

# CHALLENGES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRANTS...1

Challenges of Rural-Urban Migrants Situated in Jimma Town, Oromia Ethiopia

A Thesis Submitted to Addis Ababa University School of Social Work in Partial Fulfillment  
of the requirement of a Master of Social work with Community and Social Development  
Concentration

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Addis Ababa University  
Graduate School of Social Work

July 2023

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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## CHALLENGES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRANTS...I

### **Dedication**

To my loving family and friends, I dedicate this humble piece of work. A special sense of appreciation goes out to my devoted parents, Ato Demis Berga (May you rest in peace in heaven), and W/ro Deginesh Nisrane, whose words of support and push for perseverance continue to reverberate in my ears. My brothers and sisters are incredibly dear to me and have never left my side. I also dedicate this thesis to all of the friends and members of my church who have helped me during this journey. They have done a lot, and I will always be grateful.

Aschalew Demis

**Declaration**

I declare that this piece of work is original research work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and all sources of materials used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged. The thesis has been submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Work at Addis Ababa University graduate school of Social Work.

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### Approval

#### Approved by Advisor and the Examining Board

As thesis research advisor, I hereby certify that I have read and evaluated this thesis prepared under my guidance by Aschalew Demis Berga entitled “Challenges of Rural-Urban Migrants Situated in Jimma Town, Oromiya Ethiopia”. I recommend it would be submitted as fulfilling the thesis requirement.

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Date: \_\_\_\_\_

We confirm that we read and analyzed Aschalew Demis Berga's MSW thesis and that we evaluated the student in our position as members of the examining board for the final open defense examination. We suggest that it be approved as meeting the master's degree in social work thesis requirement (Specialization in Social and Community Development).

Chair Person \_\_\_\_\_ Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Internal Examiner \_\_\_\_\_ Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

External Examiner \_\_\_\_\_ Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

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**Abstract**

*Rural-urban migration has a long history in Ethiopia. The migration of people from Ethiopia's rural to urban settings has been fueled by both rural push factors and urban pull factors. Rural-urban migrants face different problems in their destination. The main objective of this study is to investigate the challenges of rural-urban migrants in Jimma town. Specifically, this research intends to describe the transitional challenges of rural-urban migrants, investigate the psycho-social challenges of rural-urban migrants, and evaluate the economic challenges of rural-urban migrants in Jimma Town. A descriptive research design was employed to undertake the study by using phenomenology as its main method. A snowball sampling technique was used to conduct the study. The first subject of the study was purposefully selected. The primary data-gathering methods in this research included in-depth interviews, key informant interviews, and focus group discussions. The information gathered from various sources was thematically converged during the analysis. To ensure internal trustworthiness or credibility, extended engagement with participants, peer assessment of the interview guide, and triangulation was employed to ensure the quality of the study and ensured that all ethical and moral standards of social work research are followed. This research found that; informal, unregulated recruitment processes, being a “stranger” and being isolated, the problem of finding a proper place to live and work, low earnings, workplace harassment, poor access to education and other social services, lack of assistance for entrepreneurship from the concerned body, etc. are the major challenges rural-urban migrants living in Jimma town are facing. The findings of the study may be helpful for the social worker to put effort into the construction of institutionalized protection for individuals who migrate from rural villages to urban centers as well as a comprehensive migration strategy for the nation. This study will also serve as a springboard for students or academics interested in doing a study on the issues.*

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**Acronyms and Abbreviations**

|             |   |
|-------------|---|
| <b>AIDS</b> | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome       |
| <b>AU</b>   | African Union                             |
| <b>CSA</b>  | Central Statistical Authority             |
| <b>FGD</b>  | Focus Group Discussion                    |
| <b>GIS</b>  | Geographic Information System             |
| <b>HIV</b>  | Human Immunodeficiency Virus              |
| <b>IDRC</b> | International Development Research Center |
| <b>IOM</b>  | International Organization for Migration  |
| <b>KOD</b>  | <i>Kebele</i> Office Document             |
| <b>NGOs</b> | Non-Governmental Organizations            |
| <b>SSA</b>  | Sub-Saharan Africa                        |
| <b>STDs</b> | Sexually Transmitted Diseases             |
| <b>UNDP</b> | United Nations Development Program        |

## **Chapter One**

### **1.1.Introduction**

In human history, population migration has been the rule rather than the exception. Human beings have been in a continual state of migration of differing distances for various periods and various purposes from the beginning of time. Internal and international migration patterns are quite complicated and are divided into two categories: mobility inside a country and movement between nations. Different types of internal migration exist, including rural-urban, rural-rural, urban-urban, and urban-rural, as well as cross-border and international migrations. People may migrate for a season or the rest of their lives. Seasonal migration appears to be significantly more prominent in rural regions as a coping and accumulating strategy for both the poor and the non-poor (Ellis, 2003).

The movement of people from rural to urban regions is known as rural-to-urban migration (Adewale, 2005). Rural-urban migration is a typical feature of developing countries, and it happens as a result of both anthropogenic and natural reasons. As a result, both rural pushing and urban pulling forces have contributed to the fast geographical movement of people from rural to urban areas in many countries. In developing countries, rural-urban migration has both good and negative implications for the origin and destination areas (Hossain, 2001).

Though the precise number of persons migrating within Ethiopia is unknown, internal migration movements are now greater than foreign ones. In Ethiopia, there is a significant amount of internal migration in the form of resettlement policy, rural-urban migration, and rural-rural movement. According to De Waal (1991), many Ethiopian migrants between 1961 and 1991 moved from rural to urban places. Women's migration from rural to urban areas increased between 1960 and 1989, according to Berhanu and White (1998). These studies demonstrate rising levels of urbanization in emerging nations, which are consistent with

current African urbanization trends (Van Dijk & Fransen, 2008). The authors claim that "poor rural living conditions and chronic hunger, causing rural inhabitants to relocate to cities in quest of alternative livelihoods, are the primary causes of the high rate of urbanization" (Van Dijk & Fransen, 2008).

People are still migrating from rural areas to urban centers in large numbers as they look for fresh chances there to escape rural poverty. The rural-urban movement of young people to the towns to seek better opportunities has also become a growing problem in Ethiopia (Erulkar et al, 2006). Opportunities for rural migrants are scarce, and daily living in cities typically falls short of expectations.

Indeed, many towns in western and southwestern Ethiopia developed historically from the garrison, but a careful examination of historical records suggests that some important centers predated the campaigns of emperor Menelik. One of these set up a garrison in the present-day towns of western and southwestern Ethiopia (Gemed, 1996).

The history of Jimma town is considerably different from the history of urbanization in western and southwest Ethiopia. None of the other urban centers in southern Ethiopia combine these three factors. First of all, it was a city with roots in the native culture. Second, it became the principal administrative hub for all of southern Ethiopia. Third, the growth and internal makeup of the country were inextricably linked to the expansion of coffee commerce and production. In reality, only a few cities in Africa—Kano in Northern Nigeria, for instance, have a history of being connected to both internal and exterior processes (Mesfin, 1972).

Since ancient times, commerce and trade routes have significantly influenced the development of Ethiopian cities (Gemed, 2007). This also applies to southwest Ethiopia. The area was a vital source of profitable goods in addition to being connected to the major road draining into the Red Sea.

For many hundreds of years, despite ups and downs in regional tranquility, trade between the northern and southern parts of Ethiopia persisted. Of course, the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have the greatest records, and Jimma's role in Ethiopia's commercial history is thoroughly recorded. Native traders who traveled as far as Genir in the east and Gardul in the south handled a large portion of Jimma's trade (Gemedda, 1993). Trade between Jimma traders and Harari traders took place in the Soddo marketplaces, which were in the north (Mesfin, 1972).

Jimma, one of the largest and most significant towns in Ethiopia, served as a significant market hub in the region of South-West Ethiopia from the 19th century, particularly in the Gibe Valley. In comparison to the rest of Ethiopia, Jimma's urbanization process is relatively recent, but it is not exceptional because, over the past few centuries, urbanization generally spread to many other regions of what is now Ethiopia. The 19th and 20th centuries have the best records, and Jimma's role in Ethiopia's commercial history is thoroughly recorded. For instance, A.W. Hodson claims that a large portion of Jimma's trade was conducted by native traders who traveled as far as Genir in the east and Gardula in the south. Jimma traders traveled to the Soddo marketplaces in the north and transacted business with Harari traders (Abir, 1968). The kingdom of Jimma transformed into a nodal point from which several routes emanated and on which they converged as a result of the increase in trade volume. Important market hubs arose in southwest Ethiopia at the same time as the network of commerce expanded. The most well-known of these regional hubs of commerce were Bonga (in Kaffa), Saqqa (in Limmu), and Hirmata (in Jimma). Literature suggests a connection between Jimma Town's history of rural-urban migration and the growth of trade. When traders from various regions of Ethiopia arrived in Jimma to exchange goods, they began to make a livelihood there (Hodson, 1970).

## **1.2.Statements of the problem**

In developing countries undergoing urbanization, particularly in South Asia and Africa where the rural population remains disproportionately large, there are large inflows of immigration from rural to urban areas (Brueckner and Lall, 2015). There is widespread agreement in Sub-Saharan Africa that improving economic conditions is the key motivator for internal migration (Adepoju, 1977). As a result, those who will help to stimulate the local economy and improve home living conditions are lost.

Ethiopia's research on rural-urban migration is unique. Ethiopia's history of the inner movement has been shaped by economic, political (especially the shift of ideology from the 1970s to the current day; communist to market-oriented) and social changes, as well as war/conflict and drought (Mberu, 2006; Kiros and White 2004).

Rural-urban migration is influenced by demographics in Ethiopia. According to Woldegebriel (2017) and Assefa & Eshetu (2017), males are dominating rural-urban migration. In addition, Alarima (2018) examines that among the rural-urban migrants, most of them are at a young age which is the productive age of the migrant. The mean age of the migration of persons that migrate from rural to urban is 18.6 (Ezra & Kiros, 2001; Ochocho, 2019). Woldemichael (2019), in his research in Wolita Sodo town, revealed that youths in age 15 to 34 are the dominant rural-urban migrants. A study conducted in Hossana town showed that the majority of rural-urban migrants are unmarried (Ochocho, 2019). Therefore, people who are young, educated, and unmarried are thus more migratory; they seek jobs that fit their age, better abilities, and experiences, as well as those that provide a return on school fees invested. People in the primary or secondary education level are migrating from rural to urban centers in high numbers even though there is a significant number of people who are at their tertiary educational level and those who cannot read and write (Zelege, 2011; Woldegebriel, 2017).

The migration of people from Ethiopia's rural to urban settings has been fueled by both rural push drivers and urban pull ones (Markos, 2001; Bekure, 1984; Kebede, 1994). The population is on the rise, land degradation has become common and rural areas are being rocked by frequent droughts and famine (Solomon & Mansberger, 2003). Environmental deterioration, poorer agricultural output, insufficient social services, demographic pressure, and land scarcity in rural regions have all been cited as key migratory push factors (Kebede, 1991; Sileshi, 1978; Befekadu, 1978). According to Ezra and Kiros (2001) population pressure, poverty, land scarcity, and a lack of agricultural resources, force Ethiopians from the countryside to the cities.

The consequences of rural-urban migration are numerous. This includes increasing food costs, worsening air and water quality, violence, prostitution, and diseases (Anarfi et al, 2009). On the other hand, rural-urban migration is a form of labor migration and the people most likely to come to the urban are those of working age. This trend of the movement of rural people to the cities has influenced the agricultural development of the rural origin and caused other social influences (Alarima, 2018). In addition, migration to cities and towns aggravates existing problems; increasing urban unemployment, intensifying pressure on housing, and socio-psychological stresses among urban residents (Birru, 2004).

Homelessness among migrants has been identified as one of the most important issues (Melesse & Nachimuthu, 2017). According to Amara et al., (2006), female migrant workers report higher sexual harassment than male migrant workers. Andersen (2002) and Jamilah (1981) as cited in Melesse & Nachimuthu, (2017) on the other hand, researched that rural youngsters migrating to urban areas are acclimating to a new environment, both in terms of the physical layout of the place and in terms of culture. Their engagement with city dwellers would result in the loss of their ancestral culture.

Jimma town is the administrative and trading center of the Jimma Zone of the Oromiya regional state of Ethiopia it is located at the center of roads to and many entering gates. Jimma town is the biggest commercial center in the Southwestern part of Ethiopia. The town serves as a transit of cash crops and industrial raw materials to central Ethiopia. The geographical location of the town and other facilities has been encouraging several rural-urban migrants to search for better employment, public service, and better living conditions. These migrants are coming to Jimma town from the surrounding Woredas of Jimma town and the neighboring Zones such as from Kaffa Zone, Dawuro Zone, Gurage Zone, Yem special Woreda, and elsewhere in the country (Wondafrash, 2013). Some studies have been conducted regarding the socio-economic situation and determinants of rural-urban migration in the town. Wondafrash (2013) studied the patterns of internal migration in Southwestern Ethiopia Jimma Town. Socio-economic determinants of youth unemployment in Jimma town mainly focusing on rural-urban migrants were studied by Wakene in 2014. On the other hand, Mengistu (2016) analyzed the condition of rapid urbanization and the challenges of farmer subsistence adjustment on the fringes of Jimma City which also focused on rural-urban migration. Shimelis (2020) examined the nature and impact of slum settlements in Jimma town on settlers' lives that have a rural-urban migration component. The fact that little or no empirical research has been carried out in the area on the challenges of rural-urban migrants who make their living in Jimma town makes the topic pertinent and timely. Thus, the motivation of the researcher is to fill this knowledge gap and to study the main challenges of rural-urban migrants situated in Jimma town.

### **1.3.Objectives of the study**

#### **1.3.1. General objective**

The general objective of this study is to investigate the challenges of the rural-urban migrants living in Jimma town, in Jimma Zone, Oromiya Regional State, Ethiopia.

#### **1.3.2. Specific objectives**

The specific objectives of this study are to:-

- To describe the rural-urban transitional challenges of migrants in the study area.
- To investigate the psycho-social challenges of rural-urban migrants in the study area.
- To explore the economic challenges of rural-urban migrants in Jimma Town.

### **1.4.Research questions**

The following questions were addressed in this study:

- i. What are the transitional challenges of rural-urban migrants in the study area?
- ii. What are the basic psycho-social challenges of rural-urban migrants in Jimma town?
- iii. What are the most significant economic challenges of rural-urban migrants in the research area?

### **1.5.Significance of the Study**

Researching the challenges of rural-urban migrants is very important. Therefore, the outcomes of this study will likely have a small but significant impact on policy and planning issues such as it will provide data to planners and policymakers in the process of developing and implementing population redistribution or migration policies. It will aid in dealing with the issues (socio-economic issues) that arise as a result of the town's rural-urban migration as well as closing the development gap between urban and rural communities. It will also deliver trustworthy facts and data to a variety of interested parties and concerned bodies. It will be used by researchers as a stepping stone and as a source of information for further investigation.

### **1.6.Scope of the Study**

This study is delimited to the assessment of the challenges (social, psychological, economic) of rural-urban migrants in Jimma town, the administrative and political center of Jimma Zone. Besides, given the limited time that is available to do the fieldwork, it will be necessary to focus on only the economic, social, and psychological challenges of rural-urban migration on rural-urban migrants in Jimma Town. The key social challenges of rural-urban migrants in the town, notably on social services (education, housing, health, and other social services) in the research area on rural-urban migrants.

### **1.7.Organization of the study**

This thesis paper is structured into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the thesis; the introduction, statement of the problem, research objective, and research questions are included. Information about the scope of the study and notes on how the study is organized is included in the first chapter. The second chapter is dedicated to a literature review that shows the experience of other countries and the findings of different authors and gives a general overview of migration, rural-urban migration in particular. The third chapter describes the methods employed in the study; how data was collected and analyzed, data quality assurance, and ethical considerations. The fourth chapter presents the findings and analysis (discussion) of the research; the economic challenges of rural-urban migrants in Jimma Town, the key psycho-social difficulties of rural-urban migrants in the town, and the effects of the rural-urban migration on the life of migrants are presented in this chapter. The fifth chapter is dedicated to the conclusion and recommendation of the study.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.1. Definition and concepts of migration**

Humans have been migrating since the dawn of time. People have traditionally migrated in quest of better living circumstances for themselves and their families, or to flee dangerous situations in their own countries (Castelli, 2018). Migration is a tough concept to describe because it entails a permanent or semi-permanent change of address (Adewale, 2005). Migration is a type of geographical mobility between one spatial origin and another, according to the United Nations multilingual demographic dictionary. A migrant is alternatively defined as "a person who, at least once during the migration interval, has transferred his regular place of residence from one migration-defining area to another" (UN, 1971).

Berhanu and White (2000) define migration as "the movement of individuals through space, frequently involving a change in habitation." Any permanent shift in residence, according to John R. (2003), is considered migration. To be distinguished from mobility, most demographers consider that migration must entail a permanent geographical movement in residence. However, due to a variety of reasons, a universal definition in general migration is when an individual (or a group of people) relocates from one location to another (Kebede, 1994).

#### **2.2. The Causes of Migration**

People have been moving from their places of origin to other places for a variety of reasons, according to migration literature. Some migration literature demonstrated that millions of people are forced from their native country to other locations due to poverty (in the case of rural-urban migration). Due to both economic and non-economic reasons, many people are forced to migrate from one place to another (Assefa, 1999).

Agreeing with most ponderers, the choice to migrate is for the most part made by the person or family making the move. Be that as it may, numerous migrants, especially wives and children, don't make the choice (Clarke, 1986). Movement takes put in an assortment of improvement settings and shifts in terms of the sort, composition, and course (UN, 1984). Despite their complexities, the variables (causes) of migration choices are for the most part classified as either 'push' or 'pull'. Migration's 'pull' and 'push' factors can be financial (economic) or non-economic (for illustration demographic, social, natural, and political) (McGee, 1975:236).

In the poor world, push factors are more important than "pull" variables linked with the destination. People may be compelled to migrate as a result of a conflict, drought, pest invasion, floods, or another natural calamity. Deforestation and land degradation are inextricably linked to rural productivity and living circumstances. When they are unable to sustain their families via agriculture, they choose to migrate to urban areas and engage in non-farm occupations. Rural poverty, is caused by poor farm production, reduced productivity, and lack of job opportunities, as well as the fatigue of farm work, is driving many migrants out of remote rural areas and towards areas with more job prospects in many underdeveloped countries (Dereje, 2002; Kinfu, 2003). According to Alarima (2018), low energy supply in rural regions, poor road conditions in rural areas, and a lack of pipe-borne water were all push factors that drove people out of their villages and into urban areas.

The pull factor for rural-urban migration is based on economic reasons. People are drawn to cities because they believe they will have more opportunities than those available in rural areas. Economic considerations such as obtaining a job that pays more than the individual's present income are a substantial pull factor for the rural-urban movement. There is a structural warp of money and resources that remain in urban areas, contributing to rural underdevelopment (Eze, 2016).

In terms of economic factors, 'Todaro's expected income' is worth mentioning in a migration model here. Todaro (1969, 1976) sought to explain the behavior of rural-to-urban migration in terms of income differential and the migrant's anticipation of getting a job in the urban formal sectors in his most emphatic economic theory of migration. Todaro's Migration Model contains four features. Firstly, the fact that migration is largely motivated by reasonable economic conditions of relative rewards and costs, principally financial, but also psychological. Secondly, the decision to migrate is influenced by expected rather than actual wage disparities between urban and rural areas. Thirdly, the likelihood of acquiring an urban job is negatively related to the urban unemployment rate, and finally, migration rates over job opportunity growth rates are not only possible but also rational and even likely in the face of wide urban-rural expected income differentials. High rates of unemployment are thus unavoidable consequences of the severe imbalances of economic opportunities between urban and rural areas in the least developed countries (Todaro, 1969: 1976).

### **2.3.The Consequences of Migration**

Migration has a variety of effects, depending on the sort of migration involved. Apart from the population dynamics of birth and death or reproduction, migration has been the third essential effect on population growth, composition, and dispersion. Migrants, in general, have an impact not only on the economic and social environments of both origin and detention locations but also on their living and working situations (Barrett, 1996). The consequences of migration are evaluated from two perspectives. On the one hand, migration contributes to excessive urbanization, unemployment, income disparities, environmental stress, and demographic mal-distribution. Migration, on the other hand, is an essential component of economic progress, aiding industrialization, increasing income distribution, and promoting advanced technologies in agribusiness (Lewis, 1982; Standing, 1984).

In developing nations, migration from rural to urban regions has had both good and bad implications for the arrival and departure locations. In the near term, it may assist to reduce poverty by providing new sources of income and employment, and it has facilitated economic and social integration between rural and urban areas. In urban regions, it also contributes to overcrowding, joblessness, pollution, and poverty (Aliyev, 2008).

Rural-urban migrants have a major unemployment problem, compounded by the ever-increasing costs of accommodation, food, and other consumer goods, as well as insufficient welfare services and other social utilities and employment opportunities. Similarly, in a major city, the employment difficulty is much greater than in medium/industrial and small district cities (Nebebe, 2020). When migrants arrive in groups, they bring their cultures with them, resulting in cultural intermediaries. Physical contact between persons from various ethnic groups/families can sometimes result in the sharing of genetic characteristics (Hanson, 2009).

Rural-urban migration in underdeveloped nations is undoubtedly just as stressful and has a comparable impact on migrants' mental health as international migration. The separation from family and social networks is especially difficult, becoming an unrelenting source of anxiety for the majority of rural-urban migrants. Both are likely to contribute to migrants' increased proclivity for risky sexual behavior (Yang et al., 2012). Rural-urban migrants, on the other hand, are concentrated on the outskirts of the urban economy and, with few exceptions; work in the unclean, risky, and dead-end jobs that urban residents avoid. With rare exceptions, most rural-urban migrants are socially, culturally, and residentially separated from "mainstream" culture, and are frequently looked down on and subjected to institutional discrimination and social stigma. Despite limited economic gains in comparison to their rural origins, most rural migrants experience little social or cultural assimilation in the city and feel helpless, insecure, discontented, and resentful, all of which make them vulnerable to mental health problems & risky sexual behaviors (Wong et al., 2010)

#### **2.4. The Nature of Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia**

There is widespread agreement in Sub-Saharan Africa that economic advancement is the key motivator for internal migration. Remittances sent by migrants are described as one of the most powerful and all-encompassing phenomena in Africa's migration systems. Migration allows a household to increase its chances of survival by diversifying its revenue sources and spreading its risks (Stark and Bloom, 1985).

Within Ethiopian boundaries, migration has also been prevalent, mostly in the form of rural-urban movement patterns. Internal migration takes the form of rural-urban migration, rural-rural migration, and resettlement programs (Zenaselase, 2017). Some of the key driving forces behind this phenomenon include overpopulation, drought, poverty, land scarcity, and government agricultural policy. Many households also engage in seasonal work activities, resulting in transient movement from rural to urban areas (Assefa et al, 2016). Political instability, agricultural decline, and government resettlement plans of the 1980s impacted the type, direction, and amount of migration in Ethiopia over the previous two to three decades, according to Berhanu & White (2000).

Migration from rural to urban regions has both beneficial and negative effects on the host environment, as well as household incomes and social services. In Ethiopia, migration helps to satisfy the labor demands of receiving areas, brings back skills, and plays an important role in household income diversification and improvement. On the other side, it may increase the population, putting strain on urban social services and generating a labor shortage in the agricultural sector, putting the burden of responsibility on those left behind (Degefa, 2005).

### **2.5.Cause of Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia**

No one factor motivates Ethiopians to migrate from rural to urban areas; rather, there are push and pull variables that contribute to large-scale migration. The primary reasons for rural-urban migration in Ethiopia include the quest for urban work possibilities and the expectation of higher wages, the scarcity of farming land, the desire for better education, the need for adequate facilities, and rural poverty (Mitiku & Mulatu, 2021). Massive migrations of people have occurred in Ethiopia as a result of both natural and man-made calamities. Previous studies found that; landlessness, agricultural policy, land fragmentation, environmental degradation, population pressure, recurring drought and hunger, conflict, and political upheavals were the key reasons causing people to move around (Regassa& Yusuf, 2006).

Ethiopia has a long history of migration. Internal migratory movements in Ethiopia have been pushed in recent decades as a result of complex phenomena of the country's political, economic, social, and environmental conditions and variables such as drought, conflict, political unrest, forced migrations, and poverty. Small parcels of farmland, insufficient to sustain a family, have experienced a boom in movement in all sections of Ethiopia in recent years, and are a cause of rural-urban migration. Although access to farmland is a fundamental right for rural people of the country, it has become harder to fulfill this entitlement for the new generation due to rising land shortages. This is especially true in Ethiopia's highlands, where population concentrations have skyrocketed. The shortage of farmland coupled with crop failure and large family size in Ethiopia's highlands, along with a lack of non-farm work possibilities in rural regions, has driven youngsters away from agricultural livelihoods and rural villages. On the other hand, youth migration to cities and towns in search of better livelihoods, which have better education, technology, and other basic social services than rural areas (Keefelegn, 2020).

## **2.6. The Consequence of Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia**

### **2.6.1. Economic Effect**

In many cases of migration economic gain has been the prime objective. Rural migrants' economic gains might be a valuable asset that can be transmitted to rural regions in the form of capital, technology, learning awareness, knowledge, commerce, commodities or services, and so on. Migrants work in a variety of professions, primarily in the service and informal sectors. They primarily work in the 3-d occupations – demanding, dirty, and dangerous – that the urban population dislikes because they are too difficult or distasteful (Tiffen, 1995).

Rural-urban migration is selective in terms of specific qualities, and it has an impact on the demographic makeup of sending areas. Outmigration regions lose a disproportionately high percentage of their population that is younger and more educated. As the proportional share of the economically active working labor force decreases, the proportion of the overall population that is economically dependent rises, resulting in a decline in rural productivity which directly affects the overall national economy (Melesse & Nachimuthu, 2017).

The majority of Ethiopian rural-urban migrants lack the skills and formal education required to obtain well-paying, secure jobs in the formal sector, forcing them to work in the informal sector. As a result, they make money by working as beggars, street sellers, housekeepers, day laborers, loading and unloading products, commercial sex workers, shoe shiners, and handcart pushers for low salaries (Ahmed, 2020). Some of the migrants work in local beverage making, such as *tela* and *areke* sales, as well as retailing onions and potatoes in a throng market. Few migrants also engage in woodwork and metalworking work, as well as stone chipping as a source of income. These working circumstances can be exploitative, and unsafe, and lead to financial insecurity, which internleaves rural-urban migrants economically poor (Abebe, 2014; Tacoli et al., 2015; Atnafu, Oucho & Zeitlyn, 2014).

### **2.6.2. Demographic Consequence**

The population size of both receiving and sending areas is significantly affected by migration. Because the vast majority of immigrants are males and females of reproductive age, increased migration is predicted to lower rural population growth while urban population growth is expected to increase. The age selectivity of rural-urban migration brings more young adults to cities, which raises crude birth rates in cities. Environmental contamination is another source of worry for the general population in the lack of a comprehensive waste management system (Standing, 1984; Bimerew, 2015).

The increase in the city's population is due to rural-urban migration in Ethiopia. This suggests that rural-urban migration has played an equal role in the rise of the city's population as natural increases (fertility of urban residents). In conclusion, it may be reasoned that the challenges that urban residents confront are caused by fast population expansion, which is exacerbated by rural-urban migration (Bimerew, 2015). Rural migrants may compete with urban inhabitants for the consumption of scarce public facilities and services, or they may modify the consumption component of the whole city population by affecting demographic features, influencing urban residents' access to social services (Zhang, 2013).

The age distribution of the population is also crucial to examine. The youth boom, a population phenomenon, has been proven to influence the chance of civil strife, corruption, and democracy breakdown. Because youth are relatively easily mobilized, with fewer responsibilities to families and careers, the youth wave is considered a factor facilitating violent conflict (frequently not yet married and not fully integrated into the job market). They are also uncommitted to a particular way of life, allowing them to easily influence social and political matters; because of such kinds of situations in the urban areas, rural-urban migrant youths are forced to spend their productive age in prison which affects their economic and psycho-social wellbeing (Yair & Miodownik, 2016; Moller, 1968).

### **2.6.3. The consequence of providing urban basic facilities**

Migration has a variety of effects on urban basic infrastructure, in addition to demographic and economic factors. Squatter settlements in major cities are likely to be the most obvious effect of the increasing urban population. High housing costs and restrictions make it difficult for migrants to rent homes in cities, forcing them to relocate to the suburbs, where they face a lack of social services and police protection (Adepoju 1991, cited in Delango, 2019). In addition, because of a lack of access to shelter, most rural-urban migrant females are vulnerable to sexual exploitation including rape and abduction, and unwanted pregnancy. Schools, health services, and food costs are all under strain as a result of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia according to Melesse & Nachimuthu (2017). Insufficiency in power, water supply, a functioning sewerage system, road networks, and transit systems are additional consequences.

### **2.6.4. It results in the expansion of Urban Informal Sectors**

The majority of migrant workers labor in the urban informal sector, resulting in poor productivity and few opportunities to escape poverty. There is, however, substantial evidence that migrants may transcend poverty even if they stay in the informal sector. The preponderance of migrants appears to develop their jobs and enterprises. Self-employment accounts for 70% of informal employment in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and 62% in North Africa (NA) (McCatty, 2004). Activities in the urban informal sector can be labor-demanding, requiring cooperation from every member of the household who can work. The majority of employees that enter the informal sector in cities are recent rural migrants who have been unable to find work in the formal sector. Their primary motivation for working in the informal sector is to earn enough money to support themselves and their families (McCatty, 2004).

According to Mulungu (2018), the majority of young rural-urban migrants lack formal education and the essential occupational skills to work in the urban labor market. As a result, the majority of young urban ward migrants end up working in low-wage industries such as petty commodity trading, barmaids, commercial sex workers, street food sellers, and commuter taxi conductors. Due to a lack of wage work opportunities in town, such as the decline of businesses and a scarcity of formal jobs, the majority of the young rural-urban migrants engage in the informal sector.

Youngsters migrate from rural regions to cities owing to a general lack of socioeconomic amenities that would revitalize social life. It has been demonstrated that once in city areas; they encounter the problem of unemployment in the formal sector and so end up in the informal sector, where income is poor and sporadic. It has been observed that because of the poor wages in the informal sector and their sporadic nature, these migrating youths resort to illegal methods of subsistence. Due to the scarcity of urban services, city inhabitants compete for their usage. Poor migrants are frequently impoverished, leaving them exposed to chances in the criminal world. Most migrants are unable to locate adequate housing and hence wind up in overcrowded slum quarters. Overcrowding in the slums frequently leads to social disorder and the development of a violent lifestyle. People who engage in these humiliating occupations are typically destitute and readily purchased. This is why the majority of migrants engage in violence. They are constantly exploited for political ambition by politically prominent people (Kakwagh, 2019).

## **2.7.Challenges of Rural to Urban Migration in Ethiopia**

Since moving to urban areas, rural-urban migrants have had to overcome several socioeconomic difficulties. For instance, it might be exceedingly challenging for migrants to get an identity card in the appropriate urban setting. A migrant must dwell in the urban region for six months before declaring their new address and getting a new identity card that represents their location, according to the World Bank Report on Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia (2015). A migrant will still be unable to apply for an identification card since only those who own property in urban centers are eligible, as stated in the study. Finding a job and keeping it in the city was one of the migrants' economic problems. The majority of the rural to urban migrants in the urban areas work in informal sectors. Less money is provided to those who work in this sector. They frequently use unethical methods of support, such as prostitution and labor-intensive, tough employment (Atinafu et.al, 2014). As a result of the current situation's inability to handle the city's rapidly expanding population, there is a severe housing shortage. As a result, having neither permanent residence nor a valid form of identity can severely restrict one's access to both formal work and health services. As a result, there are few prospects for rural migrants in urban centers, and daily living there typically falls short of expectations (Fransen, 2009). Sometimes immigrants struggle to simply assimilate into their new communities. Integration is the process through which newcomers become accepted members of society (Massey, 1998). A society in which all social groups share a common socioeconomic and cultural existence is referred to as being integrated. However, other migrants experience difficulties in forging positive bonds with their host communities, and they feel the effects of this for a while (Moscato, 2019).

## Chapter Three

### Research Methods

#### 3.1. Background of the Study Area

Jimma town is the capital and administrative center of the Zone of the Oromia Regional State, Southwest Ethiopia. It is located at a distance of 350 km away from the capital of Ethiopia- Addis Ababa. The town is situated on a little hill to the left of the river Gibe, an affluent of the Omo River, which has a large alluvial plain. Two little streams, the Aweyitu and Kitto, traverse it before joining the Gibe at the Gilgal (small) Gibe. The geographical coordinates of the town are approximately 7°41' N latitude and 36° 50' E longitude. The town is found at an average altitude of about 1780 m above sea level and in the climatic zone locally known as “Woyna Daga” (1500–2400 m above sea level) and receives an average rainfall between 1200 and 2400 mm per annum. The maximum and minimum annual temperature of the area is 28.8 and 11.8<sup>0</sup>C, respectively. The maximum precipitation occurs from June to August, with an average monthly rainfall of 240 to 275 mm, and the minimum rainfall occurs from December to February with an average of 38 mm. Jimma has plenty of year-round evergreen wetlands that support biodiversity, livestock, and socioeconomic activities. The total population of Jimma town is estimated to be more than 207,000 with a growth rate of 4.11% per annum according to the data from the town’s municipality office. The population density of Jimma town is expected to be 4,151 persons/sq.km<sup>2</sup>. Jimma is the largest urban center in southwestern Ethiopia. The town for the most part came into its present shape during the Italian Occupation. The greatest and most influential of the five kingdoms established by the Oromo in the Gibe area of southern Ethiopia was Abba Jifar. Jimma town covers a total area of 100.2 km. Previously the towns have into 21 *Kebele* but currently, it is restructured into 13 *Kebele* (Jimma town Municipality, 2004; Wondafrash, 2013; Wakene, 2014; Mengistu, 2016; Shimelis, 2020).

### **3.2. Research Design**

Research design is considered the blueprint and cornerstone of any study since it facilitates various research operations. The primary goal of this study is to investigate the challenges that are facing rural-urban migrants in Jimma town because the socio-economic challenges of the rural-urban migration on rural-urban migrants are the least researched area in Jimma town.

The research was conducted using a descriptive study design. Qualitative research involves and aids a researcher in gaining a comprehensive and nuanced understanding of a certain social context. It aims to comprehend a given study problem or topic from the views of rural-urban migrants in Jimma town (Mack et al, 2005). This research used a constructivist approach and used phenomenology as its main method. A phenomenological method was chosen above other qualitative research methodologies because it is essentially an in-depth examination of the unit in question and investigates subjective experiences of the phenomena (Creswell, 2009). Talking to study participants and allowing them to express their stories and experiences provides a holistic understanding of the subject under investigation (Creswell, 2007). As a result, a phenomenological study was employed to investigate and collect detailed information about the issue under investigation.

To meet the deadline for completing the research, the study was a cross-sectional study, which collects data at a single point in time (Cherry, 2000). Single time, the relevant data to explore and characterize the concept of the challenges facing rural-urban migrants in Jimma town was collected.

### **3.3. Sampling technique**

The populations under this study are rural-urban migrants in Jimma town. The major objective of this research determines the sampling process. According to Mack et al (2005) confirmed, the research objectives and the characteristics of the study population determine

which and how many people to select for the study. Therefore, rural-urban migrants living in Jimma town served as the main study participants.

A snowball technique was used to conduct the study. The purposive sampling technique was implemented to get the first subject of the study. Three *Kebeles* of Jimma town (Ginjo Guduru, Furstale, and Bocho Bore *Kebeles*) were selected purposely because the *Kebeles* are located at the peripheries of the town and the majority of rural-urban migrants are believed to dwell in these *Kebeles*. Additionally, key informants from the Jimma town women children, and youth affairs office, labor and social affairs office, police office, trade and enterprise development office, and Family Guidance Association Jimma Branch were interviewed using a semi-structured interview guide to gather in-depth information.

### **3.4. Sampling Size**

Purposive sample sizes are frequently calculated using theoretical saturation, which refers to the point in data gathering when new data no longer adds to the understanding of the study issues (Mack et al, 2005). According to Nixon and Wild (2012), there is currently no description of how saturation is calculated and no practical guidelines for establishing sample sizes for purposively sampled interviews. Varying textbooks recommend different sample sizes for phenomenological research, but in actuality, a sample of 6 to 20 people is enough (Ellis, 2016). In phenomenological research, Creswell (1998) suggested conducting interviews with up to ten persons. Therefore, a total of 20 rural-urban migrants were interviewed. Among the rural-urban migrants involved in this research, 12 of them were females and 8 of them were males. These 20 participants were selected purposely by assuming that they can give enough information about the topic under study. The criteria for inclusion of interview participants were based on the assumption of their experience and knowledge about the challenges of rural-urban migration on urban ward migrants in the study area. Rural-urban migrants with a migration history of between 1 – 10 years were given high emphasis

during the selection of study participants. A participant with 7 years of migrant history to Jimma town was the highest migration and 2 years of migrant history is the lowest. Participants in the age range of 19 – 32 years were involved in this study. The participant with the educational level of 10<sup>th</sup> grade was found to be the highest educational level of a participant in this study and the 4<sup>th</sup> grade was the lowest educational level of study participants. In addition to this migrants who engaged in the informal economic sector were included. Migrants working in private houses as domestic workers, and day laborers who came to Jimma town from rural villages of the surrounding Woredas of Jimma Zone, Kaffa Zone, Gurage Zone, Dawuro Zone, Wolaita Zone, etc. were interviewed to gather in-depth data which emanates from their lived experience/emic knowledge on the issue under investigation (detail in annex one).

### **3.5. Method of Data Collection**

When performing qualitative research, it is preferable to use a variety of data collection approaches rather than relying on a single data source (Creswell, 2007). The study used both primary and secondary data collection methodologies to gain a thorough grasp of the case at hand. Primary data sources are those that are obtained for the first time, and hence have an original nature (Kothari, 2004). The primary data-gathering methods in this project included an in-depth interview, a key informant interview, and a focus group discussion. To have a thorough understanding of the topic under investigation, reviewing materials such as published books, journal articles, and electronic information, as well as published and unpublished reports on rural-urban migration, provided secondary data.

#### **3.5.1. In-depth Interview**

People with a lot of expertise and experience in the topic were purposefully chosen for the interview. The use of interviews is thought to be crucial in this study since it attempted to investigate and gain a deeper understanding of the existing situation of rural-

urban migration in the studied area. To gain a better understanding of the issue from the perspective of the rural-urban migrants (participants), the study used a semi-standardized interview with open-ended questions. Furthermore, as Creswell (2007) mentioned, open-ended questions help the researcher to listen to the perspectives of participants better than closed-ended questions. Because this is a qualitative and descriptive study, data were collected using semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions. Before the actual date of the interview participants were asked the appropriate date and time for the interview via phone calling and the favorable date and time for the participant were taken based on their interest. The interview was conducted face-to-face with people in the research area who are purposely selected (detail in annex one). During the interview, Participants have been given an overview of the study's goal and nature before being asked to provide their informed permission to participate. The study's academic goal was disclosed, and participants were informed that their decision to participate or not would be respected. Participants were advised of their rights to withdraw from the study or not participate if any problems arise. As a result, only those participants who gave their informed consent would have their replies collected for the study. Participants were asked open-ended questions to explain their experience on the issue under investigation at their homes. To get more detailed information about the issue under investigation, probing questions were asked to the participants and great effort was put to make the interview more interactive. Participants were allowed to ask questions when they encounter ambiguity and proper explanation was given. At the end of the interview, participants were given a chance to additional comments and suggestions regarding the issue under study. Finally, words of gratitude were forwarded by the investigator and the session of the interview was ended. Responses from the participant were recorded using a voice recorder, and most important notes were taken to help the data analysis. The interview was conducted for an average of 1 hour for each participant.

### **3.5.2. Key informant interview**

Key informants from Jimma town government sectors such as; the women's, children, and youth affairs office, labor and social affairs office, police office, and trade and enterprise development office, were interviewed. In addition, an expert working in NGOs (particularly from the Family Guidance Association Jimma branch) was involved in the key informant interview using a semi-structured interview guide to gather in-depth information about the challenges of rural-urban migration on urban ward migrants in the study area. Formulate study questions. Before meeting the KIs a short interview guide was prepared. Then key informants from the above sector were selected considering that they have a direct relation with the issue under investigation. These key informants were contacted at their office before the actual date of the interview to get their willingness to participate in the interview or not. Once getting their willing to take part in the interview an appointment was set to conduct the interview. On the date appointed each key informant was interviewed. Key informants have been given an overview of the study's goal and nature before being asked to provide their informed permission to participate. The study's academic goal was disclosed, and KIs were informed that their decision to respond or not would be respected. After getting their informed decision to participate in the interview and giving their signed consent to a voice recording of their response, the session of conducting the interview was conducted. The key informant interview was conducted at the office of each KI and an average of 1.5 hours was used to conduct the interview. The responses of the KI were recorded using a voice recorder.

### **3.5.3. Focus Group Discussion**

Focus group discussions were done in addition to in-depth and key informant interviews to support the responses obtained from interviews. Rural-urban migrants of the town, including young and adult persons of both sexes, have participated in the FGD. They were expected to have gathered knowledge about the income, trends, causes, and

repercussions of migrations in the research area. Two focus group discussions with 10 participants in each were held, each with rural-urban migrants 10 females and 10 males. The FGD with those of rural-urban migrants was held on Sunday. After some of the participants were contacted on Sunday, which was possible as it was convenient to find most of them and an appointment for FGD was given to be held on the next Sunday. Accordingly, those informants who gave their consent were involved in FGD on the appointment day. On that day FGD one with females and the other with male rural-urban migrants was conducted. Expected potential rural-urban migrants were selected by the researcher for the FGD discussion among the non-migrants at the place of origin. In the focus group discussion, each group had roughly ten people as suggested by Creswell (1998). The total number of people who participated in the group discussion was 20. Among them, ten males and ten females were included in the focus group discussion. Rural-urban migrants from a variety of backgrounds and viewpoints, including a range of age groups, ethnicities, educational levels, and migration experiences, were brought together for focus group discussions (FGDs). Participants were sorted into groups based on gender, roughly dividing male and female rural-urban migrants. Those who were willing to assent before the discussion were taken into consideration while choosing the participants. We received verbal consent before the FGDs began and held them in the Jimma Bonga Catholic Secretariat Social Development office mini-hall. The purpose of the research was presented to the participants before the commencement of the FGDs, and each participant's introduction was used. The participants received no payment of any kind. In addition to handwriting, talks were recorded using a voice recorder to capture all the material and prevent the discussion facilitators from forgetting anything. This allowed for more accurate transcription of the comments, which were subsequently translated into English (detail in annex two).

### **3.6.Method of Data Analysis**

Text, written words, phrases, or symbols expressing persons, acts, and events in social life comprise qualitative data (Krueger and Neuman, 2006). To meet the study's specific aims, categories of themes were defined based on the data collection procedures used and the data collected. Using numerous data-gathering methods (Creswell, 2007) and data triangulation with diverse collection instruments, the reader was assured of the transparency, clarity, and reliability of the data (Jack and Baxter, 2008).

The information gathered from various sources (in-depth interview, key informant interview, FGD, and document review) was thematically converged during the analysis. Convergence provides strength to the conclusions, according to Jack and Baxter (2008), because the many parts of data are interlaced to encourage a better understanding of the subject at hand. Inductive thematic analysis was applied during the analysis of the data gathered. Because the researcher intended to generate a theme from the data gathered, for that matter using an inductive approach was very important.

During the analysis of the data gathered the first step taken was to familiarize with the data gathered to know data very well. This step involved transcribing audio, reading through the text and taking initial notes, and generally looking through the data to get familiar with it. The second step in the analysis process was generating codes to organize the data at a granular, specific level. Coding is the most basic division, or component, of the raw data or information that can be evaluated in an important way concerning the phenomenon. The third step involved an examination of the coded and organized data mines to look for probable themes of broader connotation. Themes were constructed through scrutinizing, mingling, matching, and even graphically mapping how codes relate to one another. The fourth next up was reviewing the themes generated before to make sure that our themes are useful and accurate representations of the data. Theme reviewing was done to make sure whether the

theme has adequate supporting data or not, to check whether the data included are coherent in supporting that theme or not, and to be clear if some themes are too large or diverse. The fifth step of the data analysis process was defining and naming themes to verbalize precisely what we mean by each theme and reckoning out how it helped to comprehend the data. This step involved coming up with a neat and easily understandable name for each theme. The final step of the data analysis was writing up the analysis of the data.

### **3.7. Quality Assurance**

A scientific research method is free of personal bias or prejudice, one that is used to determine demonstrable qualities of a phenomenon that can be verified, one that is guided by logical reasoning rules, one that proceeds systematically, and one that implies internal consistency (Kothari, 2004).

To ensure internal trustworthiness or credibility, this study applied extended engagement with participants, a form of triangulation, and consent assurance before data collection. A fellow check also was performed to ensure internal credibility. The researcher reviewed the transcribed papers to ensure that what is written corresponded to what the participants said and recorded on the voice recorder. This ensured that the transcription and translation processes retain the natural or contextual meaning and that the situation of affairs is presented as it is on the ground.

The interview guide was checked and adjusted depending on the face and content validity during the study. Face validity concerns were addressed during the face-to-face interview. Before beginning the data collection, peer assessments ensured that the tools are content-valid. Second-year MSW students from the school of social work and advisor checked and provided feedback on the tools. According to Andrew (2004), the fresh viewpoint that peers may help them to dispute assumptions established by the investigator, whose connection to the issue often prevents him or her from viewing it objectively.

Recording the interviews and transcribing them without adding personal interpretation was utilized to eliminate personal biases. Using prolonged and persistent fieldwork, multiple method strategies, participant language verbatim accounts, low-inference descriptors, and other strategies, trustworthiness can be achieved by removing bias and increasing the researcher's truthfulness of a proposition about some social phenomenon (Bashir et al, 2008). As a result, a variety of data-gathering methods were used to double-check the information gathered. The analysis also included literal statements and quotations from participants.

### **3.8.Ethical Considerations**

When doing human research, the well-being of study participants must be a key consideration (Mack, et al, 2005). As a result, this study has ensured that all ethical and moral standards of social work research are followed. Participants have been given an overview of the study's goal and nature before being asked to provide their informed permission to participate. The study's academic goal was disclosed, and participants were informed that their decision to participate or not would be respected. Participants were advised of their rights to withdraw from the study or not participate if any problems arise. To conduct a voice record of their response participants were asked to give their signed permission. As a result, only those participants who gave their informed consent would have their replies collected for the study.

Participants decided after receiving the above-mentioned facts. As Mack et al (2005) established the three key concepts of autonomy, beneficence, and justice form the foundation for this study. The first principle assures autonomy and respect for individuals of study participants. Data was stored in a secure location once it has been gathered and evaluated. Confidentiality was preserved to the greatest extent practicable. Concerns about confidentiality and privacy were stated properly, and anonymous expression was utilized.

Another concept is beneficence, which involves a commitment to minimizing the dangers of research while increasing the benefits to studying participants. The study ensured that any actions made do not endanger the subjects. Participants' responses were not utilized in any way that might jeopardize the study's safety. The participants' privacy was protected by not revealing their real identities. For that matter, the real name of the participant was not used rather the changed name was used. The names in this study are not the real name of the interview participants. The third element is justice, which entails a fair division of the risks and benefits associated with research. Those who shoulder the difficulties of research involvement would profit from the information obtained as well.

## Chapter Four

### Results and Discussion

#### 4.1. Results

##### 4.1.1. About the study participant

This thesis work involved a total of 20 purposefully selected participants for an in-depth interview. Of the in-depth interview participants, 12 were females and 8 were males. The age range of the participant was between 19 and 32 (a minimum of 19 years and 32 was the maximum age). The maximum educational grade level of the participant interviewed was 10<sup>th</sup> grade; on the other hand, 4<sup>th</sup> grade was the minimum. All the participants are involved in the informal sector to get employment opportunities such as street vending, shoe shining, domestic work, daily work, etc. The participants traveled to Jimma town from different rural villages surrounding the town and from different parts of the neighboring zone of the regions in the country such as the Kaffa zone of South West Ethiopia Region and Gurage zone of Southern Nation Nationalities and People Regional State.

On the other hand, 20 participants were involved in the focus group discussion which was conducted in two groups with 10 participants in each group. In the FGD 10 female participants were involved in one group and males in the other group. All the participants were in different age groups ranging from 20 – 35 and they have different years of living experience in Jimma town minimum was 1 year and the maximum was 8 years. The educational background of FGD participants ranges from 2<sup>nd</sup> grade to 12<sup>th</sup> grade. Like those interview participants, FGD participants are involved in the informal sector of employment to win their daily bread.

A total of five key informants from the Jimma town government sector line department participated in this study. The deputy head of Jimma Town's women's, and children's affairs office (Female participant), the head of Jimma Town's labor and social affairs

office (Female Participant), the leader of the public relations division of Jimma Town's police officers (Male Key informant), and the deputy head of Jimma Town's trade and enterprise development office (Female participant), were interviewed. In addition, a Gender Based Violence Program team leader (male participant) from the Family Guidance Association Jimma branch) was participating in the key informant interview.

For the sake of confidentiality, all the names indicated throughout this thesis are changed (Pseudo names). For more detailed information on the background of the study participants, one can refer to the annex attached at the end of this document (annex-one).

#### **4.1.2. Transition to urban life and job search**

Migrants choose their location mostly depending on anticipated occupation prospects in the town, as well as the availability of a network of family, friends, or colleagues. Rural migrants often remained with family members (e.g., siblings, relatives), agents/brokers, friends, or on their own when they arrived in an urban district. Migrants' expenditures were frequently subsidized (covered) by hosts (anyone willing to accompany them in the urban center) until they found work. Females occasionally offered their hosts free domestic services. Those who arrived in the city knew no one depended on their wits and good fortune. Abdulfeta (a young man who came from Limu Woreda of Jimma Zone and lived five years in Jimma town by engaging in street vending of small items) said,

*I strolled down the road seeking work. I also looked into what kinds of occupations were easily accessible and how to connect with others. During this time, I would frequently go to church and beg for food because I knew no one in the town when I came to Jimma. I finished all my money and got difficulties having my meal once a day because of that I always went to the church and beg for alms.*

Migrants typically found the transition into urban life difficult. The loudness and movement of a bajaj amid city traffic disturbed one young woman. For people that travel between areas, language is a huge concern and those who do not often find themselves derided for their rustic accents and attire. Because of their high visibility, they were easy prey for brokers and criminals, and many were victimized by robbery and intimidation. The shift from rural to urban is especially difficult for women. Those without a safe place to sleep must spend the night in *Khat* “ጭታ” rooms, where they are susceptible to the whims of clients. According to participants, a female migrant is likely to be pressured into engaging in sexual activity upon arrival, resulting in unintended pregnancy or communicable illness. Most migrants look for work only after they arrive. Bereket a 27 years old young man who came from the Gurage zone of SNNPR and was involved in street vending said,

*Nobody guarantees you a job when you leave your house. Instead, you grab the opportunity on landing a job. As a result, after I came, I went out and looked for work on my own.*

Participants appeared split on whether the job search process was tough for them. Some were able to swiftly move into other occupations thanks to the assistance of an agency/broker or a family, while others were unable to find work for some time. Tigist (a young lady who came from Yem special Woreda of SNNPR and was involved in domestic work) said, “*I gave the agent/broker the required percentage, and he found my work. There were good times and bad times for me.*” Abdulfeta (a young man who came from Limu Woreda of Jimma Zone and lived five years in Jimma town by engaging in street vending of small items) said,

*I struggled to find a job when I first arrived here. Through a connection, I was eventually able to find a job. For five months, I was jobless. It's quite tough to get working, and we're doing everything we can to make ends meet.*

In the employment hunt for migrants, nepotism and bribery were mentioned as common challenges. “*All of it is handled by family in this town,*” said Mohammed (a 32 years old man who came from Mana Woreda of Jimma Zone and was involved in daily labor, he completed grade 9<sup>th</sup> and lived in Jimma town for six years. Kedir completed 10<sup>th</sup> grade came from Sekoru and worked in construction complaints,

*Our most serious issue is nepotism. We hear of employment openings at public businesses, but only those who have kin working there will be hired. When you complain about this to the appropriate authority, they will swear they will remedy it, but they will not because they will be bribed.*

Furthermore, many FGD participants thought that having a reference while trying to find work was inconvenient. The bureaucratic system, according to Belay is a concern. “*Whenever we inquire about work with the town management, they schedule us for the following day.*” Gelana (a 19 years old young man that came from Dedo Woreda of Jimma Zone and works as a waiter in one of the cafeterias, he completed seventh grade and has lived for two years in Jimma town) mentioned a lack of transparency: “*They publicize job openings, but we have no idea who receives the position. The requirements are unknown to us.*” Ayantu (30 years old woman who completed 8<sup>th</sup> grade and lived for 8 years in Jimma town by being involved in domestic work; she came from Shebe Woreda of Jimma Zone) brought out the disparity between the number of possible jobs and the number of people looking for work. She said, “*There is a big difference between the amount of work to be done and the number of workers.*”

When jobs are found, they are usually informal. Construction work (as a day laborer), shoe shine, petty trade (selling gum, tissues, lemons, candy, firewood, tea, coffee, food, qolo, fruit, and coal), and domestic work. Some people recalled becoming involved in weeding on huge commercial farms. Workplace challenges include excessive hours and underpayment for hard physical labor. Meseret (a 20 years old lady engaged in domestic work for 2 years in Jimma town, she completed 10<sup>th</sup> grade)said, “*We are reimbursed far too little, yet we give up resting to working.*”

Many who sell products (small items) on the sidewalk are routinely harried by security officers, police, and businesspersons who dislike migrants because they do not pay taxes on the commodities they sell. A male focus group discussion participant who was involved in street vending of small items such as socks, underwear, etc.on the sidewalk said: “*Working on the sidewalk is quite difficult. People mock you, push you to close your business, and regard you as a pauper.* ”

While some found jobs quickly after coming, others had to wait even longer to find finding productive work. Migrants mentioned the isolation and loneliness that comes with being unemployed in a new location. When one migrant's employment was terminated, he felt isolated from his near and dear ones. Most describe their hardship as a result of the scarcity of inexpensive food and the difficult living circumstances that resulted. Some had to rely on food scavenged from hotels and restaurants. One migrant highlighted the lack of empathy he faced from the locals, who kept questioning why someone with his physical capacity refused to work and persisted in eating leftovers. Migrants take a realistic approach to finding work. Ayantu (30 years old woman involved in domestic work said:

*We take on any task that comes our way. We don't have a specific position.*

*For example, I've labored on a construction project, as a valet attendant, and in other forms of sidewalk selling.*

### **4.1.3. Specific challenges faced by rural migrants**

Rural migrants encounter several problems in their new environment, spanning from job-seeking difficulty to general precariousness, in the first several phases of migration. The obstacles associated with their interaction with their workplace and the local authorities are substantial for people without a social network in the urban center. Because rural-to-urban labor migration occurs inside one's own country and occurs most often informally and through personal networks, it has received little attention from legislators or the broader public and is certainly not comparable to international labor migration. It would be interesting to figure out why this is so. Internal migrants, on the other hand, are vulnerable to exploitation at employment.

#### ***4.1.3.1. Informal, and unregulated recruitment processes***

Local recruiting is far less controlled and informal than international labor migration, and it is rarely reported. Governments are unlikely to oversee or regulate the practices of local recruiting and placement agencies/brokers. Alemitu (a 24 years old young lady who lived for 5 years working as a domestic worker, she came from Gimbo Woreda of Kaffa Zone) said; *“the recruitment is undertaken by social connections and it is very difficult to have a job contract agreement rather than the agreement is made oral.”* According to the key informant from the town's trade and enterprise development office unlicensed, informal recruiters are expected to outnumber registered agencies. A key informant from the labor and social affairs office emphasized that the town's informal labor market has resulted in a largely unregulated, extremely informal, and unscrupulous labor market, posing risks to both domestic workers and employers. FGD revealed that rural-urban migrants may be unaware of the exact conditions under which a domestic worker was recruited, which can have major consequences. Often, the general population is unaware of these issues or feels they do not exist.

According to the town's social affairs office, newcomers from rural areas with low levels of education would have the following primary challenges: they experienced hurdles such as the unavailability of a warrant, the employer's dishonesty during the deal, a lack of funds to pay the intermediaries/brokers, difficulties of working part-time, and employment volatility. Because of their challenges in their work setting, they have been obliged to remain in the circle of exploitation or challenges they encountered in their working setting, they have been obliged to remain in the circle of exploitation or to resign from their jobs with great difficulty. The agony of rural migrants did not cease when they got work. Abuse and financial exploitation of these young individuals by their potential employers begin during their engagement. Employers tricked rural migrants (particularly those engaged as domestic workers/housemaids) by concealing true information about their home conditions throughout their agreement. They are not paying reasonable wages that match their workload. Domestic servants are paid only after signing a mutual agreement and remunerating the commission to the brokers. They are aware of the hidden realities in the homes where they serve. Chaltua young lady who came from Sigo Woreda of Jimma Zone, serving as a daily laborer, house servant as a part-timer, and coffee maker at the hotel has revealed:

*I do not however want to be a maid since employers aren't trustworthy. They offered us details throughout the deal; however, when we got back home, much of what they informed us had nothing to do with our job or I can say it is different from what they told us during the agreement.*

Ajayiba (a 22 years old young lady with an educational background of 10<sup>th</sup>-grade level and involved in domestic work, she came from Dedo Woreda of Jimma) went on to say that the employers misled the maids about their household size, workload, readiness to support maids' participation in education, and the exact sorts of labor throughout the hiring

process. The task of the maid would rise in a large extended family. Maids would have an increased workload and experience significant levels of stress due to the responsibility of laundering clothing for the family and cooking food for each member of the home. Due to this, employers frequently withhold information about their living arrangements until maids accept to work. According to FGD finding the maid's life was impacted by this intentional lie in two different ways. They would principally not receive a fair wage, but because they paid commissions to agents, they would indeed continue to be in an undesirable condition. They were also susceptible to physical, mental, and financial abuse.

To pay commissions to the brokers, rural migrant workers have two options according to the key informant from the town's trade and enterprise development office: they will reimburse their broker immediately if they have sufficient cash; if not, their employers will pay and take that amount out of their monthly earnings. Since brokers are expected to get 15% or more of their pay as well as other charges for food, lodging, and traveling when domestic workers attempted to switch residences for a variety of reasons, they would suffer financially. If only they had the money to pay for brokers, maids might simply switch jobs. When employers pay the intermediaries'/brokers' remuneration, maids are compelled to continue working even if they don't want to until they have reimbursed the employers for their expenses. Such behaviors continue to be a cause of distress for them and have an impact on their mental health.

#### ***4.1.3.2. Being a “stranger” and being isolated in one’s own country***

Rural migrants from a far-flung village may be as much a stranger in their country's town as migrant workers. He/she might come from a tribe or ethnic group that is different from (and perceived as being of lower status than) the employer's or the city's, speak a different dialect or language, practice a different religion, be unable to read or write, or simply be unfamiliar with the practices of urbanized lifestyle.

Werkinesh (a 24 years woman who came from Kaffa zone and lived in Jimma town for five years by engaging in domestic work) explained the difficulty by saying

*When you visit a location you have never been to, it is challenging, uncomfortable, and tough since you miss your family. I was perplexed at first since I was unfamiliar with the area, and it took me some time to get acclimated to living in a city. I had never relocated from a rural region before, so it was challenging to adjust to city life. Even interacting with the locals proved to be challenging. You will always feel like a stranger since you are a newbie to society. Since I had no friends there, I felt lonely.*

Their social lives and access to public services in the city might be limited and constricted, and information relevant to their work and personal lives might be inaccessible. In such a situation, any rural migrant would be in a weak bargaining position for her/his employer and vulnerable to possible harassment and abuse according to the finding from FGD. The rural-urban migrants' psychological well-being was impacted by feelings of isolation and rejection. Ayantu (a 30 years old woman with an 8<sup>th</sup>-grade level domestic worker) elaborated: *“I didn't feel like I belonged to their family. They didn't seem to mind the connection as long as I completed my job correctly.”* Similarly, Tigist (27 years old woman who came from Yem special Woreda of SNNPR and working as a domestic worker) highlighted how she was pushed at work, contrasting her circumstances before migrating. She said,

*The countryside and Jimma are two very distinct worlds. You can have people's support and survive via consensual concern in the rural, but no one worries about you in Jimma. Therefore, you become a stranger even though you spend years in your employer's home.*



Participants stressed that although they resided with individuals they knew, they are subject to exploitation and victimization. Hanan who comes from the rural village of Shebe Woreda) said;

*I used to work as a maid around Mentina (one of the town's Kebele) using my relative's network and what I saw was a surprise. The house owner made me carry twenty liters of water from the public water Bono to the house all of the time. As a result, I became ill and suffered from a heart condition. I then phoned a relative, who assisted me in exiting the building,*

Because the migrants came from many rural communities surrounding Jimma town, getting a place to reside until they secured work was a major concern. They invest their money in meals, transportation, and hotel/boarding accommodations. A female participant also explained: “*Until I gained the second job, I spent my money on hotel accommodations, daily eating, transportation, and broker fees. That is why I am unable to save money.*” Mohammed (who works as a day laborer on a construction site and goes to night school), said:

*I had saved 2,500 birrs for my three-month wage, but robbers snatched it all on my way to night school registration. I used to spend a night using the opportunity to work as a guard in a hotel. During my stay at the hotel, I met a man who offered me 200 Birrs and invited me to spend some time at his house... Finally, I found a day work in "Merkato," more specifically in Jimma town's "Bishishe" section. However, the owners ordered me to leave their house in the evening. They knew I had no one in town, yet they nevertheless pushed me to leave. As a result, I called a hotel guard who is my friend and stayed with him the night.*

As the female FGD participant indicated above, rural migrants who work as domestic workers confront several problems in finding work. It compelled them to indulge in heinous acts such as prostitution. Domestic workers, according to Girma and Erulkar (2009), are more prone to become prostitutes, especially in urban areas.

The study revealed that obtaining a viable and desirable area to work for rural migrants involved in petty business, particularly street selling, is difficult, even though it has been referred to as informal self-employment based on the street. Based on the findings, it was determined that two sorts of rural migrants worked as street sellers. Street vendors and mobile street vendors were also stationed. As previously said, finding acceptable and marketable vending services locations was time-consuming and challenging for people who needed to work as stationed petty traders. In-depth interviews and focus groups revealed that whether workers were stationed or mobile, they took materials home when they stopped working every day and returned the next day carrying those goods. Furthermore, mobile rural-origin street vendors do not have a fixed location and work by going from one location to another in locations where people normally do commerce.

Young people who migrate from rural regions to urban looking for better career opportunities and a better standard of living are exposed to increased vulnerabilities. They might not have the same career opportunities as young people born in cities and have access to higher social capital, education, and other resources. They could also lack the welfare safety net of family, friends, and relatives who can give them some access to food and housing in cities during times of need, such as unemployment. The research participant shared a room, which was considered a shelter issue from the in-depth interview and FGDs. They were forced to live in crowded rental homes since they were unable to pay to rent a home on an individual basis. From the FGD, it was deduced that the majority of rental homes lack access to toilets, water, and other infrastructure that is essential for human existence.

According to the results of an in-depth interview, rural migrants' access to water for drinking and other uses is another difficult problem. Dejene (a 22 years old young man with a 9<sup>th</sup>-grade educational level involved in street vending) shared his experience by saying;

*The house we rented did not have access to water, so we purchased water from nearby areas instead. Due to the nature of our work schedules- we are working starting from the morning to the evening, there are occasions when we are unable to obtain water from the neighborhood since the neighbors who sold water to us locked their gates early in the evening when we got home from work. Due to a lack of water, we occasionally washed our clothing once a month and had a shower once every fifteen days.*

Another issue identified during FGD with rural migrants who rent residences in urban areas was a lack of access to hygienic toilets in rental dwellings and workplaces. Though there were toilets in rental residences, they were shared; the owners are usually unhappy since more people are using the toilet. Dejene reflects on the above reality concerning the toilet.

*I had to use the restroom in cafeterias and restaurants near my place of work every day since the house I rented to live in with my friends did not have a toilet. I take tea or coffee from the cafeteria every day only to use the restroom, which costs me more money. Because our rental home doesn't have a toilet, some members of the community occasionally have a bad attitude toward us.*

According to FGD findings, rural migrants always start working early in the morning in severely cold and muddy circumstances, especially during rainy seasons, and scorching weather conditions during winter seasons on the side of roadways. According to in-depth

interviews, the sunstroke in the afternoon shift, as well as the dry season, were equally difficult for them. As a male FGD participant noted, they lack appropriate clothing and other items to protect themselves from the hard weather conditions, which has resulted in various health concerns that have a detrimental impact on generating money. In-depth interviews revealed that young shoe shiners spend the entire day, from sunrise to dark, on the side of the streets to earn a living by providing shoe shine services to consumers. The work was competitive to obtain customers among shoe shiners, which reduced their earnings. Samuel, a shoe shiner who came from the Dawuro Zone of SNNPR, stated that working on the street was difficult and dangerous due to the nature of the occupation. He said,

*Due to prolonged exposure to sunlight and wind, I developed a severe headache and other health issues, and my natural physical skin color turned black like charcoal. Furthermore, tiredness/exhaustion and back pain from working for a long hour sitting in one spot without rest have an impact on my health. Another difficult issue to conquer is the dust and foul odor in the workplace.*

According to the findings of in-depth interviews and focus groups, the cash earned through street selling could not cover all expenditures, including the cost of a daily meal for these rural migrant workers. Findings revealed that food expenditures accounted for a larger proportion of expenses for these groups of rural migrants who make a living via petty selling on the street. Furthermore, the findings revealed that rent home bills were another source of stress for these folks, which could not be postponed to the next month. This circumstance required them to skip at least one term of meal to save money for argent and monthly constant rent housing bills.

#### **4.1.3.4. Abusive Living Conditions**

Domestic violence is the most common kind of human rights violation in the world, particularly among domestic workers in urban areas. Domestic violence is generally limited to violence against family members and children in most research (Tesfaye 2007). Many studies, according to Getachew (2006), overlook domestic violence against non-family individuals who live in the same house. Abuse of rural migrants in the urban center is a hidden reality. Two of the individuals mentioned sexual, verbal, and physical abuse.

Participants addressed the many sorts of nasty things they had received from their workplaces, including wage denial, bogus theft accusations, sexual misconduct, late remuneration, and modern slavery. Kedir a construction day laborer said;

*You will be obliged to work tough, even if you don't want to. They compel you to carry more than two stones instead of only one, and if you disagree, you will be fired. There is no time for a break, no time to eat, and no time to go to the bathroom.*

Those selling items on the sidewalk have also been accused of police violence. A Samuel, a shoe shiner who was involved in selling small items on the sidewalk said:

*We drive along thoroughfares to sell small products, but the police prohibit us from doing so. During a police raid, we were beaten and our properties are taken away. It can be hard to overcome at times, and most of the time, they seize our goods. We may not have remained in poverty if they hadn't; we might have built our business and transformed our lives if they hadn't.*

Hanan who comes from the rural village of Shebe Woreda) said,

*In my opinion, if I have the opportunity to work in my own country, I will not leave. I simply want to improve my situation here. However, there are so many obstacles in my way. For example, you will be unable to find a job, and even if you labor on the street, police will seize your belongings. They demand that we obtain a license. How can you receive a license if you work for such a small business?*

Any sexual act, attempt to obtain sexual pleasure, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using restraint by anyone irrespective of their correlation to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work, is defined as sexual violence. Duress may take many forms and involve varying degrees of force. Domestic servants are a particularly vulnerable category when it comes to harassment and bullying. Meseret (a 20 years girl who came from Wolita Zone) described her experience as follows.

*When the homeowners left the house, the younger male member of the household insisted on having sex with me. One dreadful day, he approached me violently and forced me to have sex, but I shouted angrily and he went away shabbily. He was super-colossal yet he never threatened me, and I left that house tranquility.*

Rural migrant domestic workers change jobs for a variety of reasons. Most of the time, they shift as a result of their repeated exposure to harassment and bullying. When they work in a bachelor's house their susceptibility increases.

Ayantuu said: *“There were several reasons for leaving one family (house) and joining another. The owner of the previous home, for example, was a bachelor and drank every night. He attempted to rape me one day. As a result, I fled home.”*

Harassment and bullying have a variety of effects on the physical and mental health of the rural migrant domestic servant. They are vulnerable to psychological stress, anxiety, difficulty sleeping, and severe terror because of their financial uncertainty, working in private residences, having restricted social networks, and the regular practice of bullying and rape. Ajayiba a domestic worker who live for four years in Jimma town said,

*The owner of the house in the last family where I served was living with his lone kid. He was frequently intoxicated and smoking cigarettes when he returned home late at night. He attempted to bother me one day. As a result, I was agitated and couldn't sleep properly. I couldn't sleep before he went to his bed because I didn't feel safe. When he wasn't home, I used to sleep during the day. Every time I saw him inebriated, I was troubled, wondered a much, and felt depressed.*

Tigist also explained the intentional act of sexual violence that she encountered:

*“Although I was so young, her spouse (the house's owner) tried to intimidate me. The man urged his wife to stay at their shop one day, then returned home and called me to organize his bedroom. He attempted to rape me out of nowhere, but when I screamed, he left me alone.”*

Verbal and Emotional torture insults and degradation was the most common forms of traumatic experiences experienced by domestic workers, and they had a significant impact on their psychological well-being. Employers have a detrimental impact on domestic employees' mentality by employing disparaging language. Workplace conflict continues to be a source of

stress for them. The majority of those who responded said that disparaging others was commonplace. Belay a 31 years old woman who came from Gurage Zone and works as a waiter in one of the restaurants shared her experience as well:

*The difficulty itself is irritating. My bosses treated me badly and humiliated me. Although I had labored for a long period, they claimed they did not expect me to sit and eat. They ridiculed, reviled, and degraded me. They even confiscated my phone as I left their house. They were haughty, ungracious, and cruel.*

The participant's reaction to the pestering and mistreatment may be seen in the example above. Such embarrassment and violence produce emotions of deprivation and degradation, which are harmful to her mental health. There is also a lot of arrogance and shame. Hanan (a young lady who came from Shebe Woreda of Jimma Zone and engaged in domestic work) described the problems she faced:

*There was a lot of mistreatment and assault altogether. Maids aren't even considered human by them. People demean us in ways that are profoundly hurtful to our emotions. We were respected and cherished in our immediate surroundings, just as we do by others. In the town, however, even if we treated them with regard, they did not behave decently.*

Relegation, disdain, and rejection of affection or carelessness harm domestic workers' mental health. The following is Belay's (working as a waiter) account:

*People didn't think we were on the same level as everyone else. They didn't think of us as equals; they didn't see us as humankind. I feel terrible when I think about this, yet there is another reality: everyone is equal. Even though we lower ourselves to win our daily bread, we are dignified human beings after all. I need respect.*

The majority of rural migrants who took part in the study were exposed to economic oppression. Daniel who came from the Dawuro area and works as a guard in a private house described his challenges as follows:

*The owner of the home requested me one day whether I wanted to save my monthly pay, and I accepted. For ten months, I worked. Later, I requested that my boss return the earnings he had held for me so that I may send them to my family. But he failed to pay the whole amount.*

Whenever rural migrants lost their jobs for a variety of causes, they utilized a variety of methods to recoup their losses. Some blindly accepted the dilemma, but others resorted to the brokers, who assisted them in receiving their income. Some rural migrants attempted to collect their wages with the assistance of the police and their family. Daniel stated,

*Employers are thorny. Even though I had a heavy workload, they did not pay me on time. I'd never gotten my pay in peace. I mostly got my money with the help of a policeman or official from the social affairs office.*

Ayantuu a 30 years old woman who works as a domestic worker has had a similar scenario and has detailed it below: *“When I sought to leave the home, the owners/employers refused to pay me for my labor. Insulting and slapping were also widespread.”*

The majority of the participants stated that they had a day off once a month. However, for various reasons, the majority of them did not take advantage of their free time. It was mostly owing to their narrow social networks and the little time allotted for breaks. But several of the responders claimed they didn't use their day off, even though they included it in their employment agreement. They said that their bosses were unwilling to provide them with break time. Even if bosses allowed the break time it is too short and not enough to visit the families and relatives in the town. On the other hand, the narrow social network that they have in the urban center hinders them to use their leisure time though it is once a month. Werkinsesh, who came from the Kaffa district, explained why and how she spends her break time as follows:

*I got a day off once a month, but I didn't make the most of it because the time was limited. They wanted me to take a break from 11:00 am until 4:30 pm once a month. This is a very limited time, and it is insufficient to see and interact with friends and family in town.*

The main issue rural migrants have with their employment is lengthy uncapped workweeks. Sometimes rural migrants who work as domestic workers wake up before anyone in the home and go to bed late after everybody.

Werkinesha domestic worker expressed her experience:

*Since the proprietor, for the most part, chewed Khat, I, as a rule, woke up at 5:00 a.m. and went to bed at midnight. I was employed to cook for the kids and drive them to school. I spend the day doing the same things each day, such as making food for the proprietor, cleaning the house, washing clothes and dishes, and so on.*

Tigist recounted how her inability to interact with her siblings harmed her mental health: “*I hadn't had any downtime while my work. They forbade me from communicating with my family. The proprietor had taken my telephone. I was using my cell phone to call my family.*”

Regrettably, the anguish that rural migrants (particularly those who work as domestic workers) experience is considerably more closely tied to their burden. A female FGD participant expressed the depth of her maltreatment in this way in a very substantial manner. She said:

*She (the homeowner) was a married woman, and her husband's parents used to reside nearby. I used to do all of the couple's housework. However, they made me launder the clothing of the extended family with no further compensation. I was experiencing severe neck aches. I couldn't even look down because of that. I left that house once more and began to work in some other house*

Migrants from the countryside to urban areas experience a variety of concurrent injustices and interference with their means of living. Participants in focus groups and interviewees confirmed that they were extremely vulnerable to verbal and physical abuse during work hours. Rural migrants in the city reportedly endure a lot of verbal and physical abuse, according to the findings of an interview conducted by the town's Women and

Children's Affairs Office. In-depth interviews revealed that street gangs rob them as they walk home at night and wait in the streets. Furthermore, it was believed that these street vendors were beaten when they refused to provide and protect themselves. For example, Abdulfeta's (a young street vendor) experience demonstrates the scenario. He said, "*When I returned home at night, a street-dwelling gangster smacked me in the ear and stole the money I had in my wallet.*"

Other forms of abusive treatment revealed by in-depth interviews and focus groups included verbal harassment thrown at young rural migrants engaged in informal self-employment such as the street vending of tiny products such as socks to consumers. The findings revealed that these young people had been subjected to verbal abuse, such as being humiliated. In-depth interviews revealed that customers mistreat young petty vendors owing to disagreements over the prices paid for the items they sell. An interview with Bereket (a 27 years old man who came from Gurage Zone and engaged in street vending) indicated,

*Disagreement on the price sought for the item we had was a source of consumer abuse. Prices are set depending on the nature and quality of the item, although some buyers prefer to pay the price they set for the item. During this period, disagreements occur, and consumers assault us with hurtful remarks that never define our identity or conduct. They are continually looking for means to degrade our status since we come from rural communities. During this time I feel bad.*

According to a key informant from the Jimma town office of Labor and Social Affairs, police abuse against rural-to-urban migrants occurs on occasion without justification. There were also working place security issues that were subjected to forced removal or dislocation for differing reasons when there is a road expansion, area development, or any

other construction that results in the displacement of these people who are struggling to earn their daily bread, and there is no framework in place by concerned ministries to provide them with an alternate solution place to work. Police also displace them for traffic reasons, which hurt their daily livelihood income. Individuals and companies will not chase or threaten anyone operating in huge stations since they are regarded to have the authorization to work there. However, for migratory youngsters who are always on the move, the acceptance of their activity is dependent on the particular time and location. Sometimes and in certain areas, they are permitted and allowed to operate without hindrance, but other times they are chased by policemen or security officers, making their livelihood extremely perilous and unstable.

Abdulfeta a young street vendor rural migrant shared his experience:

*police officers are offensive to us because they always confiscate all our property by the name of law enforcement but it is not the reality, they deal with us for corruption. Besides this, they always use their power to abuse our rights because sometimes they beat/slap us.*

Working place displacement and associated vulnerability results demonstrate that police and other state actors harassed and physically abused them at work. To this effect, migrant youth want the police to stop harassing them. Daniel a man who came from dawuro said,

*We came here to improve our lives and provide for our families, but the policemen are hurling the bottled water we sell and damaging our tools for cleaning shoes. They frequently refer to us as being unauthorized, so why don't they provide us with legal status and chances instead, I wonder? We are prepared to form ourselves into micro and small-scale organizations and even pay taxes.*

A key informant from the Women and children affairs office said: *“When rural migrant street children are suspected of committing specific forms of larceny on the street, everyone on the street rushes to strike them with whatever they have in their hands.”*

According to findings from FGD participants and key informant interviews, the experiences of rural-urban migrant street children leave them with minimal opportunity to attain basic needs such as food, shelter, education, and basic health care. Almost all of the health issues identified by rural to urban migrant street children are most likely connected to their way of living.

#### ***4.1.3.5. Access to Education and Other Social Services***

Despite having the right to an education, urban life has a variety of effects on rural migrants. Rural migrants struggled to get access to schooling and other social services because of their long working hours, meager pay, and the government's lax protection of their rights. Their difficulties include being unable to build and strengthen their social capital, developing significant social networks, going to visit religious sites, interact with their relatives, not having enough time to study and go to school, and receiving insufficient monthly wages compared to the number of hours they work. Gelanaa 19 years old young man with an educational background of 7<sup>th</sup> grade and working as a waiter explained with a sad face why he quit her studies:

*Working as a waiter while attending school is quite challenging unless you have a large salary. I did my best, but adjusting the timing was quite tough. I work all day and leave the job at 9:00 p.m., so I opted to continue working at the expense of my schooling.” Alemitu said: “I was supposed to serve the household until midnight, and I didn't have much time to attend school though I have great ambition to continue my education. I don't believe it is indeed a worthy life for me.*

Alemitu a woman came from Kaffa Zone involved in domestic work has also plainly stated how employers' unfavorable impressions influenced her motivation, even after they voluntarily agreed to support her enrollment in the evening session.

*Some employers are hesitant to help us join in school. Most individuals fail to identify the smart kids that attend a night school. Some people believe that most of us (rural migrants serving them) went to school to do bad things.*

Fetiya(a 20 years old girl who came from Silte Zone of SNNPR with 10<sup>th</sup>-grade education working as a waiter also strengthens the idea of Alemitu

*Even though my employers permitted me to attend the school, I was dissatisfied. They hassle me every time I plan to go to school and criticize me for unfinished housework. I just did not have much time to study. That is why I prioritized my work.*

Alemitu and other agreeable FGD participants concurred that there is a societal stereotype about domestic workers' educational attainment. According to participants, the societal stereotype that many domestic employers have is the attitude toward the goal of individuals who attend the evening session school according to the employers is not primarily to study, but rather to have sexual practice with their friends.

Such sweeping judgments would deadlock rural migrant workers' efforts to obtain formal schooling, discouraging their dedication and negatively affecting their mindsets. The educational atmosphere is critical for migrant workers who have very limited social networks. It aids in the formation of connections. They meet new people and talk about their experiences with difficult tasks, their current and prospective employment conditions, and other issues. This would undoubtedly have an impact on their psychological life in many ways.



Rural migrants encountered knowledge and skill barriers. Working at a bakery store, Abdulfeta (a young street vendor who came from Limu Woreda fo Jimma Zone), claimed that a lack of skills and expertise to employ modern technologies in urban centers is a barrier he has experienced. He said:

*We fairly expect prospective employers to instruct us on how to utilize contemporary tools because we come from rural areas. As a result, we want them to teach us the way, yet some of them are hesitant to do so, preferring to fire us due to our insufficient ability to handle current technology.*

Employers often have their criteria for hiring rural migrant employees and providing a competitive wage to skilled employees. Those with greater talents and operational understanding of modern tools will be paid more. Those who have not been exposed to how to operate the equipment, on the other hand, are likely to earn a minimum wage or labor without a monthly payment until they improve their abilities.

#### ***4.1.3.6. Lack of assistance for entrepreneurship from the concerned body***

Another difficulty faced by rural migrants in urban environments is the lack of assistance for entrepreneurship and the absence of help from microfinance institutions. This is because they lack a local identity card required for registration and financial assistance. The FGD participants agreed that due to many barriers preventing them from participating in training, they do not have access to any occupational training in urban areas. Since they arrived in the community at an early age without finishing even primary-level schooling, the majority of FGD participants said that their level of education was one of the main obstacles. In-depth interviews revealed that rural migrants who desire to engage in self-employment did not receive loans from microfinance institutions to start other private businesses that provide sustainable lives.

According to an in-depth interview, they did not get financial aid and other assistance for the growth of self-employment and private enterprise from microfinance organizations. Participants in the focus group stated that the collateral required by microfinance organizations was the most significant obstacle to obtaining a loan from these institutions. Microfinance institutions make loans to organizations that have well-structured projects in some priority sectors, as well as to individuals who have been organized to operate at the enterprise level and have adequate collateral to qualify for the loan.

A key informant interview stated that not helping rural migrants in any form was due to a lack of an ID card and the concern that helping them would pull in more migrants. The key informant from the trade and enterprises development office of the town said:

*The youngsters who are native to Jimma Town and hold a residency identity card are the target of our office. Therefore, the issue of young rural-to-urban migration cannot be addressed. They are not eligible for any assistance our office offers since they do not have identity cards and most of our office offers since they do not have identity cards and the majority of them did not complete the office's preliminary requirement. However, if we offer them all opportunities, the youth will gravitate to urban areas and forsake rural areas, which would lead to urban problems. Therefore, by giving rural migrants the opportunity to become urban jobless young, we will encourage migration to urban centers.*

The government, in the opinion of rural migrants, should offer them the opportunity to get urban ID cards. Tigist (a domestic worker from Yem Special Woreda) said, *“We can form teams and function as workers just like any other Jimma town inhabitant if granted ID cards and a workplace.”*

For some, it's only a matter of fairness to have the opportunity to work where they have migrated. Dejene (a 22 years old street vendor) said, *“We ought to be allowed to participate in the associations that locals in various cities create. We are immigrants, but we are also citizens of this nation.”* Meseret who was involved in domestic work said, *“The government is not allowed to categorize and split us into rural or urban areas. People are traveling from rural areas of various regions in quest of employment. Equal rights must be extended to us.”* Additionally, migrants feel that they should be a part of government initiatives to create jobs in urban areas.

A Dejene said:

*I want to argue that when our government creates jobs, it should take local migrants into account. We want to work on ourselves and get better. Because of the poverty in the rural areas, we are abandoning our motherland. We are leaving our own country (i.e., the rural villages) in search of better employment opportunities.*

Youth who are migrants think that early government assistance would ultimately lead to their emancipation. Chaltu a 20 years old lady who is involved in daily labor said:

*The government must assist us in planning, receiving the necessary skills, and obtaining funding to begin work since we young migrants are struggling to make ends meet. After that, we won't need the town for assistance and can take care of ourselves.*

Key informants from various offices also emphasized the very serious difficulty of finance and budgeting for fast-rising urban populations. According to a key informant officer from the Jimma town micro-enterprise office,

*Additionally, there is a budget shortfall. We always distribute funds based on an employee survey conducted by the town's labor and social affairs office, yet we consistently receive very high unemployment rates. Due to the limited budget, there is a significant disparity between the project we developed and the unemployment rates.*

This problem was brought up by key informants from the other office, who emphasized that the funding they are given is not intended to support new settlers in the area. The consensus among officials is that rural youth should remain in their villages and receive support there. An official from the Women and children affairs office said:

*The young people are typically encouraged to work in their villages. Most of the time, we think that to ensure an equal and fair distribution of wealth, we should offer work opportunities close to where they were born.*

Another obstacle preventing the offices from giving the migrants who arrived in their town the help they need is the lack of a clear strategy that handling rural migrants in the town. A key informant from the municipality said:

*This kind of movement from rural to urban regions is prohibited, and we are not taking any action to stop it. We focus on residents who are legally residing there. Since our only obligation in this area is to serve the town's lawful residents, we have no preparation for migrants.*

Another key informant said:

*There is no formal strategy in place to estimate the number of migrants moving from rural areas to urban areas. However, we already know where we want to go. In addition to that, we don't have any further plans.*

### **5.1. Discussion**

Migration from rural to urban areas presents immigrants with more difficulties than advantages. In African nations like Ethiopia, where public infrastructure development lags far behind population expansion, these issues are both more significant and severe. The migrants who have no formal or low level of education or training discover that life is not what they had expected when they arrive in the urban areas. Most people work in the informal sector with poor earnings and limited access to essential urban amenities, meaning they are unable to advance their standard of life or uncover easily accessible employment (Sida and Swedesurvey, 1998). Additionally, uneducated migrants are frequently exploited at work. Numerous migrants must deal with poor working conditions and excessively long working hours because of the uncontrolled nature of domestic employment.

Throughout this research, immigrants from various rural areas have struggled with unemployment in Jimma town. The findings of this study coincided with other experts' conclusions, such as (Anh and Todaro, 2005, 1994). It appears that non-migrants may have greater opportunities for schooling and other benefits, but migrants, particularly those from rural regions, who had low levels of education combined with inadequate social networks, might raise their chances of being unemployed. Along with the previously mentioned debate, (ILO, 2011) and (Hassen, 2005) provided evidence that those who lack the skills and competencies demanded by the labor market in the urban centers are at a higher risk of unemployment. Regardless of their immigration status, rural migrant employees have the same rights as those who were born and raised in urban areas. But they frequently suffer from mistreatment and exploitation. If they are unauthorized with the local residence ID, they are less likely to complain to their employers or the police. Their sole source of income (salary, for example) can be lost. They could seek out dishonest middlemen who are eager to take advantage of their weaknesses by locating them hazardous employment.

According to (Granovetter, 1983), young people with weak social relationships will have trouble finding employment possibilities in urban centers because they lack up-to-date knowledge about the availability of the labor market. On the other hand youths with weak social networks experienced higher rates of unemployment than youth with strong social networks (Trappmann et al., 2010). Youth, especially those from rural families, are lacking considerable social capital due to a lack of knowledge, networks, and relationships.

Many young individuals have not given significant consideration to their own possible job choices and lack awareness of what the working world truly entails. They do not have the formal networks and relationships that are usually the main source of information about employment openings. Furthermore, they lack the knowledge necessary to find and apply the most appropriate training options, as well as to locate and seek suitable opportunities.

The investigation revealed that social network density had a substantial impact on rural youth unemployment among migrants as well. The problem of unemployment was more likely to affect people with inadequate social ties. On the other hand, young people who are skilled in urban types work may have an edge in getting career opportunities, because having a strong social network made a person popular and gave them access to news and information about the state of the job market and employment possibilities.

Youth from rural areas who move to urban areas must acclimate to a new environment that includes both the physical structure of the new community and its culture. They would lose the traditional culture they had grown up with because of their interactions with urban residents (Andersen, 2010). Migration can result in culture shock when arriving at a new location, according to Castles, Stephen, and Miller (1998). In places with less obvious cultural diversity and fewer ethnic flocks to help newcomers adjust, culture shock might be more severe.

Culture shock is the term used to describe the physical and psychological discomfort that results from leaving one's familiar surroundings and having one's boundaries significantly altered. Nearly everyone who engages with a foreign culture is impacted. This includes having one's views, ideals, and behaviors questioned and frequently sensing the need to alter such practices as a result. Additionally, culture shock exacerbates thoughts of unfitness and causes mental anguish. In other circumstances, it could signify rejection, making migrants more likely to isolate themselves and making migrants more likely to isolate themselves, making it harder for them to overcome and making it harder for them to go over challenges. However, migrants frequently forget who they are once they reach urban areas; migrants frequently forget who they are.

Migrants abandon all of their traditions and cultures to adapt and be accepted in the urban area. They feel ashamed of their own identity and seek to identify with urbanite folks. Some immigrants may feel embarrassed about their origins, and guilty about feeling humiliated, incomplete, and betrayed by people they left behind because of their effort to define themselves. Through the process of acculturation and adaptation, the migrants lose their identity.

Migrant workers cannot acquire or rent accommodation at a discounted price according to Wang & Murie (2000). In urban areas, housing issues affect rural migrant workers (Mayock & Sheridan, 2012). One of the major cited issues was homelessness among rural migrants. The inability of rural migrants to find appropriate accommodation has a significant negative influence on their quality of life and plans to settle. Migration from rural to urban regions is hampered by several issues. Leasehold insecurity, including employment insecurity due to eviction and seizure as well as renting arrangements in residential units, appears to be a major issue.

Most rural migrant workers are unable to afford to pay for such private housing. Because of this, a large number of rural-urban migrant workers are compelled to live in dorms supplied by their employers or in close quarters with their acquaintances in shared rooms. Overcrowding, inadequate ventilation, a lack of clean water, and hand washing facilities are frequent problems in migrant worker accommodation. This leads to social, psychological, and health problems among the migrant who share the same room such as exacerbating respiratory illness, and lack of personal privacy, and there may be conflicts among the migrant who share the same room.

According to Papadakaki and Chliaoutakis (2016), sexual harassment of rural migrant domestic employees is a socially undesirable and unlawful issue. It is a hidden and widely underreported public health issue when female migrant domestic workers are the targets of sexual harassment. The structural problems with this job category appear to make them more susceptible to sexual violence. In the first place, the domestic sector, which offers low-status, low-skilled, and low-paid professions, has minimal language and training qualifications. Second, the employer often drives demand for this type of employment. Thirdly, domestic labor is done privately in one's own home, away from the prying eyes of authorities (ILO, 2021).

For several reasons, migrant workers from rural areas appear to be in a worse situation than other employees. First, relying on employers to get and maintain employment or work permits may encourage maltreatment, particularly in the case of female migrants (Gavanas, 2013; Alemante et al., 2006). Second, migrant domestic workers appear to be more susceptible to sexual abuse because of the social, cultural, and language difficulties they confront as well as their low understanding of the law. Physical harm or death, STDs, unexpected pregnancies, and unsafe abortions are all issues with reproductive health that are linked to sexual violence.

Along with many other detrimental health effects, it can cause depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, shame, humiliation, and guilt. Young female migrants from rural areas appear to be less advantaged than men in this regard. According to migrants who were questioned, they make less money both in official jobs and informal self-employment. Due to their lower resource endowment, young women are likewise at a larger risk of becoming stuck in low-resource, low-income states. Due to their fear of being ridiculed, migrant domestic workers are less likely to report cases of abuse and other human rights abuses to law enforcement. This lack of access to services has also been connected to this phenomenon (Papadakaki & Chliaoutakis, 2016).

Women appear to be disproportionately impacted given the makeup of the domestic workforce. Women have been shown to turn into appropriate targets in the vicinity of motivated criminals, especially when assigned to a subordinate position like one in the domestic sector (Shen & Huang, 2003). It has been demonstrated that gender-based societal beliefs that frequently justify unwelcome sexual approaches made against women overlap with many other vulnerabilities, including their financial and legal standing (Papadakaki & Chliaoutakis, 2016).

Moving to the city has its mobility challenges because of the unfamiliar surroundings. A new lifestyle, new attitudes, and new behavioral patterns could be necessary for these mobility challenges. The town's social climate has been strangely infused by the migrants with an unusual blend of rural and urban views. The population of the city is made up of a mixture of workers and beggars as well as highly educated people and people who cannot read or write. The reality in cities is dichotomous. It is a land of need and abundance, of poverty and fortune, of success and failure. The affluent and the impoverished stand in stark contrast to one another in the urban center.

Rapid urban expansion is to blame for all of these issues. Similarly to this, a large number of migrants in urban areas live in poverty. The percentage of low-income migrant residents in the town shows this. As a result, the town's atmosphere is unpleasant due to the high human density. The majority of migrants in cities work in the informal economy. Less money is provided to those working in this industry. They frequently use unethical forms of support, such as prostitution and laborious, tough employment. Rural-urban migrants are among the most vulnerable groups to abuse, harassment, and violence. The challenges they are facing are unseen and are the least attention-given reality. They are suffering a lot.

## Chapter Five

### Conclusion and Recommendations

#### 5.2. Conclusion

When migrants first began to adjust to and adapt to the urban way of life in the city, it was to be anticipated that they would be dealing with unusual issues. The majority of migrants who were interviewed said they still experience various issues from when they first arrived in Jimma town. Migrants first faced issues with housing (housing), increased living costs, subpar consumer goods, difficulty to access social services, inability to get a job (lack of work possibilities), cultural differences, and others.

When it comes to teens and young people, the difficulties experienced by rural migrants are harsher. Young migrants are particularly susceptible when they encounter isolation, exclusion, prejudice, and instability in addition to their age and stage of life. In addition, young individuals who migrate may lose their social networks and maybe their parents or other family members who might care for and guide them. Due to unfamiliarity with the local language, new and different cultural norms, and lack of knowledge about laws and regulations, young people, especially girls among rural migrants, may be particularly affected by prejudice and discrimination and suffer further marginalization. As a result, they are more susceptible to human rights violations like sexual exploitation, violence, and unpaid labor.

Rural migrants are more likely to encounter social marginalization and exclusion in the destination town, as well as unemployment, a lack of access to suitable jobs, abusive working conditions, and insufficient access to social services. The main issue that rural migrants experience is unmet needs. The perception of urban living and the reality on the ground is at odds.

The obstacles of migrant life include discrepancies between their preconceived notions and the reality of career opportunities, housing options, living conditions, and other aspects of urban life. They discovered that the town's situation is not what they had anticipated. There were significant economic and social issues in the town as a result of the enormous number of migratory youngsters who were still hunting for work and without jobs. Due to the disconnect between perceptions and actual realities, there are unfulfilled demands. Although they believed that living in the city was simple, they found it to be demanding and difficult.

Further unemployment in the town is mostly due to the massive movement of the workforce from rural to urban regions. The study's findings showed that rural-urban migrants continue to experience unemployment as a concern. Many young people are seeking work but are unable to find it and end up staying unemployed since the supply of labor is significantly more than the demand for it. When comparing the number of youngsters in the town with the number of employment possibilities available, it becomes clear that the number of jobs available is insufficient to support the growing labor force. In the town, the number of people joining the labor force is growing faster than the number of jobs being generated, which is not keeping up with this labor force growth. As a result, the town's young continue to face a lot of difficulties due to the persistent unemployment crisis.

Achieving success and improving one's economic situation both require education. Youth migrants are arriving in towns at ages when they would normally be enrolled in formal schooling. The majority of the participants in this study, however, were unable to continue attending their school in the target region for a variety of reasons. The major excuse for not going to school is financial. They were unable to support their school costs.

The high expense of living in the town presented further difficulties for the newcomers. Even those with higher incomes spent more on housing and food. They were unable to pay additional bills as the cost of living increased and product and service prices rose. As a result, immigrants find it difficult to put money aside for their future needs.

Rural migrants' employment circumstances are also unsettling. The wages provided to migrant laborers are extremely low since they are seen as cheap labor. The majority of the time, migrant workers are compelled to labor past their normal bedtimes, seven days a week, with no assurance of receiving a single day off.

The formal urban economy cannot support the additional people moving from rural to urban regions. Furthermore, a significant majority of rural migrants lack formal qualifications and are mostly incompetent, making it impossible for them to get employment in the urban formal sectors. They are therefore forced to integrate themselves into urban informal sectors since it is free and simple to do so. Thus, it can be concluded from our study that the informal sector plays a crucial role in offering work opportunities to those who have moved to Jimma from other regions of the country in pursuit of a better living. However, the working circumstances are relatively little compared to the previously mentioned features.

Migrants from rural to urban areas are one of the groups most susceptible to violence, harassment, and abuse. The link of subordination, despotic views, poor socioeconomic position, low level of education, nature of the occupation, and alienation are the key causes of rural-urban migrants' susceptibility. Their susceptibility to abuse and violence is further exacerbated by poor control of rural-urban migration or the absence of minimal legal norms of labor rights. The findings also demonstrate very inadequate oversight and application of current regulations, which severely disadvantage rural-urban migrants and expose them to abuse and violence. Domestic employees so frequently operate in solitude and are unnoticed by the general population.

Most often, the status relationship paradigm encourages acceptance of numerous domestic worker cases of abuse. Domestic workers are continuously subjected to abuse, harassment, and violence in such precarious circumstances, which essentially amounts to human rights breaches. Extreme freedom limitations and labor exploitation are the most frequent types of abuse, harassment, and violence directed against migrant workers who are moving between rural and urban areas. Rural migrants who work as laborers must put in long hours and carry out demanding responsibilities. Due to the long workdays and constant family monitoring, they have little time for rest, sleep, or leisure activities. They are also severely constrained in their freedom of movement and are subject to intrusion in their personal lives. Poor living circumstances are typical of migratory laborers who move between rural and urban areas. They struggle to find affordable food and decent housing arrangements. Rural-urban migratory laborers are frequently required to sleep in communal areas since they lack a room of their own.

A large exodus from rural regions might exacerbate problems of underdevelopment, while at the urban destination; the supply of public goods may not keep up with the increase in the migrant population. Because of this, it is in the public interest to use rules or policy changes to persuade individuals to choose to live in rural areas. However, urban social networks and financial assistance from rural relatives are expected to lessen this repellent impact. The vicious cycle of rural out-migration and underdevelopment is, therefore, further exacerbated in rural regions, which are losing people as well as financial resources that could otherwise be invested in the local economy. An alternative that may hold more promise is educating rural inhabitants about prospective employment opportunities and housing prices in cities. Inferring whether or not the urban alternative will raise their level of life may be made easier for prospective migrants. So, diminished expectations could discourage would-be immigrants from leaving.

### **5.3. Implications of the study**

Based on the primary results and conclusion statements stated thus far, the following points are given as study implications. The study's goal was to examine the difficulties faced by rural-urban migration in Jimma town. It has attempted to bridge the information gap about the issues faced by Ethiopia's rural-urban migration. The author considered that the findings of this research may contribute to the literature on the issue covered. This study has also served as a springboard for students or academics interested in doing a study on the issues faced by rural-urban migration in Jimma town. Researchers and students who are interested in doing more research on the topic under inquiry in related or analogous contexts might find this study to be illuminating in terms of methodology and problem framing. Given that the goal of this study was to evaluate the difficulties faced by rural-urban migrants, its findings may be helpful to those involved in developing strategies and policies for these individuals. The government, community, nonprofit groups, and the adolescents themselves must all contribute to solving the issue of rural-urban migration. To find community resources and possibilities, social workers must put in some effort. Depending on their requirements, they can also connect young people with organizations that offer the required skills and/or services.

#### **5.3.1. Implications for Social Work Intervention**

As a caring profession, social workers may be required to provide the abused/vulnerable rural-urban migrants with ongoing psycho-social care and counseling services. Additionally, given the growing tendency of unauthorized movement in Ethiopia, social workers should vigorously push for the construction of institutionalized protection for individuals who migrate from rural villages to urban centers as well as a comprehensive migration strategy for the nation.

### **5.3.2. Implications for Policy**

Despite Ethiopia's pervasive migratory culture, the nation currently lacks a coherent migration strategy. The surge in rural-to-urban migration from Ethiopia should be seen as a wake-up call that this area's policy divide has to be closed. Therefore, all interested parties should work diligently to introduce policies, and in addition, the concerned parties may use the urban ward migration dilemma as an opportunity to advance calls for national policy formulation in the area of rural-to-urban migration.

### **5.3.3. Research implication**

In Jimma town, this study examined the difficulties faced by rural-urban migrants. Twenty research participants' data were gathered through in-depth interviews. Due to time and resource constraints, the study concentrated on examining the difficulties faced by rural to urban migrants. Future research must concentrate on the possibilities for rural-urban migrants in Jimma Town as well as other issues of rural-urban migration.

## **5.4. Recommendations**

Migration is a natural process that happens for a variety of reasons, each with its obstacles and possibilities. Several factors contribute to migration, including social, political, and economic factors. Youth movement from rural to urban areas is mostly driven by economic concerns. It is always assumed that migrants would experience some kind of difficulty when they get to their final location. The issues relating to rural-to-urban migration may be addressed from two angles, namely, the town where they are moving to and the area where they are moving from. Therefore, the following suggestions are offered based on the study's findings.

There is a great deal of fertile land in Ethiopia's rural areas that might be used to expand agriculture. However, due to a lack of knowledge and access to technology, rural inhabitants engage in small farms as opposed to commercial farming. Therefore, to promote

self-development and empowerment, the government should work to invest in rural agricultural development, which would persuade young people to remain in rural regions, as well as boost financial assistance for existing rural farmers, who can aid in employment creation.

The stereotype of rural life is that it is uncivilized, illiterate, and plagued by sickness caused by poverty. Adopting ways to increase rural appeal is necessary to challenge these presumptions and include youths in rural economic activities. In rural regions, there is a critical need to enhance the infrastructure for communication, health, education, and transportation. The government emphasizes the construction of infrastructure in urban centers due to their economic significance, whereas improving infrastructure in rural areas may take longer than expected and may be more expensive. The government should give rural infrastructure development priority to combat rural-urban migration since it is evident that rural regions lack the infrastructure needed to grow on their own.

It is advised to develop a comprehensive rural development strategy to boost agricultural production by advancing farm technology, increasing farm inputs like fertilizers, high-yield seed varieties, insecticides, adequate agricultural extension services, price incentives, and improving access to financial credit and market facilities to combat rural unemployment and underemployment.

To increase job possibilities and encourage young people to stay in their communities and play a part in rural development, special incentives should be provided to private businesses and agro-processing businesses that operate in rural regions. Therefore, policymakers and planners should prioritize resolving the economic issues facing young people in their rural home communities. It is important to enhance the quality of life for society's youth, especially where they are from. To sustainably improve conditions in rural areas, encourage investment in rural infrastructure, and raise agricultural output.

The need to raise awareness among migrants about the lack of desirable work possibilities and higher salaries in the destination location is critical; doing so will weaken them and give them the option of remaining in their home country. For migrants from rural to urban areas who want to settle in their home region or earlier locations, the government should provide financial and equipment assistance.

A minimum pay standard policy must be established to prevent employers from abusing young workers. To handle the growing number of young people in the community, the unemployment problem must be addressed, and new work possibilities must be created. Concerning the town's security issues, it is important to uphold the rule of law by using security forces, enforcing the law, and enforcing compliance with the law. Ensure that non-discrimination is applied, and incorporate concerns related to youth migration in all pertinent areas of government agenda, notably in development plans and policies.

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## Annexes

## 5.5. Annex One: - Interview Participants

| S.N | Changed the name of the participant | Sex | Age | Grade Level      | Year Lived in Jimma | Sector involved          | Come from          |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-----|-----|------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 1   | Ayantu Bekele                       | F   | 30  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 7 years             | Domestic worker          | Shebe/Jimma zone   |
| 2   | Tigist Dirshaye                     | F   | 27  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 5 years             | Domestic worker          | Yem Special Woreda |
| 3   | Abigiya Abamecha                    | F   | 23  | 4 <sup>th</sup>  | 4 years             | Daily laborer            | Seka/Jimma zone    |
| 4   | Hanan Nesiru                        | F   | 28  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 3 years             | Domestic worker          | Shebe/Jimma zone   |
| 5   | Mohamed Haji                        | M   | 32  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 6 years             | Daily laborer            | Mana/Jimma zone    |
| 6   | Dejene Tadesse                      | M   | 22  | 9 <sup>th</sup>  | 3 years             | Street vending           | Yem Special Woreda |
| 7   | Samuel Wendimu                      | M   | 24  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 4 years             | Shoeshine                | Dawuro             |
| 8   | Kedir Abdulfeta                     | M   | 25  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 2 years             | Construction day laborer | Sekoru/Jimma zone  |
| 9   | Meseret Haile                       | F   | 20  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 2 years             | Domestic worker          | Wolayita           |
| 10  | Daniel W/Tensay                     | M   | 29  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 5 years             | Guard in a private house | Dawuro             |
| 11  | Belay Mekonene                      | F   | 31  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 7 years             | Waiter                   | Gurage             |
| 12  | Werkinesh Habite                    | F   | 24  | 5 <sup>th</sup>  | 5 years             | Domestic worker          | Kaffa zone         |
| 13  | Chaltu Ababulgu                     | F   | 20  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Daily laborer            | Sigmo/Jimma zone   |
| 14  | Ajayiba Awol                        | F   | 22  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 4 years             | Domestic worker          | Dedo/Jimma zone    |
| 15  | Gelana Segni                        | M   | 19  | 7 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Waiter                   | Dedo/Jimma zone    |
| 16  | Alemitu Gawo                        | F   | 24  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 5 years             | Domestic worker          | Gimbo/Kaffa zone   |
| 17  | Fetiya Sultan                       | F   | 20  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 2 years             | Waiter                   | Silte              |
| 18  | Tsigereda Kero                      | F   | 21  | 4 <sup>th</sup>  | 5 years             | Domestic worker          | Kaffa              |
| 19  | Adulfeta Abafita                    | M   | 25  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 3 years             | Street vending           | Limmu/Jimma zone   |
| 20  | Bereket Solomon                     | M   | 27  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 6 years             | Street vending           | Gurage             |

**5.6. Annex Two: - Lists of FGD Participants**

| S.N | Pseudo name of the participant | Sex | Age | Grade Level      | Year Lived in Jimma | Sector involved   | Come from            | Remark           |
|-----|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| 1   | Aleminesh Abate                | F   | 28  | 2 <sup>nd</sup>  | 5 years             | Washing clothes   | Chana/Kaffa Zone     | <b>Group - 1</b> |
| 2   | Emebet Desalegn                | F   | 31  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 6 years             | Domestic worker   | Wolayita             |                  |
| 3   | Munira Abadiga                 | F   | 24  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 4 years             | Waiter            | Omo Nada /Jimma zone |                  |
| 4   | Nigatiwa Tadesse               | F   | 22  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Domestic worker   | Darge                |                  |
| 5   | Medina Ahmed                   | F   | 29  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 3 years             | Domestic worker   | Mana/Jimma zone      |                  |
| 6   | Birtukan Temam                 | F   | 26  | 4 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Gulit             | Yem Special Woreda   |                  |
| 7   | Kibinesh W/Senbet              | F   | 25  | 7 <sup>th</sup>  | 3 years             | Street vending    | Dawuro               |                  |
| 8   | Mesay Ermeto                   | F   | 27  | 5 <sup>th</sup>  | 4 years             | Janitor           | Adiyo/Kaffa          |                  |
| 9   | Senayit Werabo                 | F   | 35  | 3 <sup>rd</sup>  | 8 years             | Domestic worker   | Tercha/Dawuro        |                  |
| 10  | Weliya Adem                    | F   | 23  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Casual worker     | Yem Special Woreda   |                  |
| 11  | Yidnekachew Zerihun            | M   | 21  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 4 years             | Waiter            | Gurage               | <b>Group - 2</b> |
| 12  | Alemayehu Yergawo              | M   | 26  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 5 years             | Loading Unloading | Gewata/Kaffa zone    |                  |
| 13  | Mechale Gedebo                 | M   | 23  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Daily laborer     | Wolayita             |                  |
| 14  | Yasino Abafita                 | M   | 25  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 3 years             | Street vending    | Dedo/Jimma zone      |                  |
| 15  | Biruk Fikreselam               | M   | 20  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 2 years             | Waiter            | Gamo Gofa            |                  |
| 16  | Aklilu W/Mecheal               | M   | 26  | 7 <sup>th</sup>  | 4 years             | Daily laborer     | Gimbo/Kaffa zone     |                  |
| 17  | Tenkir Zerga                   | M   | 22  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 1 years             | Shoe shiner       | Gurage               |                  |
| 18  | Tarekegn Gashaw                | M   | 20  | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 2 years             | Taxi assistant    | Fofa/Yem             |                  |
| 19  | Said, Mohamed                  | M   | 27  | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 6 years             | Shoe shiner       | Limmu/Jimma zone     |                  |
| 20  | Yacob Semahegn                 | M   | 24  | 12 <sup>th</sup> | 3 years             | Street vending    | Hadiya               |                  |

## 5.7. Annex Three: - Data Collection material

### 1. Interview Guide for Migrants

Dear participants, this instrument/interview guide is intended to collect information about the socio-economic impacts of rural-urban migration on rural-urban migrants in Jimma town.

Thus, you are kindly invited to provide information based on your emic experiences. First of all, I want to express my gratitude for your willingness to give your experience socio-economic impacts of the rural-urban migration during your precious time. Remember that: your name is not mentioned, your participation is voluntary and all your responses will be kept confidential.

#### I. General participant information

- i. Age \_\_\_\_\_ Gender \_\_\_\_\_
- ii. Marital status \_\_\_\_\_
- iii. Have you attended school? \_\_\_\_\_. If yes, up to which level? \_\_\_\_\_
- iv. How long have you lived in Jimma town?

#### II. General Questions

1. What activities do you currently work in to make a living?
2. Does your current occupation change your quality of life? What changes have you experienced after being migrated and involved in this work? How was your income before migration and how about now?
3. Does migration affect your values and beliefs?
4. What are the challenges you experienced as a result of migration?
5. What was /were the main difficulty/difficulties you faced after you immediately arrived in Jimma town? What is/are the main problem(s) you are facing now? How do you deal with those challenges?

6. Did your job, income, access to the house, access to pure water, access to education, access to health care, and other social services improve after you lived in Jimma town?
7. How are the migrants viewed by people in the city?

**2. Focus Group Discussion Guiding Questions**

1. In what kind of livelihood activities do most rural-urban migrants engage to make a living in Jimma town? Probe...
2. What are the challenges/difficulties (in terms of social, psychological, economic, cultural, and political aspects) rural-urban migrants are experiencing in Jimma town? Probe...
3. What do you think are the major changes in urban living that are the result of rural-urban migration in Jimma town? Probe...

**3. Interview Guide for Key Informant**

1. How do you explain the rate of rural-urban migration in Jimma town? Please explain in terms of demographics.
2. What problems do you think rural-urban migrants are facing in the town?
3. Do you think the livelihood of rural-urban migrants improved after migration? How?
4. What are the challenges of rural-urban migration in terms of social, economic, cultural, and political aspects for the migrants? Please explain.
5. Is there enough employment opportunity in the town for the rural-urban migrants?
6. What kinds of support do your office is giving to the rural migrants in the town?

#### **4. Consent to audio/photography/video recording & transcription**

Dear participant this is Aschalew Demis researching the topic of the socio-economic impacts of the rural-urban migration on rural-urban migrants in Jimma town. You are kindly requested to respond to the questions in the interview guide. This study involves the audio, photograph, or video recording of your interview with the data collector. Neither your name nor any other identifying information will be associated with the audio/photograph/video recording or the transcript. Only the researcher conducting the investigation will be able to listen to the recordings.

The audio/video will be transcribed by the researcher and erased once the transcriptions are checked for accuracy. Transcripts of your interview may be reproduced in whole or in part for use in presentations of written products that result from this study. Neither your name nor any other identifying information (such as your voice or picture) will be used in presentations or written products resulting from the study. I humbly ask you to give your consent to do the above-mentioned activities.

Consent

By signing this form, I am allowing the investigator to audio/video record me as part of this study. I also understand that this consent for recording is effective until the transcription and presentation of the interview on the research paper. On or before that date, the recording will be destroyed until the final accuracy check is done.

Participant's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Place \_\_\_\_\_