestic violence (Menjivar, 1999). Migration also changes family structure. These changes include increase in divorce rate and decrease in household stability. Female migration as well is source of egalitarian relationship with family; decline of extended family pattern and more nuclear family (Marokvasik, 1984). This is also risk for infidelity abroad which erodes family structure (Deplaye, 2007). These studies assumed equality between wife and husband and family disturbances can be caused by either or both parties. This study focuses on Ethiopian case where females are dominated by men (no equality) and have no equal access to resource.

According to study done by Bedilish (2006) the major factors that encourage female emigration are low level of development and living standard between different areas. Females migrate to Gulf Estates because of low income, low status given to women, peer pressure and lack of education which are called push factors to Ethiopia, and better job opportunity, better salary, modernity of life among pull factors of their destination areas. But she did not look to political factors and inflation emerging in Ethiopia as if they do not cause migration nor the study did not used any economic model of migration. This study also deals with how number of migrants’ brothers and sisters being educated or uneducated can influence life of migrants’ after migration, which others did not see.

This study focuses to extent possible to explore causes of their little saving and why they are not successes if they start business that others did not look at and therefore Economic importance of migration of Ethiopian female is to be discussed for Migrants by directly collecting data from migrants after migration without any selection bias against returnee or ready migrants which others did not do. Human trafficking, labor abuse and other topics of sociology had been discussed by literatures. For instances (Fernandez, 2010), Regt (2007), Gudetu (2014) Birke (2005, 64) and International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2003) did their study of Ethiopian female migration from sociology and demographic view. Sociological problems were discussed but missed the economic impacts of migration on individual migrant and it was entirely based on secondary data sources.
This study was looked at socio-economic behavior of migrants and migrants’ family towards their tendency in making migration happen and its effect on the life of migrants’ after migration. The center of this study is again unique in looking to remittances effect on migrants’ individual level than national level role of remittances migrants send to Ethiopia. To handle this economic status of returnee were inquired and checked systematically by econometric model. To researchers knowledge no research has been used econometric model to see consequence of migrants based on after migration life standard. This again is amongst the problem needed to be studied. The socio-economic behavior of migrants’ family had been looked in the way these behaviors could force migrants to move and how these behaviors can affect life of returnee migrants.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. The General Objectives:

The primary objective of this study was to investigate causes of migration that motivates females to migrate and consequence of their migration

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

The specific tasks accomplished in this study were:

To investigate socio-economic characteristics of Ethiopian female labor migrants

To examine causes of female migration with its consequences

To look at affects of socio-economic characteristics of returnee migrants on their life after migration

2. Review of Literatures

2.1. Empirical Literature Review

2.1.1. Cause and Consequence of Female Migration

2.1.1.1. Causes of Female Migration: Review on Ethiopian Females

According to figures from Ethiopia’s Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (2012 cited in Ketema, 2014), around 200,000 Ethiopian women migrated to the Middle East seeking employment in the domestic work industry using legal routes and Top destination countries in the Middle East are Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Lebanon, and more recently Sudan, which is usually used as transit country (ILO, 2010).

According to study done by Fernandez (2010) causes and consequences of migration depend on channel they go through to Middle East. The channels are public migration when individual are officially registered by migrant workers with MoLSA to secure work contact abroad through their personal contact, private employment agencies and through illegal brokers. If individual
migrate through private employment agencies and illegal brokers the incentive of migrant to migrate is to high since they give them exaggerated information and the consequence to be bad is high (Firehiwot, 2010). According to this study Firehiwot (2010) Ethiopian female are driven by different factors to migrate to Middle East to serve as domestic worker in private house hold. She has done her study on Wollo females through deep interviewing of the selected sample for nine months and concluded that the need of financial and personal development are the primary causes for migration. Women lack of education and other resource which mainly result from gender inequality and poverty hinder them from taking active role in the socio-economic and political process in the countries. This makes migration of women viable choice of making a living and supporting families for most of Ethiopian female migrants supported by research done by Martin on Ethiopian females live in Austria (Martin, 2007).

Firehiwot (2010) in her study on Ethiopian female migrants found migration is caused because of globalization. Ethiopian female migrates not because of betterment rather they culturally are not treated in Ethiopia as productive who do real job rather love job. Cultural discrimination against women in Ethiopia and labor demand in Middle East caused Ethiopian female to flow to Middle East. Due this patriarchal culture which not allow females to ressource, education and training opportunities females choose to migrate than to stay and change their life in Ethiopia.

Push factors which make Ethiopian females to flood to Arab countries, that are resulted from the socio-economic, physical and political condition of country are: lack of enough jobs, few opportunities, drought and famine, poor housing, poverty, inequality, loss of wealth and, etc. On the other side the pull factors are benefits that attract Ethiopian women such as good job opportunities available in Middle East, better living standard, better medical care and security (International economic bulletin, June 18, 1999; cited in UN, 2003).

The socio-economic condition/status/ of women migrants in Ethiopia like lack of employment opportunities, increasing pressure of population, lack of facilities of education and health care motivate females to migrate abroad(Theddy, 2000; as cited in Bedilish, 2006). In relation to this United Nations study on migration (2003) also indicated that migrants strive to obtain improvement in their material condition of life and they are attached to areas where economic opportunities appears to become abundant and remuneration higher.

Study on international labor female migration by Mesfin (2011), showed that earning a wage that is at least three or four times more than what they would earn in Ethiopia, getting free accommodation, food and extra benefit are all factors that make migration appealing to many foreign domestic workers, especially to women who live in an extreme poverty back home. According to Neoclassical equilibrium approach, migration is thus understood to be the movements of people to maximize returns on their labor tell us the same thing as the above stated study (Bedilish, 2006).
The other main cause of increasing exodus of Ethiopian female is gender inequality. In Ethiopia and other places care work and house work are not considered as real work but a love work performed as part of natural females’ role (Firehiwot, 2010). Domestic worker are believed to be related to unpaid caring work of women. Hence it is women in Ethiopia who migrate to be hired as maid in private household. However women in Ethiopia state that domestic work which they do in Ethiopia as part of uncompensated daily choice is with payment when they perform similar task in Middle East. This is a great factor which motivates the migration of women in Austria (Steady, 2006). So Ethiopian females migrate in search for liberation from traditional division of labor country has. Due to patriarchal cultures, women in Ethiopia have limited access to resource, education, and training opportunities. Because of these reason migrants remain unemployed and therefore select migration to escape from this being unemployed (Firehiwot, 2010).

Other study by Beyene (2005) and (Regt, 2007), seen religion as cause of Ethiopian females to migrate to Middle East. Muslim females and also non-Muslims use the Hajj and Umra as a pretext to go to Saudi Arabia. Also Gebru and Beyene in their study found the cause to Ethiopian female migration to Middle East was persistent and transitory food insecurity due to natural and manmade factors like drought, war, landlessness and poor agricultural production and productivity and People that dominantly migrated to Saudi-Arabia within the past five Years (2005/6 to 2009/10) aimed to cope with the factors and to diversify their choice of household income diversification strategies through non-farm activities (2012, 3). Their study stress on push factors migrants face at home to of lack of choice to work on farm and off-farm in Ethiopia therefore the poor were prefer to migrate.

Contrary to study by Gebru and Beyene (2012) study by Regt (2007) found there is strong peer pressure effect to cause Ethiopian female flood to Middle East. The study by Merid (2013) consolidates this finding that about 20% of migrant were formally or informally persuaded by their friends to migrate to Middle East.

2.1.1.2. Consequences of Female Migration: Review on Ethiopian Females

The consequence of Ethiopian female migration as every type of migration will be assessed in terms of their demographic, economic and political impacts.

Demographically migration affects every country whether rich or poor. This is true for Ethiopian females that have started migrating to every corner of world since 1991. According to ministry of labor and social affairs (MoLSA) report of 2009/2010 female migrants are more in number than male migrants. Females employed abroad consisted 87% while males were the left over i.e.13%. Ethiopian migration rate compared to other countries’ of world is very small which is 0.7% and so its demographic affect is low/small (Regt, 2007)
Economic contribution of migration is observable and actual than other consequences of migration. This is because mobile population can contribute to economic development through financial resource as well as their skill, entrepreneurial abilities and support for democratization and guarantees of human right. Women migrant tend to remit more of their income to their families than do male migrants (Collison, 2003 cited in Eyerusalem, 2010). This is also true for Ethiopian females case (Sassen, 2010). The monthly salaries of migrants are high compared to local salary. It is eight or more than times higher than what they would have got if employed in Ethiopia (Merid, 2013)

According to study done by Regt (2007), since 1990s economy of Middle East boomed up by rise in oil price across world and attracted migrant females from horn of Africa and it became a good area for Ethiopian females to get better job opportunities and better income. Most people migrate either temporarily or permanently to take advantage of opportunities in rich countries as Ethiopian females do to earn more money and widen horizons. Nevertheless, long term migrants are more likely to be unemployed.

The main advantages of emigration for sending countries is that emigrants send much of their earning home in form of remittance providing much needed foreign exchange. Global remittance reached 240 billion US $ in 2004 and grow to about 980 billion US $ in 2010. The remittance Ethiopia got from migrants was 800million Ethiopian birr in 2008 and grows to 950 million birr in 2010 (CSA, 2012).

Even if Ethiopian female migrate for betterment of life standard, consequence of Ethiopian female migrants especially female moved through illegal way their life not changed, death of migrant females and overwork. Psychological and socio-economical problem faces female migrants (Gebru & Beyene. 2012 p 6). Social consequence like sexual harassment: women migrants reported harassment from employer, contractor and in case of mixed migrant group, male migrant workers (Eyerusalem, 2010). Other Study of female Ethiopian migrants to Middle East also showed that many women are trafficked to destination outside Ethiopia and are left in vulnerable positions partly due to strict laws surrounding the migration of women (Kebede, 2001). When in the Middle East most of women work as maids or nannies, in jobs they get little security or protection (Fernandez, 2010). An impact of migration on the direction of changes is less. But returned migrants and migration in general have often played critical role in new and revolutionary movements. Migration can lead to the extension of the feelings of being poor, or poverty. The greater awareness of returned migrants, if combined with stress, can result violence, millenarian movement and pressure for change in existing power relations which is not experienced in Ethiopia as other countries of world (Eyerusalem, 2010).

Migration empowers women by familiarizing with new norms regarding their right and opportunities. Wage-earning capacity gives women greater ability to direct house hold priorities. But at the same time women may face the dual problem of racism and sexism in seeking employment of training or otherwise participating in the activities of new country. Migrant
workers also face double duty like cleaning and doing laundry. Verbal abuse, racial insult and discrimination behavior (separate food and dishes for them) are the major challenges Ethiopian female migrants face (interview in April and July, 2011, Addis Ababa by Mesfin, 2011).

Study on Ethiopian female migrant by Birke discussed that many returnees endure extreme hardship which harm their emotional, integrity, humiliation, unmet expectation, denigration and social defeat are their main problem that effect the returnees mental order (2005, 64).

According to finding by Ketema (2014) while some women are treated well, a significant number of Ethiopian domestic workers in the Middle East face undue hardships and abuse in the form of low or withheld wages, poor working and living Conditions, virtual absence of social protection, denial of freedom of association and workers’ rights, discrimination, xenophobia and social exclusion.

Firehiwot (2010) in her study exposed how females are harmed in Middle East. In those places females and men are not treated equally and those females impose the whole burden they have on their Ethiopian house maids. Remittance they sent has paramount importance for country level in gapping hard currency shortage even if their remittance was not entered in to correct investment due to lack of know how. “Moreover, in most societies in Ethiopia remittances serve as vehicle for changing gender relations by promoting respect for women who remit”. As ILO (2004) studied and cited by Firehiwot (2010) workers denied the right to movement by confiscating the travel documents of employees. Another lack of freedom is the difficulty in communicating with their families and others via telephone, post, or the internet. Physical, emotional, and psychological abuse are just some of the forms of violence experienced by domestic workers. They are also often forced to work in an exploitative manner for more than 16 hours a day, which is improper in any labour standard set out for other fields of employment. Non-payment of wages is also a significant concern in Bahrain and Lebanon, and non-remunerated over time work exists in all countries (Firehiwot, 2010).

The monthly salaries of migrants are high compared to local salary. It is eight or more than times higher than what they would have got if employed in Ethiopia. This is one reason which causes migration even if visa processing cost high. But the problem is that majority of migrants did not manage to save due to much remittance they send to their family. They are willing to go back to Middle East for work because of unemployment problem in country. In addition to low saving of salary of migrants in home, they also reported that they face many problems at destination (Eyerusalem, 2010).

3. Methodology of the Study
3.1. Source of Data

To accomplish the specific objectives of the study, both sources primary and secondary data were used. Primary data was used to know deeply the socio-economic behaviors of migrants and
to assess how this socio-economic characteristics influence the current life of migrants after migration.

3.2. Description of Study Participants and Areas

There are two categories of potential subjects count to be important source of data for this research. These are returnee female migrants who in one time or another time went abroad and turn back to home countries and ready migrants who decided to migrate so that who are on the processing of getting visa.

These both categories are from all over countries region. The researcher approached and collected data from these groups at the capital Addis Ababa. In Addis Ababa those migrants come to process their next move to abroad if they are returnee migrants or they are in Addis Ababa at International Organization for Migration (IOM) camp found near Gerji area helped by government or international NGOs who work with IOM.

Ready to go migrants are contacted at three special places. The first is Ethiopian Emigration Agency while they process their passport. The next is Gamka enterprise; the enterprise registered legally and process the movement of females by making female migrants checked in hospital and giving permission paper. The third places are different health station. Tikur Anbessa hospital is the first place to approach females and get information of their socio-economic behavior. The next are Tana clinic found at Gojam berenda Addis Ababa, Alem Tena higher clinic found in Gullele sub city and Arsho clinic found in Meskel flower Addis Ababa. Returnees were also contacted at these places.

3.3. Method of Data Collection

Data collection is primarily done through structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered on both returnee migrants and ready migrants using formal survey. The survey conducted by trained enumerators and the researcher.

3.3.1. Research Design

This research has employed quantitative method to gather the data required for the issue under study. This method is considered to be appropriate to deal with the scientific questions the research tries to address. It was used to get quantitative data on socio-economic behavior of migrants those affect the current economic status of migrants/economic consequence of migration.

3.3.2. Sampling and Data Analysis

The sampling size is one hundred sixty five (165) individual migrants among which 113 are returnee migrants and 52 are females who are ready to migrate.
The researcher used strategic sampling and simple random sampling on migrants for appropriateness and simplicity in interviewing and questionnaire distributing and as well to get unbiased data. Simple random sampling was applied on respondent contacted at hospitals and at International migration organization camp found at Gerji area while strategic sampling was used on migrants contacted at Ethiopian emigration agency and Gamka enterprise. Analysis of the gathered data the study used descriptive statistical method such as percentages, median, mean, frequency and tables. Besides this, econometric model was used to look at variables affecting economic status of those females.

Data from questionnaires were entered into computer using SPSS 20 (statistical package for social science version 20) software. After data entry STATA 12 was used to analyze quantitative data. The model is done preferably by maximum likelihood method because it gives more precise estimation of necessary parameters for correct evaluation of the results (Finney 1952).

3.3.3. Model Specification

The econometric model was used to look how socio-economic variables affect returnee migrants’ economic status. This is because economic standard obtained from migration are affected by personal factors like individual perception and by other variables like family size, educational level, and distance from the center Addis Ababa (center proxy to access information), educational level of siblings, residence area, income of the respondent, family’s wealth status, and job status of the migrants, visa pay and status of the individual migrants in household.

The model used in this research is probit model. This model is chosen because migration is not linear variable and cannot be handled by linear regression model. Lets us define probit model to go on to defining model used. Probit models belong to the class of latent variable threshold models for analyzing binary data. The models arise by assuming that the binary response is the indicator of the event that an unobserved latent variable exceeds a given threshold. Estimation can be done either in likelihood or a Bayesian framework. The probit models can be generalized for the analysis of a variety of qualitative and limited dependent variables, as well as to the analysis of correlated data. Estimation of the Probit model is usually based on maximum likelihood methods. The nonlinear likelihood equations require an iterative solution; the Hessian is always negative definite, so the log–likelihood is globally concave (Stefanescu. et al. 2015).

The idea of probit analysis was originally published in Science by Chester Ittner Bliss in 1934. He worked as an entomologist for the Connecticut agricultural experiment station and was primarily concerned with finding an effective pesticide to control insects that fed on grape leaves (Greenberg 1980). By plotting the response of the insects to various concentrations of pesticides, he could visually see that each pesticide affected the insects at different concentrations, i.e. one was more effective than the other. However, he didn’t have a statistically sound method to compare this difference. The most logical approach would be to fit a regression of the response versus the concentration, or dose and compare between the different pesticides. Yet, the
relationship of response to dose was sigmoid in nature and at the time regression was only used on linear data. Therefore, Bliss developed the idea of transforming the sigmoid dose-response curve to a straight line.

The Probit model constrains the estimated probabilities to be between 0 and 1, and relaxes the constraint that the effect of independent variables is constant across different predicted values of the dependent variable. In common parlance, the probit model assumes an S-shaped response curve such that in each tail of the curve the dependent variable, Pr (Yi = 1), responds slowly to changes in the independent variables, while towards the middle of the curve, i.e., towards the point where Pr (Yi = 1) is closest to 0.5, the dependent variable responds more swiftly to changes in the independent variables (Nagler, 1994).

Current economic status of returnee migrants cannot be linearly defined and it is complex. But the respondent can judge her life standard either good or bad current economic status. The dependent variable is returnee migrants’ perception on current economic status which means the respondents were asked if they meet their economic need as follows ‘how is your current economic status?’. Probit model is appropriate when attempting to model dichotomous dependent variable of like the above question.

Using the probit model, the researcher included the following explanatory variables: family size, educational level of returnee migrants, and distance from the center Addis Ababa, number of educated and uneducated returnee migrants’ siblings, residence area (dummy), family’s wealth status (dummy), and visa pay, status of the individual migrants in household (dummy), salary in abroad, expense after migration, saving level after migration migrants father’s and mother’s years of education.

Current economic status of returnee migrants = f(age, residence, distance from AA, marital status, family size, status in family, educational level, job status, father educational level &mother educational status in number of years of schooling, Number of sibling who are (uneducated and uneducated), house ownership status of their family, economic status of family, visa pay cost, training status of family, salary used to be paid for migrants, expense after migration and saving level after migration)

Current economic status of ith is dependent variable which is influenced by migrants doings and what migrants has before and after migration. The ith individual response can be bad economic status or good economic status.

The model is written as follows: first let look at how probit model is depicted functionally

\[ Y^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + u_i = \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \]  \[ \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \]

Formula 1 shows simple probit model with one dependent and one independent variable with unobserved dependent variable \( Y^* \). This variable is called latent variable in statistics.
\[ Y^* = XT\beta + u \]

\[ XT\beta \text{ is in scalar form} \]

\[ Y^* = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{i1} + \beta_3 X_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_n X_{in} + u_i \]

\( i = 1 \ldots n, \)

\( Y^* \) is unobserved dependent variable

\( X_i \)s are explanatory/independent variables which can be continuous or dummy variables

The observed outcomes of choice problem are represented by binary indicator variable \( Y_i \)

The observed binary dependent variable \( Y_i \) related to the unobserved dependent variable \( Y^* \) as follows:

\[ Y_i = 1, \text{if } Y_i > 1 \]

\[ Y_i = 0, \text{if } Y_i \leq 0 \]

The binomial probabilities \( \text{pr} (Y_i = 1) \) and \( \text{pr} (Y_i = 0) \) are analytically represented in the probit models in terms of standard normal cumulative density function (cdf) \( \varphi (z) \)

\[ \hat{Y} = f(\beta_0 + \beta_i X_i) \]

This is cumulative density function form which mean \( \hat{Y} \) is non-decreasing function, \( 0 \leq \hat{Y} \leq 1 \) and \( \lim_{n \to -\infty} \hat{Y} = 0 \) & \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \hat{Y} = 1 \)

When we come to probit model, it analytically represents the binomial probabilities in terms of standard normal C.D.F as follows:

\[ \text{pr} (Y_i = 1) = \varphi (XT\beta) \]

\[ \text{pr} (Y_i = 0) = 1 - \varphi (XT\beta) \]

From equation 7&8 it is now possible to draw the probit model for the research. The model as stated above has current economic status as dependent variable which can be represented binomially in terms of standard normal cumulative distribution function.

\[ \text{Ecostatus}_i (b) = \beta_0 + \beta_{1 \text{age}} + \beta_{2 \text{residence}} + \beta_{3 \text{marital}} + \beta_{4 \text{family size}} + \beta_{5 \text{status}} + \beta_{6 \text{edu}} + \beta_{7 \text{father edu}} + \beta_{8 \text{mother edu}} + \beta_{9 \text{uneducated}} + \beta_{10 \text{educated}} + \beta_{11 \text{housing}} + \beta_{12 \text{visapay}} + \beta_{13 \text{salary}} + \beta_{14 \text{expense}} + \beta_{15 \text{sav}} + \beta_{16 \text{income}} + \beta_{17 \text{dist}} + \epsilon_i \]

\[ \text{Ecostatus}(b) = f(\beta_0 + \beta_{1 \text{age}} + \beta_{2 \text{residence}} + \beta_{3 \text{marital}} + \beta_{4 \text{family size}} + \beta_{5 \text{status}} + \beta_{6 \text{edu}} + \beta_{7 \text{father edu}} + \beta_{8 \text{mother edu}} + \beta_{9 \text{uneducated}} + \beta_{10 \text{educated}} + \beta_{11 \text{housing}} + \beta_{12 \text{visapay}} + \beta_{13 \text{salary}} + \beta_{14 \text{expense}} + \beta_{15 \text{sav}} + \beta_{16 \text{income}} + \beta_{17 \text{dist}}) \]
Equation 9 is in latent function form while equation 10 is probit function form in cumulative density function.

ecostatus is unobservable current economic status of migrants. i is to mean ith observation while Ecostatus is observable and rest between zero and one.

ecostatus stands for how migrants see their current economic status. The status can be good when b=1 or bad, when b=0. Current economic status of returnee migrants is dependent variable as described above. The respondents answered their economic status saying either good or bad but not both. Study by Steven et al (2013) on miserable migrants looked into economic well-being under title of Natural Experiment Evidence on International Migration and Objective and Subjective well-Being and find it is complex and judged subjectively. According to the study economic status of migrants is affected by pre-migration and post-migration variables.

Age: is the current age of the respondent migrants. As migrants age increases, his economic status because of gain from migration decreases. Therefore the expected sign for age is negative. Migration is largely a youth phenomenon (Bratti et al, 2016).

Residence: is where the migrant used to live before migration. It is dummy and takes 0 for rural and 1 for urban. Declining Economic Opportunities: study by Zohry (2005) on Egyptian females showed being in rural has negative effect on life after returnee from migration because of the increasing number of landless families, the increasing fragmentation of land-holdings because of inheritance, thus making it progressively more difficult for a family to support itself; and the low level of wages for those who can find employment locally. The expected sign here therefore for this study is negative when rural is base.

Marital: is marital status of respondent migrant and dummy, 0 for single, 1 for married. To use in model separated and widowed entered in to the model as married since once in a time they were married. Single women have a greater probability of migrating than married women (Kanaiaupuni, 2000 as cited in Richter, 2006)

Family size: this stands for the number of family size the respondent migrants have. Family size is related to family dependency ratio. Increased family size shows increased dependency ratio and therefore current income migrant has divided among family members making economic status of migrants bad. Birke found the same result from Ethiopian females (2005).

Status: status is to mean the migrants status in family and takes 0 for daughter and 1 for mother. The status used here is to see dependency problem which mean if migrants are daughter they at first instance move for self. But mothers always migrate for making the life of their children better. Being daughter is good than being mother for economic betterment after migration

Education: shows educational level the respondent migrant has. It is from 0 grades to graduates level. For this research purpose years of schooling was taken in to the model. : People with more
education are more likely to move, ceteris paribus (Weber et al, 2007). Expected sign for education is positive.

**Income**: this is to mean average monthly income before migrating to Middle East. Migration from poor to rich countries is one of the most important ways through which workers can increase their income opportunities as well as their families’ welfare back home (Bratti, et al 2016). Income before migration has influence on life after migration. If migrants used to have good income before migration her life after migration will be good since she can afford to pay expenses come to migrate. When women are low income gainers they migrate to abroad for better pay (Emebet. No year). Expected sign for income is positive

**Father & mother education**: shows educational status of migrants’ father and educational status of migrants’ mother. It is from 0 grades to graduates level from higher educational institution. Migrants’ fathers and mothers educational level is calculated by years of schooling to use as continuous variable into the model. Expected sign is positive with intuition of when father of an individual is educated economic status of children is good.

**Uneducated & educated**: this is to show the number of uneducated siblings for uneducs and number of educated siblings for educated abbreviations that the migrants have before migration. Family members not only father and mother but also brothers and sisters affect one’s decision to migrate and life of migrants. Research by Tiemoko (2004) based on a survey of some 600 West African returnee migrants argues that families play an important role in the decision about return migration and remittances. If siblings are educated the life of migrant after migration will be bettered than those of migrants who have many uneducated siblings. The expected sign for educated siblings on economic status of migrants after migration is positive while for uneducated siblings’ the sign is negative. To researcher knowledge no prior research looks educational level of siblings on after migration life of female migrants to abroad.

**Housing**: here housing shows the ownership status of house the migrants’ families are living in. this is dummy takes 0 for own 1 for rented and for other. Economic incentive is the first factor causing human to migrate and among them need for shelter is the main. If family of migrants own house the remittance sent back from their migrant daughters to home will be used for other investment. In Ethiopia housing is the main problem need which need sustainable solution (Kebede, 2011). Expected sign for possessing housing on economic status of returnee migrants is positive.

**Visa pay**: it is the expense migrants incur to get passport and visa. It also includes transportation, medication and miscellaneous cost that migrants had paid before destination at abroad. Literally financing such cost is from two sources. One is self sponsor while the other is from outside by borrowing from third party. Expected sign for visa cost is negative.

**Salary abroad**: this shows the amount of salary migrant was used to be paid in abroad. Millions of workers and their families move each year across borders and across continents, seeking to
reduce what they see as the gap between their own position and that of people in other wealthier places (Black, 2005 cited in world development report, 2006)

**Expense:** this shows monthly expenditure the migrants pay after their return from migration. To look at economic status of individual asking for income is better way. But data on income is not told in most cases especially for developing countries. The one who incurs big monthly expense often has good income. Expenditure approach is better for calculating gross domestic product (GDP) of developing countries (Mankiw, 2010). Expected sign is positive to say migrants in good economic status pay more and therefore they have good income.

**Saving:** stands to show saving level of migrants after they returned back from migration. Expected sign is positive to mean one with good economic status has good saving level (Mankiw, 2010).

**Distance:** this show how far the migrant’s home is from the capital Addis Ababa. Distance is related to mobility cost. Migration and distance are negatively related (Ravenstein, 1885 cited in Skeldon, 1997). For this study distance from Addis Ababa was taken to see how it can affect life of migrants. Economically and physically to go long distance and migrate is pain. Expected sign is negative.

Among the variables the following are continuous variable: age, family size, educational level, income before migration, father educational level, mother educational level, number of sibling who are (uneducated, in education, in junior secondary class, in secondary level, in preparatory class, in higher education, graduated in diploma or above), visa pay, salary in abroad, expense and saving.

For a non-dichotomous variable, the marginal probability is defined by the partial derivative of the probability that $Y = 1$ with respect to that variable. For the $i$th explanatory variable, the marginal probability is defined by:

$$\frac{\partial p(Y=1)}{\partial x_i} = \phi(X \beta) \beta_i \ldots$$

$X \beta$ is scalar form of probit function for independent variables.

In probit model the coefficients have no meaningful function except describing sign of relationship between dependent and independent variables. We use marginal effect to see how independent variable affect the probability of occurring dependent variable ($Y_i=1$) (Green, 2003)

4. **Data Presentation and Analysis**

4.1. **Descriptive Analyses**

4.1.1. **Socio-Economic Characteristics of Migrants**
According to MoLSA(2009/10) the propensity to migrate is related to age, sex, education marital status, employment status etc. Generally studies showed that in most cases migrants were young and economically active disproportionately males, single, unemployed, and were healthy. Likewise the demographic characteristics such as age, family size, social characteristics such as marital status, level of education and place of their original residence and economic characteristics such as employment status, income level of migrants and of their families characteristics related to them were briefly discussed in this section, for Ethiopia female labor migrants to Middle East.

4.1.1.1. Age Structure

Table 1: Distribution of Emigrants by Their Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>age groups in years</th>
<th>median age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>cumulative percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-21</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>21.82</td>
<td>21.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>38.79</td>
<td>60.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-29</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27.88</td>
<td>88.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-33</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.48</td>
<td>96.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34-37</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>98.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 &amp; above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>99.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source, own survey, March 2016

From Table 1 it can be observed that most of Ethiopian female labor migrants to Middle East are young, (18-29) accounting for 88.49 percent of total respondents i.e. age group from 18-21 accounts for 21.82%, age groups 22-25 accounts for 38.79% of total respondents and 26-29 accounts for 27.88%. About 61% of total respondents were aged 18 to 25 years. Age group from 30 and above accounts only 11.5% of migrants. Therefore from the table we observe that migration decreases as age of individual increases. This age distribution shows, the young, not under aged or old age was migrating to Middle East, showing similarity with other scholars and writers who have studied migration characteristics revealed that young adults possess highest proportion of migrants than other age group. For instance study on Mexican rural-urban migration, large migrants were found to be young (Bratti, 2016). Teshome in his study on Ethiopian labor migrants to South Africa found youngest migrate than old age (2013). This is highly because this group represents the stage at which the people leave their parental homes for
education, marriage and mainly for investment in human capital which declines with increase in age. More over older people do not migrate due to socio-cultural responsibilities. Migration tend to be from younger age groups and with higher levels of education (Esipova et al 2013)

4.1.1.2. Marital Status

Table2: Distribution of Migrants by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>78.18</td>
<td>78.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16.36</td>
<td>94.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>widowed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>98.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source, own survey, March 2016

From Table 2 above, we can observe marital status of Ethiopian female migrants to Middle East, accordingly 78.18 percent of respondent migrants are single, showing 80% of the total respondents, 16.36 percent are married and the rest 5 percent are sum of widowed and separated women. The data tell us most of migrants are single. Married females by 16.36% follows single females by migrating to Middle East. We can notice that marital status has strong influence on migration. This is may be married women always have higher probability of getting child and her responsibility is then shifted to keep after her baby than moving from place to place. If migration is her way of life she does not go far away to abroad rather she move inside her country with her only baby.

4.1.1.3. Ethiopian Female Migrants by Their Origin of Residence and Their Ethnic Classes

The original place of migrant can determines females’ migration. As it can be seen from the below pie-chart (chart 1) the majority of migrants who returned to home land is from urban origin, Addis Ababa 32.7% and others 33.7%, consisting 66.4% of total respondent migrants. Rural Ethiopia which is vast areas of the country has low coverage in contributing for migrant number. Thus, most migrants are urban resident or those originated from rural Ethiopia and resident in towns.

Pie chart 1: Ethiopian Female Returnee Migrants by Their Origin of Residence
Ethiopia is a country of over 85 ethnic groups. The migrants were asked their ethnic class to see which ethnic class in country is migrating mostly. From Table 3 below 38.94 percent of the respondents were Oromo while the next 26.55 percent were Amhara. The Oromo peoples are large in number amongst all ethnic classes in Ethiopia, and therefore contribute big number of migrants. The third returnee migrants 9.73 percent were Guraghe. Tigrian female migrants were 5.31 percent followed by Silte migrants who were 2.65 percent of total respondent. The rest ethnic groups’ contributions of migrants are summed up to only 16.81 percent.

### Table 3: Ethnic Class of Returnee Migrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oromo</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>38.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhara</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guraghe</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tigrai</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>113</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

**4.1.1.4. Distance from the Capital Addis Ababa**

Theoretically migration rate decreases while distance from urban increases (Ravenstein, 1885 cited in Skeldon, 1997)). Under sub topic 4.1.1.3 most migrants are found to be city dwellers especially the capital Addis Ababa. Table 4 below which is constructed from combined data of returnee and ready migrants show the distance of their residence from Addis Ababa each migrant travels to migrate to Middle East. From the table mean distance is 206.13 kilometer. The
maximum kilometer the respondent migrant crossed to come to Addis Ababa is 1088 kilometer from northern part of the country and the minimum kilometer is zero kilometer which is the Center Addis Ababa itself.

32.68% of respondent migrants said they were from Addis Ababa and around AA while 24.74% crossed from 1km to 200km. 89.3 percent of the respondent walked/travelled less than five hundred kilometers to reach Addis Ababa for processing their voyage to Middle East. Only 10.7% of respondent went above 500km.

Table 4: Migrants’ Residence Distance from Addis Ababa in Kilometer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance from capital AA km</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>32.68</td>
<td>32.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-100</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>48.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101-200</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>61.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201-300</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>69.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301-400</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td>79.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401-500</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td>89.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501-600</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>93.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>601-700</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>96.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>701-800</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>97.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>801-900</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>99.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 900</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean distance = 206.13. Standard deviation =241.29

Source: own survey, 2016

According to figures of the Table 4, short distance migrants from the table are more likely attracted to migrate to Middle East.

4.1.1.5. Family Size
Large family size always is exhibitor of high dependency ratio when under aged and unproductive labors are high. When family size is large the need of family member is numerous and big, thus it pushes to work hard where ever the job is found.

Given constant income level large family size implies low per-capita income while low family size yields higher per-capita income. Constant income is assumed as it can be divided among family members. In LCDs large family size is an indication of poverty. This is because poor family gives birth to large number of children in expecting better future to use their children as guarantee against old age insecurity.

From the graph 2 below one can see that higher family size respondent has tendency of migrating than small family size respondent migrant. The largest numbers of family members encountered from collecting this data is 25 individuals. The minimum family size is one individual household. Large number of migrants has between 5 to 12 family members. This shows high dependency ratio increases probability of migrating in search for income for survival.

Graph 2 Distributions of Migrants ‘Respondents’ Family Size (Both Returnees and Ready Migrants)

Source: own survey, March 2016

Returnee migrants were also asked to their family size numbers. Table 5 below show us respondent migrants family size grouped 0 to 5, 6-10, and above 10

Table 5: Distribution of Returnee Migrants’ Family Size
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family size</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From 0-5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.27</td>
<td>13.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>59.29</td>
<td>72.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 10</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27.43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

The Table 5 above shows returnee migrants’ of family size between five and ten household is large 59.29% of total respondents while family size of returnee migrants above ten are also high 27.43%. It is therefore possible to say as family size increases the probability of Ethiopian females to migrate to Middle East to support their family increases

### 4.1.1.6. Status of Migrant Females in the Family

Status of females can determine why females migrate for. Mothers mainly move to satisfy the needs of their husbands and their kids while daughters migrate to maximize their utility and/or to reduce risk of their future life.

Table 6: Status of the Returnee Respondents In Terms of Age and Responsibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daughter</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

Table 6 shows migrants status in their family. Most of emigrants are young daughter accounts for 77% of total respondent. This shows daughters who are single and young are attracted by pull factors abroad than Ethiopian mothers. According to graph1, 77% of respondent were single which is similar to this data. Logically they migrate first for their need and to satisfy their wants. There rest 23% out of total respondent were returned mother. Similarly out of total respondents who need to migrate to Middle East large number of them are daughters.
When looking at ready migrants status and responsibility in their family most of them is daughter. Their percentage cover is 84 percent of total respondent while mothers are only 16 percent out of total respondent ready migrants.

4.1.1.7. Educational Status of Migrants

Education which is used an index of socio-economic status and a measure of population quality plays an important role in the decision to migrate. This means that migration select educational standard of individual. Number of studies done on migration shows that migration and educations standard have positive relationship. Abraham (2014) in study on Ethiopian assessing socio-economic need of Ethiopian female migrants from KSA found most migrants were educated. Borjas (1987) in his article on International Migration an Assessment for the 90's said migration is more likely for educated than non-educated.

The reason behind are that as more people are educated they get awareness of outside opportunities (merit and demerit), which is a high probability to find employment at their place of destination. In addition other things remain the same age increases as person educated more and more (Black, 2009).

Table 7 below shows educational status of Ethiopian female migrants to Middle East. The data shows educational status of both returnee migrants and ready migrants compiled. From the table we observed that 83.02 % of migrants dropped out of school before getting in to preparatory education. Uneducated females according to data here are low and comprises of only 5.46 percent of total respondent. The large number of respondent rest in primary education which is from grade one to eight 30.91 percent and secondary level/ grade nine to ten 46.67 percent. The data collected shows that large numbers of young, educated and single females were migrating to Middle East as discussed under educational status, marital status and age status of respondent migrants.

From table 7 most of respondent migrants were educated 94.54 percent while illiterate are only 4.56 percent. But the educational level our female hold is not high level education and only females migrate because of the existence of significant number of jobs, which requires no professional or educational skill in the destination areas and les employment opportunities in
Ethiopia. Generally Ethiopian female labor migrants to Middle East are less educated and less trained which mean they have low human capital.

From the data tertiary education which includes university and college education, diploma holder, first degree and the above comprises of 12.72 percent of total respondent. Large numbers of females (46.67%) migrated were grade 9 to 10. Migrants who accomplish their grade 10 education and who took national exam are 35.4% from total. This shows being unable to pass national exam made Ethiopian females see working in Middle East as solution to get way of life.

Table 7: The Distribution of Migrants by Educational level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literate</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>94.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary (1-8)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>30.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary (9-10)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>46.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparatory (11-12)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary/higher education</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own survey, March, 2016

4.1.1.8. Employment Status of Migrants

Among characteristics of female, employment status is the major cause to migrate or not.

Table 8: Distribution of Employment Status of Ethiopian Female Migrants Prior to Migration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
<th>Cumulative percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily laborer</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17.58</td>
<td>17.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family farm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>18.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Table 8 above summarizes the job status of both returnee migrant and migrants who are ready to depart. As can be noticed from the table about 60 percent of the respondents were unemployed migrants. 17.58 percent of the respondents were daily laborer while 14.55 percent of them were self-employees who practice petty trade and small businesses.

When looking at returnee migrants job status from the data again most of the respondent lack job at home before their migration. The graph 3 below shows large number of respondent returnee migrants were used to be idle worker at home.

Unemployment is one of the main ‘push’ factors which forces females to migrate. From graph 3 below 60.2% of returnee respondents was unemployed and so migrated to Middle East expecting better job opportunities. Daily laborer accounts for about 18.6 percent of total respondent followed by self-employee migrants who were 12.4 percent of the total respondent returnee migrants.

Graph 3: Distribution of Employment Status of Respondent Returnee Migrants

Using Table 7 with Table 8 we can investigate that less educated migrants are likely to be unemployed. Since 86 percent of respondent migrants were only learned up to grade 12 or even some are illiterate, so it is difficult for them to find job. Informal sector workers which is result of above causes i.e. lack of quality education, accounts four percent of total respondent migrants. Unemployed respondent returnee migrants were migrated in search for employment opportunity or better job while others who were either government employee or self-employee or daily laborer or farmer migrated to get good income with better job for better future, to escape from losing job or to get better job in abroad.

4.1.1.9. Job Status of Family of Migrants (Head of Family, Father and/or Mother)

Job status of migrants’ family can affect the tendency of migrating. If job status of migrants’ family is education based or white collar the probability that the individual migrate to country like Middle East is low. On the contrary if family of the migrant works backward job like farming of our country individual migrate to abroad for better job with better income.

The below graph 4 shows respondent migrants’ family job status and most families are employed in family farm which is 53.3 percent of total families and 17.6 percent of families employed in no-farm self job. Families who work as government employee are 12.7 percent. This numbers strengthen the statement that when family of migrant work education based job, then migration decreases to countries like Middle East where only low skill laborers are needed.

Graph 4: Respondent Migrants’ Family Job Status

Source: own survey, March 2016

4.1.1.10. Migrants’ Family Education Status/ Father, Mother and Siblings Educational Level Overview

4.1.1.10.1 Migrants Father Education Status.
The recent migration theories say migration is not single individual decision (Stark, 1991). The decision to migrate can be made by family members of migrants. Decision is often influenced by knowhow of individual family members. For instance when father’s of individual migrant education status is high, he at normal level knows the advantage and disadvantage of migration. Looking at graph below it is possible to say migrating decreases when family members’ educational status is high.

From the graph 5 below it can be seen that the most migrants are originated from uneducated/illiterate family. About sixty percent of respondent fathers were illiterate while 19.3 percent of fathers were completing their primary education. Secondary level and tertiary level educated fathers of the respondent are 6.6 and 14.6 percent out of the total respectively.

Graph 5: Respondent Migrants’ Fathers’ Education Level in Percentages

Source: own survey, March 2016

4.1.1.10.2. Migrants’ Mother Education Status.

The educational levels of migrants’ mother also influence the probability to migrate or not. Well educated mothers are rational who know the long lasting effect of migrating to Middle East. They advise their children not to migrate and to work at home. The table 9 below summarizes the educational level of respondent Ethiopian female migrants to Middle East. About 67 percent of total respondent migrants’ educational level rests in being uneducated. 22.43 percent of mothers attended their primary education while 10.92 percent of mothers attended from secondary to tertiary education level according to the data collected from the respondent migrants.

Table 9: Distribution of Educational Status of Migrants’ Mothers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mothers’ Educational Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
<th>Cumulative percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 4.1.1.10.3. Returnee Migrants’ Siblings’ Educational Level

Migration as stated above is not only self-decision to maximize on self-utility rather it is to reduce family risk. Like that of migrants’ fathers and mothers, educational status of the migrants’ siblings effect the tendency of their sisters to migrate or not. If migrants’ brothers are in financial need for their education then their sisters migrate to help them.

From the graph 6 below most percent of the respondent migrants siblings are in their primary education. Out of total 649 numbers of their siblings 10.63 percent are uneducated while 39.91 percent are following their primary education. Large numbers of siblings are either in primary or secondary education and therefore need financial help from their sisters. Those who are in tertiary education or who are graduated from higher education are 19.23 percent according to the data collected. They either need financial help for their education or they are not happy with what they are working and advised their sisters to migrate abroad for better life. For clarity purpose the data below are presented in frequency and percentage description.

**Graph 6: Distribution of Respondent Migrants’ Siblings’ Education Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iliterate</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>10.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>39.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>30.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Education</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>19.23%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total=649

Source: own survey, 2016

### 4.1.1.11. House Ownership Status of Migrants’ Family
Like what we eat or wear sheltering is the third basic necessity anybody has to get. From the discussion made above under marital status and status of migrants, most of them found to be single and daughter which literally mean those females lives with their families at their families’ home. The researcher argues seeing at house ownership status of family can describe the effect of migration on migrants’ life after migration and as a cause and seen under inferential statistics under title 4.2. Migrants from families whose house is self-owned found to be good economically than migrants from families who rented home.

As it can be seen from the below table 8 most families of respondent migrants own their own house. This in percentage is 80.6 of total response. Seventeen percent of families live in rented house with their migrant daughter. The rest 2.4 percent of families of respondent migrant lives in house which is neither owned nor rented. This shows large migrants do not migrate to build house for their families.

Table 8: House Ownership Status of Respondent Migrants’ Family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of house ownership</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Own</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>80.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rented</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

4.1.1.12. Economic Status of Family of Migrants

Migration is not only affected by individual personal characteristics but also by economic status of their family. Table 9 below shows perception of respondents toward their family's wealth level. About 34 percent of respondent migrant replied their families are very poor and so they migrated to help their family and 38.8 percent of them said their families are poor and need assistance from them. The total number of poor family from the collected data is 72.7 percent while rich families are 27.3 percent in eyes of their migrant daughters.

Table 9 Perception of Respondents Toward Their Family's Wealth Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>very poor</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
People migrate for variety of reasons. Migration depends on individual character and outside environment. Migration is caused by problems individual face in his life. The problem is natural or manmade.

To access the reasons for what our female flow to Middle East the researcher set questionnaire filled by respondent ready and returnee migrants. One respondent can respond more than once and also the chance was given to them to write if other causes not covered by questionnaire are present. The response of respondent is shown below by table 10. The causes of migration are classified in to two categories. Push factors which drive migrants from their home countries are the first category. The second is pull factors which attracts migrants abroad which exist in Middle East. Pull factors are attracting forces like good job opportunity, good payment, modern and good life abroad while push factors are factors repel migrants away like lack of job, low income, housing problem, drought, war and political problem in origin country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause Of Migration</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Push factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment problem*</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low income*</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>22.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and wealth problem.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard and challenging to get job at homeland.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

4.2. Reason for / Causes of / Migration

Table 10. Reason for Migration
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pull factors</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good life abroad*</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern life abroad.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good salary pay abroad*</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>21.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good job abroad*.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>286</td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March, 2016

Table 10 indicates the reason for migration of Ethiopian female migrants to Middle East. The dot (.) is to mean represents social factors while asterisk represents economic factors (*). Out of 286 response the dominant reason is economic factors accounting for 62.95% of which the economic condition of home country like unemployment problem accounts for 24.13%, low income 22.03% and lack of wealth and housing problem 12.94% of respondents migrants. The economic factors which attracts abroad are good payment, better life abroad and good job abroad are 21.33%, 9.79% and 2.10% respectively.

A part from economic reason there are signs of non-economic motives of migration. Social factors and political factors are the main causes for migration. According to data collected housing and wealth problem which are 12.94 percent is both economic and social problem. Need for modern life and good job abroad is social factors and comprises for 3.85 percent and 2.10 percent respectively. 22.74 percent of respondent said their problem is social problem like hard and challenging to get job which is 3.85 percent and others described above.

Because of less educational status of migrants acquired, the finding of formal employment in the country is almost impossible. Poor economic condition of the country is the causes of those which push our females to Middle East. Providing vocational and specialized training for high school complete students to enable themselves for self-employment and other opportunity is unattainable because the country is poor even if government says I am capable of doing and providing it. As a result they tend to see employment in other countries. For who are lucky to be employed lower wage which the nation pays them, make working in domestic country less attractive. As a result most women and girls see no farther prospects to lead a normal and productive life locally and are forced to take any options even if it involves no risk. Even returnee migrants who had been working under hazardous and difficult situation refer to go back in Middle East countries. The difficult and harsh condition of living standard and working condition in Middle East is better for migrants than living with poverty and famine which leads to death at home. That is why migration is a matter of life and death. Research by Birke on Ethiopian female migrants to Gulf States (2005), research by Teshome on male migrants to South Africa (2013), found the same and comment the above statement.
4.3. Agency and Migration

Women are often represented as passive actors in migration, moving primarily at command of male members of homeland. However, the agencies of migration differ depending on motives and distances of migration. The relative success of migration depends on who made decision to migration.

Family strategies are crucial elements in migration decisions (Stark 1991). The family is conceptualized as a coalition vis-à-vis the rest of the world, and family members share costs and rewards of migration. Migration is seen as a form of income and asset diversification by families, with families investing in migrants, migrants in families, and both expecting returns from that. They therefore decide for their female to migrate.

The objective of this section is to access agency of Ethiopian female labor migrants to Middle East.

Table 11. Distribution of Migrants by Agency of Their Migration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision maker for returnee respondents to migrate</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>made by my self</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>78.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own survey, March, 2016

From Table 11 it can be observed that 78.8% of returnee respondent migrants decision is self-made given 62.95% of migrants migrate for economic reason from table 11 this enhances women participation in deciding their fate when their reason for migration is economic. Parents decided for about 11 percent of total respondents to migrate to Middle East. Since the marital status of respondent migrants is single which is 78.18 percent from table 2 husband influence on deciding for female is low and only is 4.4 percent of total respondents.
4.4. Migrants Source of Information

Information has a vital role in determining the magnitude of female migration. Information is not freely available everywhere. It is obtained from different sources. Sources of information can persuade migrants to migrate by talking good side of migrating to Abroad. To success from migration depend on the information one gets before moving from home. Source of information is collected from both returnee and ready migrants.

Chart 3 Returnee Migrants’ Source of Information

Migrants can get information from more than one source. The researcher set more than one choice for migrants. Chart 3 shows Ethiopian female migrants’ sources of information. Friends of migrants standard first by making information available to migrants as the data collected shows. It is 45.13 of total respondents’ source of information. From the chart we can see that big role the brokers played in disseminating information to migrants. Brokers as source of information contribute for 21.24 percent of total. Family and relatives take the third place next to peers and brokers contribution and it is 20.35 percent of total source collected from respondents. The contribution of government agencies and presses like television, radio, magazines and etc is small and only sum to 2.65 percent out of total source of information streams.

4.5. Cost of Processing Visa

Migrants do not migrate as they wish, when they wish and to where they wish. There are preliminary conditions they have to fulfill. Among many things migrants have to fulfill they have to have visa card to go to Middles East. To get visa card/passport/ migrants incur different kinds of cost like: transportation cost medical examination cost, brokering cost, cost of getting passport, training cost and etc.
When cost of visa processing is large poor migrants cannot afford to pay it and they find other opportunity at local. Visa cost can influence the probability to migrate or not. This cost of visa pay is collected only from returnee migrants since ready migrants do not exactly know how much they incur until final fly.

Table 12: Cost of Processing Visa Up to Flying

Source: own survey, calculated by SPSS, 20 March, 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Payment made to get visa</th>
<th>residence of the respondents</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>percent</th>
<th>cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>percent</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-1000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001-2000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-3000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.68</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3001-4000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4001-5000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.42</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5001-6000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.42</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6001-7000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7001-8000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;8000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 above shows cost of processing visa up to arrival in Middle East that Ethiopian female migrants incur. According to the table visa expense calculation was seen for rural migrants and urban migrants independently. The table shows that 24% of urban returnee migrants paid
between 4001 and 5000. It is 18.42% of respondents who paid between 4001 and 5000 for rural migrants. Rural returnee respondent migrants as to the table who are 23.68% of the total paid between 2001 and 3000, but for urban it is only 9.33% of total returnee respondents.

As it can be noticed from the table it is difficult to say rural migrants paid more expense to process visa than urban migrants or vice versa because at some level rural migrants paid more than urban while at other level urban migrants paid more. But when looking at extreme large payment for visa rural migrants were paid more than urban ones. More than 20% of respondents originated from rural Ethiopia paid more than 7000 for visa processing while it is 13.33% of total urban respondents incurred this much amount of cost for the same process.

When looking at the table for total respondents without categorizing between rural and urban 22.1% paid between 4000 and 5000 while 17.7% paid between 5000 and 6000 making about 40% of total respondents to pay 4000 to 6000 birr to get visa and then to fly. By observing the table most returnee migrants who are more than 70% of total respondents paid more than 4000 birr.

Most migrants respond the flying ticket was sent to them from their employee in abroad which they paid after their destination. They cover flying ticket cost with their two and more month salary payment which means they work without salary for Arab women for more than two or more months.

The returnee migrants were asked why they did not start business with the money they pay to process visa. Some respondents answer saying that the money they spent for processing visa is too small to start business and the existing businesses in Ethiopia are also selective in gender. Other respondents said the money they spent in getting visa and air ticket is small compared to what they get when they migrate. They said that the money spent here will be paid back only in one or two month.

4.6. Returnee Migrants Place of Destination

Migration is movement of people from one place to another. Therefore it has departure and destination places. Ethiopian females depart from here and arrived at different countries of world in general and in Middle East in particular. The below table indicates to where Ethiopian female land outside Ethiopia at Gulf States.

It appears from the table below 13 that most of returnee female migrated employed in Beirut at capital Lebanon which is 36.30% followed by Saudi-Arabia which shared 28.30% of the total respondents. Kuwait by absorbing 23% followed them. The destination is influenced by diplomatic law and regulation of Ethiopia. Ethiopian females are not migrating to Yemen and Dubai because our government blocked visa not to go there because of inhuman treatment and war incidence at Yemen. Yemen, Jordan and Qatar are less attractive to our females and only 2.7% of respondent destined at there.
Table 13: Ethiopian Female Returned Emigrants by Country of Destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Destination</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beirut</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kingdom of Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dubai</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own survey, 2016

4.7. Training: Language and Other Training Given To Returnee Migrants before Their Destination

Training is essential for successes of any individual when he/she migrate to improve their life. Besides this training is important to handle challenges come when somebody crosses border to work at overseas. Being trained for Ethiopian females migrated to Middle East is very important to solve problem they face in alien countries.

Training like language, catering, takes care of baby are some of training form given to Ethiopian females before migrating. From collected data untrained females take large percentage than trained on. From graph 7 below untrained returnee migrants are 61.95 percent of total respondent while trained are 38.05 of them.
4.8. Economic Consequences of Migration on Ethiopian Female Migration

4.8.1. Perception of Returnee Migrant on Economic Benefit

Labor migration for Ethiopian female migrants to Gulf States raise mostly from lack of job at home and low income problem as it can be seen from table 10 above. The migrants perception on the benefit they reap from migration was looked at by the data collected. The graph 8 below shows respondent returnee migrants perception toward economic gain after their migration.

From the below graph 8 can see that most migrants about 65 percent of total respondent are economically in good condition. Those who said migration do not benefit them economically and who are now in bad economic situation are 18.58 percent of total respondent while who benefited very well economically are 16.81 percent of total.

4.8.2. Salary Paid to Ethiopian Females in Abroad

Better payment is what anybody speculates for before his/her migration. Good monthly salary payment makes migrants benefited after and during migration. Payment for migrants to Middle East is known before they move to there. But some employers do not pay the amount they agreed on when hiring our females through agencies. The employer may increase or reduce the pre-
agreed amount of pay to our migrant females. According to the data the amount our females used to paid abroad was said to be six fold more than what they used to get in Ethiopia.

Table 14a Summary of Salary Used to be paid to Respondent Ethiopian Female in Middle East: Returnee Migrants Only

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>no of observation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>salary</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>4538.938</td>
<td>1290.932</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

As shown above on table14a, the minimum salary respondent said they got was 400 birr while the maximum salary obtained by other respondent was 9000 birr. Mean salary is 4538.94 birr with standard deviation 1290.93 birr. Mean salary show the average amount of salary paid while standard deviation unveils the disparity or difference seen on amount of salary paid to contacted migrants.

Table 14b: Distribution of Salary Paid to Respondent Returnee Ethiopian Migrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary in ETB at ME</th>
<th>Median salary</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;1001</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001-2000</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-3000</td>
<td>2500</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.73</td>
<td>13.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3001-4000</td>
<td>3500</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28.32</td>
<td>41.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4001-5000</td>
<td>4500</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38.06</td>
<td>79.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5001-6000</td>
<td>5500</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.27</td>
<td>92.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6001-7000</td>
<td>6500</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>98.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7001-8000</td>
<td>7500</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>99.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Table 14b above shows the distribution of salary payment made to respondent Ethiopian female when they were in Middle East. Accordingly 38.06% of respondent used to get 4000-5000 ETB while 28.32% got from 3000 to 4000 ETB. About 13.27% of respondent paid from 5000-6000 ETB. As it can be noticed from the table 41.59% of respondent used to obtain less than or equal to 4000 ETB. On the other hand 20% of respondent said they get above 5000 but less than 9000 ETB while 92.92% of respondent were used to not more than 6001 ETB.

### 4.8.3. After Migration/Current Economic Status of Migrants

After migration economic status of migrants can be of two types. The first is in good or better economic status while the other is bad economic status. Being in good or bad economic status is affected by many variables collected through personal questionnaires like educational level, family size, father and/or mother educational status, salary in abroad, expense after migration, saving level, siblings’ educational level and other variables.

Table 15 below indicates 74.34% of returnee respondent migrants are in good economic status while the rest 25.66% said they are in bad economic situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>After migration economic status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>74.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

The economic status above is defined based on migrant’s self-perception on their current economic status. According to Robbins (1993), perception is a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment in which they are living. The respondents were also answered based on the environment in which they were living.

### 4.8.4. Current Expense Level of Returnee Migrants

As started earlier, migration resulted in exchange of social and cultural expense between different societies. Consequence of migration cannot be discussed by not determining factors
mobilize migrants and determinants of their move. From table 10 we have seen factors caused female to migrate which are economic, social, and political. On the other hand migrants can improve their income and employment capacity which in turn advances socio-economic status of migrants. Especially the remittance migrants send to their place of origin can change the economic status of their family and their country at national level.

Income levels always are not obtained in accurate way. In this research to capture income level, monthly average expense and monthly left over expense/saving level of every respondent individual was collected. The migrants’ current expense level tells us whether migration benefits them or not. When an expense increases it mean that the migrants have good income or wealth which she gets from migration. The current income level can be influenced by many things like culture of saving, dependency ratio, educational level and etc. The monthly average expenses level of respondent returnee migrants are summarized below by table 16.

As it can be seen from the table 16 there is some improvement in expense level of returnees even if still there are migrants who do not improve their income. Accordingly about 32% of total respondents spent between 1000 and 2000 on average. Many respondents spent between 2001 and 3000 covers 38 percent of total respondent. As one can infer from table there is economical betterment from migration because 87.9% spent more than thousand birr every month after they come back from migration

Table 16: Average Monthly Expense Level of Respondent Returnee Migrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount in ETB</th>
<th>Median expenses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>≤1000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001-2000</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-3000</td>
<td>2500</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3001-4000</td>
<td>3500</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥4001</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

4.8.5. Current Saving Level of Returnee Migrants

Macroeconomics books like Todaro & Smith 11th edition and Mankiw 7th edition advise to use expenditure approach to calculate GDP of the country over income approach. Taking this in mind this research is based on asking after migration expense level and saving level to see effect
of migration on their current economic status. To see at economic consequence of Ethiopian female migration next to monthly expense level, saving level has great place in determining whether an individual is in good economic situation or not.

Table 17: Saving Level of Respondent Returnee Migrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Saving level in ETB</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No saving (0)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-500</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501-1000</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001-1500</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1501-2000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2500</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2501-3000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 3000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey, March 2016

From Table 17 above 51.3% said they have not saved anything in every month. The rest 48.7% saved from minimum 200 to maximum 5000 in every month. Saving is influenced by initial payment, amount of monthly expenditure and educational standard of an individual. Between 200 and 1000 saving level 37.2% of total returnee respondent migrants said they saved. Only 8 percent of migrants save above 1500 in every month from their monthly expenditures.

What one can say is migration if not at large level but at minimal level influences saving culture of returnee migrants. Good saving level may show better current economic status of migrants and used as one dependent variable in inferential part of this research.

4.8.6. Migrants Perception toward Attaining Their Set Goal

When migrants decide to migrate he/she set goal to attain. When one meet his/her goal economic consequences of his/her migration is said to be in good status. This research looks at how many returnee women meet or not meet their goal which they set before their destination. The pie-chart below shows the percentage of returnee respondent migrants showing whether they achieved their goal or not.
From the below chart 4, 49.56% of respondent said they moderately meet their intended goal while 21.24% of respondent meet their goal very well. The rest 29.2% of respondent said, I did not achieve my goal from my migration.

This show us more than 70% of total respondent returnee migrants were achieved their economic goal which they set before departing to Middle East states.

Chart 4: Description of achieved Goal for Returnee Respondent Migrants in Percentages

Source: own survey, March 2016

4.9. Returnee Migrants Toward Migrating Back to Middle East

Migrating is not one time shooting activities. It has an incidence of occurring again and again. Ethiopian females migrate and migrate back after their migration. When their goal is not attained by first migration they migrate again to Middle East. From data collected and summarized below by table 18, 58.4 said they do not go back again to destination countries while 41.6 said yes to migrate again to Middle East.

Table 18 Perception of Returnee Migrants to Go Back Abroad After First Migration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you want to go back to the country migrated before?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Source: own survey, March 2016

4.10. Econometric models

4.10.1. Over view of the model

Migration is caused by many factors and causes many factors on life of individual migrants (Teshome, et al 2013). Cause of migration was presented in descriptive part in detail with consequences. This part deals with inferential or econometrics part of the thesis. In this part we look at effect of socio-economic characteristics of migrants on after migration life. Stark (1991) in his study on migration of labor had seen at change of economic status after migration based on remittance and he found remittances sent back to home increases investment option and reduces social risk and market restraints so that economic status of migrants after migration will be improved. This economic status after returning from migration is influenced by many variables.

The probit model is model selected for this analysis as stated in methodology section. The dependent variable is current economic status which is either good or bad. This dependent variable is perception of respondent migrants where perception means a cognitive process that is used by individuals to interpret and understand the world around it or it is process of giving meaning to the environment by individuals, Gibson et al, (1993). The categorical independent variables from the above collections of variables are: residence areas of migrants, marital status of migrants and housing ownership status of migrants’ family. Residence area of migrants coded as 0 if rural and 1 if urban. Marital status of migrants coded 0 if single and 1 if married, other categories like being widowed and separated are few in numbers as it can be seen in descriptive part and categorized under married marital status. House ownership status of migrants’ family coded as 0 if rented and 1 if own. Other category is under rented status. Continuous independent variables are: age of respondent migrants, distance from Addis Ababa, family size of migrants, educational status of migrant, migrants father’s and mother’s educational level, number of educated siblings, number of uneducated siblings, visa expense paid for migration, salary used to be paid in abroad, monthly expenditure of migrants after return to Ethiopia, saving level of migrants after migration, housing ownership status of migrants family & income before migration.

Multicollinearity test among continuous explanatory variables were conducted and the test showed the collinearity among the variables are with the tolerable range. In all of categorical independent variables, the first category is taken as a reference category. The p values are taken to be significant if they are less than 0.05 ($\alpha = 5\%$). This probit model was estimated by maximum likelihood estimation which uses iteration processes. Iteration logs shows fastness of convergence. Result of analysis the model overall is statistically significant at p- value 1% after six iteration process. Robust estimation was used to handle heteroscedasticity. Correlation test
was used to see multicollinearity problem and link test was implemented for problem specification matter.

4.10.2. Discussions of Variables: Probit Analysis

A. Residence: Residence is significantly associated with current economic status of respondent migrants. The coefficient has negative sign which shows being from rural make life after migration less likely being in good economic status. From the table 4.1 marginal effect of residence is negative 0.08 which mean for rural migrants the probability that an individual is in good economic status less likely by 8% compared to migrants from urban Ethiopia. Residence is dummy takes 0 for rural and 1 for urban resident migrants.

From pie-chart 1 most of migrants were from urban and from table 4.1 result at α = 5% level show rural migrants are few in numbers and if migrated their economic status is not changed to better economic status compared to migrants from urban origin.

B. Migrants’ Mother’s Educational Status: Being from literate mothers positively affects migrants’ life after their return. Mothers’ years of schooling has significant relation to their daughters’ life after they come back from migrating to Middle East. Being born from educated mother makes more likely in good economic status for migrants after their return back to home. From the analysis at α = 5% if educational level of mother’s increases by one grade calculated in years of schooling, the probability that the returnee migrant is in good economic status increases by 2% calculated by marginal effect after regression.

Table 19 below shows the coefficients of independent variables and marginal effect of independent variable at their mean. Variables described above under A&B, and others described below are based on the result found in the table 19 at p-value 5% level of significance

| Variable                   | Coef.  | Std. Err. | dy/dx, marginal effect | P>|z| | 95% Conf. Interval |
|----------------------------|--------|-----------|------------------------|-----|-------------------|

C. Number of Educated Siblings Migrants Own (educated): The research takes siblings effect on socio-economic status of migrants. The number of educated siblings is found positively significant in affecting life of migrants after return from Arab countries at 5% level of significance. When number of educated siblings increases by one unit, the probability that the migrants economic status being in good category increases by 2.4% at α = 5%. Contrary to number of educated siblings uneducated brothers and sisters of migrants has insignificant effect on economic status of migrants.

Table19: Probit Analysis of Current Economic Status of Ethiopian Female Migrants after return.
<p>| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.87201</td>
<td>.358379</td>
<td>-.0145431</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>-.8896126</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.29425</td>
<td>.450346</td>
<td>-.0809514</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>-.2.176919</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001233</td>
<td>.000928</td>
<td>-.0000958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Probit regression, Number of obs = 113
Wald chi2 (16) = 53.07  Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log pseudo likelihood = -26.876854  Pseudo R2 = 0.5824

Source: own calculation by STATA 12, June 2016

Coef: Is to mean coefficients of βs
Std. Err: Mean standard error of every coefficient of independent variables

| Variable | Coef. | Std. Err | z | P>|z| |
|----------|-------|----------|---|------|
| Salary   | 0.000644 | 0.000202 | 0.000501 | 0.001 | 0.00024 | 0.0002479 |
| Expense  | 0.001118 | 0.000293 | 0.000869 | 0.000 | 0.00054 | 0.005445 |
| Income   | 0.000275 | 0.000267 | 0.000214 | 0.304 | - | -0.002493 |
| Save     | 0.000840 | 0.000355 | 0.000653 | 0.018 | 0.00014 | 0.0001431 |
| _cons    | 4.51259 | 1.68669 | 0.007 | - | -7.818467 |

53.07  Prob > chi2 = 0.0000  Log pseudo likelihood = -26.876854  Pseudo R2 = 0.5824

D. House Ownership Status of Migrants’ Family (Housing): Home ownership of family of migrants was inserted to the model as dummy, 0 for rented ownership status and 1 for owned. It has positive interaction with economic status of migrants. When family own house it is more likely that migrants become in good economic status compared to rented home. From table 8, 80.6 of total respondent migrate from family which own house while table 15 says 74.34% of respondents were in good economic status. From table 4.1 above when we look at marginal effect of housing, migrants who’s their family owned house are 17% more likely to be in good economic status compared to families of migrants who live in rented home.

E. Visa Expense Paid When Migrating (Visa Pay): Expense paid in getting visa card, passport, medication cost and other cost to get visa to go abroad is handled under this category. This is monetary cost paid to migrate from Ethiopia. Its influence on life of migrants after return from abroad is negatively associated to migrants’ economic status. Increase Visa cost make migrants less likely to be good economically. At 5% significance level, when visa expense increases by one unit then its marginal effect is negligible or too small number (-0.00009). This means when visa expense increases by one thousand birr, the probability that the migrant is in good economic status after return decreases by 9%. 

95
F. Salary Migrants Used Paid in Abroad (Salary): Every one’s rationale to migrate is to get better pay for Ethiopian female migrants in Middle East (Birke, 2005). Among pull factors, good payment abroad with 21.33% take the first place from table 10. Graph 3.8.2 tells us 56.7% of migrants get between 4000-5000 ETB which is better payment compared to what they used to get in Ethiopia before their migration.

Salary payment in abroad and current economic status is positively interacted with current economic status of respondent returnee migrants. When salary they used to be paid increases, migrants after migration economic life is more likely improved. At $\alpha = 5\%$, a one unit birr increase in salary increases the probability that individual is in good economic status is 0.005%. To make it sensible, an increase in salary payment by one hundred birr makes the probability of returnee migrants to be in good economic status increases by 5%.

As one can infer from table there is economical betterment from migration because 87.9% spent more than thousand birr every month after they came back from migration.

G. Expense Level after Returning from Migration (Expense): under descriptive part, table 16 tells us there is economical betterment from migration because 87.9% spent more than thousand birr every month after they came back from migration. Here from table 4.1 monthly average expense is significantly describe the relationship it has with economic status of migrants after migration. This method is appropriate to know income level of migrants than asking their income which they often do not tell. At $p$-value 1% it is significant showing person who can spend more money are more likely in good economic status.

Marginal effect of monthly average expense at $\alpha = 5\%$ tells us when expense of respondent returnee migrants increases by 100 birr the probability that an individual is in good economic status increases by 8%.

H. Monthly Average Saving Level of Migrants after Returning from Migration:

Macroeconomics books like Todaro & Smith 11th edition and Mankiw 7th edition advise us to use expenditure approach to calculate GDP of the country over income approach. Taking this in mind this research is based on asking after migration expense level and saving level to see effect of migration on their current economic status.

Saving and current economic status is found significantly interacted. When returnee migrants’ monthly average saving level increases, statistically it is found that migrants’ economic status is more likely in good condition.

From table 4.1 above, a hundred birr increase in saving level of returnee migrants, increases probability of being in good economic status by 6%.

Finally the model is passed statistical tests. It is tested for heteroscedasticity using robust regression test, multi-co linearity problem by seeing at correlation coefficient which is found to
be less than 0.7, specification problem tested by link test and reject HO= there is model specification problem at \( \alpha = 5 \). The output of all the test and regression output is presented in annex part.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1. Conclusions

This study was aimed at identifying causes and consequences of international labor migration of Ethiopian females to Middle East, looking into socio-economic characteristics of migrant females and analyzing how socio-economic variable influences life of returnee migrants. To reach the attained objectives descriptive statistics like graphs, tables, charts, and econometrics model called probit model was used. Data was collected by structured questionnaires from migrants at Addis Ababa at where they process their migration requirements.

When we look at the demographic and the socio-economic factors of the female labor migrants, it is found that young adult females have higher tendency to migrate with peak at age group (21-26) years and also migration decreases as age of individual increases. The majorities of migrants are also found to be single and are mostly originated from urban Ethiopia. In relation to education the majority of emigrants were educated but not completing their preparatory education. Unemployed females are 60% of total respondent migrants with higher concentration of high school education and those of who had more than 10 years of education. Most of migrants’ family sizes are above five of which many of migrants are daughter in their family. The returnee migrants are Oromo’s in large and their distance from the center Addis Ababa on average is 206 kilometer. Again large number of respondents said they are daughter in their family.

Observing characteristics of migrants’ family, employed in family farm with low educational status even large percent uneducated father and mother describes them. Big amount of migrants sibling are in primary education. This helps migrants’ economic status to rest in good status. Most respondent migrants thought their families are either very poor or poor who has their own home

According to analysis carried out the main causes of migration is economic factors i.e. low income and unemployment problem which are ‘push’ factors and better job opportunity with better income at destination which are ‘pull’ factors.

Most of the information migrants get are from friends. Brokers also play a significant role in giving information to migrants. Using this different source of information most of migrants decided to migrate by self-decision not by other party decision. After deciding to migrate they pay visa processing cost like transportation, agency cost, and passport getting expense. This visa processing cost most migrants from 4000 to 5000 birr.
Beirut, kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Kuwait are ordered from first to third according to absorbing Ethiopian female labors. Returnee migrants were migrated without taking any training in most cases. Despite being untrained most returnee migrants are economically in good economic status and think migration gave them good economic advantage when they compare their life to their life before migration. The monthly salaries of migrants are high compared to local salary. It is eight or more than times higher than what they would have got if employed in Ethiopia. This is one reason which causes migration even if visa processing cost high.

After migration, expense level of returnee migrants which was taken as an indicator of monthly income was obtained largely between 2000 and 3000. Saving level was also seen improved compared to national propensity to save. Most of migrants believed their life was moderately achieved their goal and they do not want go back to Middle East.

Probit model based on economic status of returnee migrants as dependent variable was used for econometric part. Categorical independent variables are: residence areas of migrants, marital status of migrants and housing ownership status of migrants’ family while continuous independent variables are: age of respondent migrants, distance from Addis Ababa, marital status of migrants, family size of migrants, educational status of migrant, migrants father’s and mother’s educational level, number of educated siblings, number of uneducated siblings, visa expense paid for migration, salary used to be paid in abroad, monthly expenditure of migrants after return to Ethiopia, saving level of migrants after migration, housing ownership status of migrants family & income before migration used to define the model.

Residence area of migrants coded as 0 if rural and 1 if urban. Marital status of migrants coded 0 if single and 1 if married, other categories like being widowed and separated are few in numbers as it can be seen in descriptive part and categorized under married marital status. House ownership status of migrants’ family coded as 0 if rented and 1 if own. Other category is under rented status.

The probit model was tested against heteroscedasticity by using robust regression, correlation test for multi-co linearity problem. Link test was used for model specification problem. Overall model was significant at α=1% and pseudo R2 fit the model.

The following variables are significant at p-value 5%, Wald chi2 (16) = 53.07 and Pseudo R2 = 0.5824

Residence origin of returnee migrants: urban originated migrants are more likely found in good economic status compared to their counter rural resident migrants. Migrants’ mother’s educational status: according to the finding a unit increase in respondent migrants’ mother’s educational level increases the probability of migrants in good economic status by 2%.

Number of educated siblings migrants own: The number of educated siblings is found positively significant in affecting life of migrants after return from Arab countries at 5% level of
significance. When number of educated siblings increases by one unit, the probability that the migrants economic status being in good category increases by 2.4% at $\alpha = 5\%$.

House ownership status of Migrants’ family: When family own house it is more likely that migrants become in good economic status compared family lives in rented home. Migrants who’s their family owned house are 17% more likely to be in good economic status compared to families of migrants who live in rented home.

Visa expense paid when migrating: this is negatively related to migrants’ current economic status. When visa expense migrants incurred before migration increases by one thousand birr, the probability that the migrant is in good economic status after return decreases by 9%.

Salary migrants used paid in abroad, expense level after returning from migration and monthly average saving level of migrants after returning from migration are positively interacted with life of migrants’ life after they come back to their home country. According to regression output an increase in salary payment by one hundred birr makes the probability of returnee migrants to be in good economic status increases by 5% and a hundred birr increase in saving level of returnee migrants, increases probability of being in good economic status by 6%. Marginal effect of monthly average expense at $\alpha = 5\%$ tells us when expense of respondent returnee migrants increases by 100 birr the probability that an individual is in good economic status increases by 8%.

From the econometric analysis hysteresis effect of expense and educational standard is seen. After migration life of migrant depend on what migration has and is today. This mean if current socio-economic factors of migrants are good after migration life of migrants most probably become better.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the research finding the following recommendations are supposed.

Support migrants for further education: Government and society at large have to support women education training and employment to promote and ensure equality of female at home. This is to reducing push factors of country through creating employment opportunities and wage increment.

Female union needed abroad to negotiate their salary. After migration life of migrants being good or bad is based on what they used to obtain in Middle East. Therefore strong female unions which can influence agencies in negotiating on salary of females have to prevail.

Follow up agencies to give clear information. This is because there are many agencies that deceive our females to benefit themselves at expense of female migrants. All citizens should be curious about those agencies.
Government should work strongly again on what to do after grade 10 accomplishment by expanding vocational and technical education, by availing finance for business startup after training, by deploying highly trained personnel in those technical schools. Most of returnee migrants were educated grade nine to ten. This tell us when our females fail national exam they see migration as last resort to escape from poverty. Government and every stakeholder have to work cooperatively to train those females here in Ethiopia on how to work here and improve their life. For every country young are engine and energy of development. Our government should not keep silent seeing little economic change migrants get from remittances.

Create awareness how to spend and more how to save: this is done by giving free training before destination to our migrant females. This mean there should be training center for migrants without pay since they become source of hard currency. Proper training should have to be given for every one of migrants before destination. Trained migrants know how to work, how to ask for their right, how to appeal when their right is broken and how to manage their life and benefit they get from migration. So training should get priority.

Women by themselves should be motivated to participate in different economic activities. There should be females union which help them in country to improve their life standard and when they migrate which stand for their right.

Besides, accurate information providers about causes and consequences like social website for migration, in situation, media should be east abused to reduce good expectation from migration and migrants have to be thought how to use money they spent to get visa cost on other domestic investment.

If migrants select to migrate as their way of economic life things which increases visa cost has to be reduced. Creating awareness on how to save and spent for migrants have to take place. Ethiopian emigration bureau should take this responsibility since every females contact them when they need to migrate.

Creating job opportunity at urban centers than done especially jobs biased toward females should be created by government and every stakeholder. Urban migrants were seen more benefited from migration. For rural originated migrants especial training should be given before destination.

If ensuring life of migrants after migration is every one concern according to this finding the mothers of migrants have to educated, the siblings’ of migrants have to again educated since they help their sisters by their knowledge. Reducing migration cost like visa cost has to come. Salaries paid in abroad, expense after migration and saving level after migration positively affect life of migration. Therefore bargaining for better payment at abroad by agencies and union of female are needed.

Government and every concerned body have to prepare good environment where the remittance of migrants rests.
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