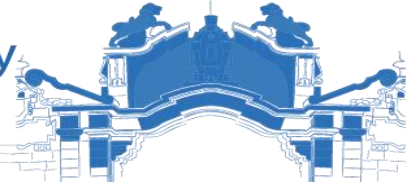




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# **Vulnerability of Female Domestic Workers in the Work Environment: Employer-Employee Dynamics, and Related Factors in Hossana Town**

**By:**

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY ADDIS  
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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR  
OF PHILOSOPHY IN SOCIOLOGY

June, 2025

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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### **Declaration**

I, Lombebo Tagesse, hereby affirm to the School of Graduate Studies at Addis Ababa University that my thesis, entitled "Vulnerability of Female Domestic Workers Interrelated to Factors and Employer-Employee Interpersonal Interaction in Hossana Town, Central Ethiopian Region," is an original research work conducted by me. It has not been submitted, either in full or in part, for the fulfillment of any academic degree elsewhere. The perspectives expressed in this work align with those of the research participants. To the best of my knowledge, I have duly acknowledged all the materials and information utilized in the study. The reporting procedures adhere to the prescribed standards and regulations of the university.

Name: Lombebo Tagesse Sibamo

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date of Submission:

Department of Sociology, Addis Ababa University

## **Dedication**

**To**

**My late mother**

**W/ro. BEKELECH YONAS KIDORE**

"In loving memory of my dear mother, whose unwavering support, wisdom, and enduring love continue to inspire me, I dedicate this achievement to YOU. You were a guiding light, and your spirit, advice, and smile live on in every word of this dissertation.

**FOREVER IN MY HEART."**

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## **Acronyms and Abbreviations**

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DEVAW	Declaration on Elimination of All forms of Violence against Women
DW	Domestic Workers
DV	Domestic Violence
EDAW	Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
EWLA	Ethiopian Women Lawyer Association
EUAFR	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FDW	Female Domestic Workers
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GBVLSA	Gender-Based Violence Laws in Sub-Saharan Africa
HRW	Human Rights Watch
IDI	In depth Interview
ILO	International Labor Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
KII	Key Informant Interview
MoLSA	Minister of Labor and Social Affairs
MWAO	Ministry of Women Affairs Office
PEA	Private Employment Agencies
PSI	Policy Study Institute
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
SNNPR	Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TST	Develop Transversal Skill Training
UAPS	Union for African Population Studies
UNSGC	United Nations Secretary-General's Campaign
UNDEVAW	United Nations Domestic Elimination of Violence against Women

WAB	Women's Affairs Bureau
WAD	Women's Affairs Department
WB	World Bank
WCAO	Women and Children Affairs Office
WFE	Workers Federation of Ethiopia

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Lombebo Tagesse

## **Abstract**

*Domestic work has a long history in Ethiopia, with domestic workers making essential contributions to households and society. However, their roles are often undervalued due to factors such as socioeconomic background, gender stereotypes, low income, and limited education. The private, home-based nature of domestic work further heightens workers' vulnerability to exploitation and mistreatment. Despite its importance, research on domestic workers in Ethiopia has primarily focused on youth migration abroad, while the conditions of domestic workers within the country have received less attention. The central concern of this dissertation is to explore the factors contributing to the vulnerability of female domestic workers in Hossana town. These factors include demographic influences, brokers' involvement, parental roles, sociocultural dynamics, employer-employee interpersonal interactions, and institutional and policy-related issues. The study employs pragmatism as a philosophical framework, advocating for a mix of ontological and epistemological approaches to address existing research gaps. Combining qualitative and quantitative methods, the study uses a mixed-methods design to yield convergent findings. A concurrent approach was employed to collect data in a single phase, and convenience sampling was used due to the difficulty of accessing domestic workers. The study involved 130 female domestic workers surveyed using a structured questionnaire at licensed brokers' offices, schools, and water points. Additionally, 28 respondents, including government officials, brokers, employers, and parents, participated in interviews. The findings reveal significant exploitation and power imbalances faced by female domestic workers in Ethiopia. Extended work hours, limited leave, and restricted rest days reflect the unequal power dynamics between employers and employees, diminishing workers' autonomy and increasing their vulnerability. At the institutional level, the absence of national policies and regulations governing domestic work and a lack of standardized contracts contribute to a "decent work deficit." This leads to excessive workloads, inadequate compensation, arbitrary salary deductions, wage withholding, and financial instability for workers. Licensed brokers, along with their assistants, are frequently implicated in exploiting domestic workers, with cases of sexual harassment and coercion, sometimes involving demands for sex work. Parents play an active role in securing domestic employment for their daughters, negotiating wages, and influencing job conditions. However, their involvement often reflects a deeper power imbalance, further limiting the autonomy of domestic workers. Economic dependence on domestic work exacerbates the situation, as workers endure abuse and mistreatment due to their reliance on the benefits of employment. The community's dehumanizing perceptions of domestic workers, including labeling them as thieves, reinforce mistreatment and erode empathy. These stigmatizing attitudes contribute to a broader culture of hostility and alienation, fostering resentment among domestic workers. Employer-employee relationships are typically characterized by authority and servility, with poor communication, power imbalances, and*

*frequent mistreatment. Conflicts often arise from workers' perceived insubordination or failure to comply with employers' demands, while workers cite degrading treatment and abuse as the primary sources of tension. To address these challenges, the study advocates for developing comprehensive policy and legal frameworks to protect domestic workers. This includes enacting regulations to standardize domestic employment contracts, ensuring fair wages, and ratifying ILO Convention No. 189. Additionally, training programs on workers' rights should be implemented for employers, employees, and brokers in collaboration with relevant government agencies and social organizations. The study calls for government and stakeholder intervention to promote domestic workers' rights, raise public awareness, and provide vocational training for both domestic workers and the broader community.*

**Key Words:** *Female Domestic workers, Vulnerability, Government Institutions, Licensed and Unlicensed brokers, contractual agreements, employers*

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Background of the Study

Domestic work is work done in or for a household or home such as cooking, cleaning, gardening, caring for the elderly, sick family members, and children, as well as laundry and ironing (ILO, 2013a; Budrich, 2018). Domestic workers are classified into two based on their living situation and time spent on their duties (Rani, 2018). The first is a full-time worker who is engaged only in domestic work and stays within the employer's home with the employer and may be residing in the employer's household ("live-in worker"). The second is part-time work; unlike full-time work, part-time workers does not stay with the employers but comes and performs the expected activities in a fixed time frame. It is also called a "live-out worker". Regarding the wage, ILO declared that all domestic workers are categorized as wage workers. According to Dar et al., (2014) a wage worker is an individual who works as an unorganized, non-agricultural laborer for pay. They may be engaged directly by an employer, through an agency, or as a contractor, operating only for one or more employers and receiving payment in cash or kind.

Domestic work is one of the oldest and most significant occupations; and it constitutes a large part of the workforce, especially in developing countries (ILO, 2013, pp. 67-101). The ILO estimates that globally, there are almost 53 million domestic workers (men and women) and that males and females over 15 make up this group (ILO, 2013, p. 80). Domestic workers now comprise a significant portion of the labor force, particularly in developing nations, and their numbers have been rising even in the developed world (Ibid). The working-age populace will be expanded by 40 percent, and trade openness will develop, especially in service occupations, by 2050.

Their contribution to the global labor market is undoubtedly playing a crucial role in the economy's advancement (Rinaldi & Salerno, 2020). This tendency is further supported by the widespread entry of women into the labor force, the aging of societies, and the increase in employment. And the infrequency or insufficiency of legislative measures to support the balancing of work and family life are influencing factors for the increase of women's labor force (Phillipson, 2019). This is the substantiating reason for the mounting number of domestic workers eager to migrate with help of facilitators.

In line with the idea of the economic contribution of domestic workers, some companies found in developed countries are looking for workers, particularly migrants who cannot claim their rights due to their background and are employed in companies with lower costs, fewer benefits, and deteriorating working conditions (Fernandez, 2011). In the case of developing countries where the mass unskilled working-age population is concentrated, the situation of domestic workers particularly migrants is worse than that of developed nations. Though relationships between developed and developing nations are increasingly offering the chance for job seekers from developing nations, the decisions concerning their fate in terms of payment, working hours, working situations, labor rights, and others are made by those hosting traders and employers (Fernandez, 2011). Furthermore, unlike skilled labor, unskilled labor, including women domestic workers, is full of exploitation and oppression because there are scarce jobs for them.

Female participation in domestic activities is often undervalued and considered unproductive, raising questions about the true meaning of productivity. If we focus on the welfare aspects of society's productive efforts, there is little doubt that domestic non-market output should be included. However, this aspect is frequently overlooked by many researchers and institutions despite the significant benefits these activities bring to families. The importance of these contributions in an individual's life cannot be denied. They contribute significantly to society's well-being and the welfare of people and their homes (Nicola Jones, 2010).

## **1.2. Rural-Urban Migration and Domestic Work**

Internal migration has increased in Ethiopia, especially in the last few decades, due to different causal factors (Hermans et al., 2023). The basic reason for the rural-urban migration among Ethiopian citizens is to increase the income level of households by sending some capable household members to nearby towns/cities where wages are higher (Erulkar et al., 2022). Moreover, in general terms, internal migration flows in Ethiopia have been driven by several factors such as economic (poverty), climatic (drought), and political factors (political turmoil, war and conflicts) (Ibid). This rural-urban migration works for both men and women because the generating factors are not uncommon for both (Mulugeta & Makonnen, 2017).

In line with this, the World Bank (2010) stated that rural-urban migration in Ethiopia is common for both women and men. Regarding the reason for migration particularly, women are more related to their genders, such as escape from early marriage, sexual abuse against them by nearby partners, village men, and others, and others for way-outs from their poverty. Therefore, women

plan to discharge such conditions, and they migrate to nearby towns to look for domestic work. It is debatable, though, how much of their goals and aspirations have been realized. In the study area, it is common for both men and women to migrate abroad through regular or irregular means. Regarding rural-to-urban migration, many school-age children from rural areas are moving to cities such as Addis Ababa, Hawassa, Hosanna, Adama, and Dire-Dawa. Boys often migrate to work as street shoe shiners, while girls typically do domestic work (Ansebo, 2012).

### **1.3. Gendered Work and Social Value of Domestic Workers**

As scholars argue, in terms of the amount of time spent on paid and unpaid labor by women and men and the sorts of unpaid work they perform, there is a significant gender gap in the distribution of paid and unpaid employment. Most domestic tasks are done by women globally, including childcare and housekeeping; even working full- or part-time jobs, women spend twice as much time on unpaid care work than men (Harpreet Kaur & Uppal, 2021). Harpreet and Uppal (2021) argued that women's total workload is slightly higher than men's, in both paid and unpaid work, because women spend more time on domestic work each day. As a result, it is simple to establish a link between women's domestic work, their labor force participation, and the kinds of jobs they have in the labor market. Traditional labor force surveys, however, cannot demonstrate this phenomenon, i.e., it shows that women are less likely to participate in the labor force than men, but the amount of work that women must do is not equal (ILO, 2013a; Morrow et al., 2017). Although women's labor force participation is lower than men's, time usage studies show that women spend more time working and less time relaxing than men (Harpreet Kaur & Uppal, 2021).

Regarding the social value of domestic workers, they are underpaid, unregulated, poorly protected and devalued worldwide despite their contributions to the welfare of millions of households (Harpreet Kaur & Uppal, 2021). Furthermore, they contribute to society at the macro level and provide vital care for families. Domestic workers' low value and underestimated status are associated with several factors directly and/or indirectly linked to their background. For this concern, the ILO depicted that one of the fundamental reasons contributing to the undervaluation of domestic workers is their gender. In many countries, domestic work is habitually taken place overwhelmingly by women who may be considered breadwinners for themselves and their families.

These social groups are part of historically marginalized groups, such as low-income, less educated households and minority ethnic groups. Despite developing skills via informal household responsibilities, women in these communities are systemically undervalued; their abilities are frequently disregarded as "innate" rather than regarded as acquired ability (Pérez & Llanos, 2017b; Tomei, 2011). Studies indicate that domestic workers place a high value on the dignity of their profession and believe that it is worthy of recognition, respect, and suitable regulation. They also believe that their employment should be recognized and respected (EWAL, 2019). Therefore, a large portion of women's work is devalued and underpaid because women often do domestic work in families (Irumba, 2020).

In Ethiopia, domestic work has a long history, from the slave trade to the current time (Kifle, 2002; Mekonnen, 2014). This may have something to do with the history and experiences of slavery; instances of maltreatment of female domestic servants by employers, employers' families, and the society at large have been reported (Adamnesh, 2006; Dessiye, 2011; Kidist, 2012). How feudal families threatened their slaves during the monarchy period is largely carried over into how domestic workers were treated in Ethiopia. Getachewu (2006) states that female domestic workers are underestimated and called derogatory names "Gered". They are expected to be available for about 24 hours, with no days off or chances for professional or personal growth (Dessiye, 2011; Dusit Abdi, 2018; Kuschmind, 2014; Wujira, 2010). Currently, some community members exhibit a diminished sense of attitudinal value by referring to them as "*Gered*". This is a reflection of unfair treatment for this social group, like other groups. This condition may pave the way for being exploited and vulnerable.

Different research has been conducted in Ethiopia regarding domestic workers, but their focus is on migrant women domestic workers found in the Middle East. Specifically, scholars focused on social integration in their overall working situations while returning to Ethiopia and others (Dessiye, 2011; Dusit Abdi, 2018; Kuschmind, 2014; Mekonnen, 2014; Wujira, 2010). However, domestic workers in Ethiopia have received less attention from researchers and scholars.

#### **1.4. The Role of Domestic Workers**

The role of female domestic workers in urban areas is multifaceted and can differ depending on factors such as cultural context, socioeconomic status, and individual circumstances. Their role is generalized and categorized by Anderson (2000; and 2015) displayed below:

**1. For the Household/Employers:** Female domestic workers in urban areas often have crucial roles in maintaining the efficient functioning of households. They perform a wide range of tasks including cleaning, cooking, laundry, childcare, and elderly care. Their hard work greatly contributes to the overall well-being and comfort of the families they serve, enabling other members to devote their time and energy to their careers or personal lives. Over time, these workers often become integral parts of the households they work for, forging strong connections with the family members (Anderson, 2000; and 2015).

**2. For Themselves/Employees:** For many female domestic workers, employment as domestic workers provides a source of income and livelihood. It enables them to support themselves financially and meet their basic needs. Domestic work may offer employment opportunities for women who lack formal education or specialized skills, allowing them to participate in the labor market and gain valuable work experience. However, domestic work can also be physically demanding and emotionally taxing, especially if workers face long hours, low wages, lack of benefits, and sometimes abusive or exploitative working conditions.

**3. For the Families of Employees:** Female domestic workers often send remittances to their families in rural areas or other regions. These remittances can contribute significantly to their families' financial stability and well-being. In some cases, women may migrate to urban areas for domestic work to support their families financially, providing opportunities for their children's education, healthcare, and improved living standards. However, the decision to migrate for work can also result in separation from family members and challenges maintaining familial relationship.

**4. For the Larger Society:** Female domestic workers fulfill an essential role in supporting the functioning of urban households and, by extension, contribute to the productivity and efficiency of urban economies. Their labor often enables other members of society, particularly those in professional or higher-income households, to participate more fully in the workforce and pursue career opportunities. However, the treatment and working conditions of domestic workers can reflect broader societal attitudes towards gender, labor rights, and social inequalities (Anderson

2015). Despite of their crucial role for the household, families left behind, themselves and the community at large, they are vulnerable to abuse.

### **1.5. Statement of the Problem**

The hidden nature of domestic work, typically performed in private homes, combined with the limited recognition and educational opportunities associated with such roles, makes domestic workers particularly vulnerable to exploitation and mistreatment. Legal protections for domestic workers are often nonexistent or poorly enforced. Ramirez-Machado (2003) argues that the vulnerability of women engaged in domestic work stems primarily from their submissive roles and social isolation. In Ethiopia, the historical acceptance of a culture resembling slavery until recently, along with the precarious global conditions faced by domestic workers, has contributed to a significant gap in research on their working conditions, legal protections, and ability to assert their rights. This neglect often forces domestic workers to accept unstable and exploitative employment, resulting in lives spent below the poverty line. A deeper understanding of the experiences of female domestic workers and the underlying causes of their vulnerability is essential to develop meaningful solutions.

Hossana, a town in the Hadiyya Zone, is a migration hub where people often move both within Ethiopia and abroad for various reasons. Men from the Hadiyya community commonly migrate to the Republic of South Africa, while women migrate to the Middle East (Makebo, 2017; Adugna et al., 2019). In addition, women from rural areas often migrate to towns and cities to engage in domestic work. The demand for cheap labor by business owners in Hossana, coupled with the influx of rural youth, increases the number of migrants seeking domestic employment through intermediaries such as brokers, friends, or relatives. While much research in the region has focused on youth migration abroad, particularly male migration to South Africa (Ansebo, 2012). The situation of female domestic workers in Hossana has received little attention.

Adugna et al. (2019) observe that migration abroad is increasingly common and socially acceptable in the Hadiyya community. However, their study does not specifically address the experiences of female domestic workers in the area. Despite the growing number of female domestic workers, research on their experiences remains scarce compared to studies on male migration abroad.

While some studies have been conducted on domestic workers, most of the existing literature focuses on child domestic servitude and the experiences of Ethiopian migrants in the Gulf

countries (EWAL, 2019). These studies often highlight issues such as abuse, exploitation, and violence, including cases of suicide among migrant domestic workers. Other research has focused on returnees, examining their experiences and challenges upon returning from abroad (Selamawit, 2013; Fernandez, 2010; Adamnesh, 2006; Mekonnen, 2014). However, these studies have generally not addressed the situation of female domestic workers within Ethiopia, particularly in urban areas.

Scholars studying domestic workers in Ethiopia have largely concentrated on three main issues: criminal investigations, child labor exploitation, and the migration of workers abroad (Dessiye, 2011; Dusit Abdi, 2018; Fernandez, 2011; Kuschmind, 2014). These studies have primarily focused on migration routes to the Middle East and the challenges encountered, often involving human smugglers. The violence faced by domestic workers, especially about human trafficking, has also been a major research focus (Elsa, 2011; Fernandez, 2011; Mekonnen, 2014; Wujira, 2010). However, there is a significant gap in research on the plight of female domestic workers within Ethiopia itself. The Ethiopian government's nationwide campaign against violence toward women and its multisectoral anti-violence programs have not sufficiently addressed the specific challenges faced by domestic workers.

The nature of violence experienced by domestic workers, including physical and psychological abuse, is often poorly understood and rarely discussed. Recent studies have explored abuse against Ethiopian domestic workers, particularly in the context of child labor and domestic work in Addis Ababa (Abiy, 2002; Kidist, 2012; Getachewu, 2006; Population Council, 2021). Kidist (2012) found that the absence of formal contracts between employers and domestic workers is a primary factor exposing workers to various forms of abuse. However, these studies did not examine the specifics of contract agreements or the legal standing of brokers. Getachewu (2006) noted that while most female domestic workers sign contracts, brokers often expedite the process using template agreements. Despite this, little attention has been paid to the brokers' legal status or whether these agreements adequately protect the workers.

Furthermore, much of the existing research has focused on employer exploitation but neglected the underlying dynamics of the recruitment process and the intermediary roles of brokers and parents. Little investigation has been done into the power imbalances at play during the hiring process or the interpersonal conflicts between employers and domestic workers living under the

same roof. Additionally, scholars have overlooked the mechanisms of conflict resolution or the post-dispute phase, including the termination of employment (Tefera, Z. 2017).

This study aims to fill these gaps by focusing on the specific vulnerabilities of female domestic workers, the role of intermediaries, parental involvement, institutional and policy shortcomings, and sociocultural perceptions. While research on domestic workers in the study area is limited, the existing studies often fail to adequately address the scope of the problem or use methodologies that do not fully capture the complexities of domestic workers' experiences. Furthermore, the issue of gender-based violence, particularly the intersectionality of various social disadvantages faced by female domestic workers, has been largely neglected in existing research.

Despite growing research on domestic workers in Ethiopia, significant gaps remain, particularly regarding their vulnerabilities in urban settings like Hossana. Previous studies, such as Getachew (2006) and Kidist (2012), primarily use feminist theory to explore exploitation and abuse, focusing on gender. However, these studies neglect the intersectional factors such as socioeconomic status, age, legal status, and cultural norms that further exacerbate workers' vulnerabilities. This study addresses this gap by using intersectional theory, which examines how multiple social identities intersect to shape domestic workers' experiences. Additionally, frustration-aggression theory is used to explore the emotional and psychological toll on workers, while vulnerability theory highlights how precarious legal and economic conditions increase workers' susceptibility to exploitation.

Methodologically, previous research has largely relied on qualitative approaches, providing in-depth but context-specific insights. While valuable, these studies often fail to capture broader systemic issues or provide generalizable findings. In contrast, this study adopts a pragmatic mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methods. This approach enables a more comprehensive analysis of domestic workers' vulnerabilities, revealing both personal narratives and statistical patterns of exploitation, legal gaps, and power imbalances.

In conclusion, this study fills critical gaps by broadening both the theoretical framework and methodological approach. It offers a more holistic understanding of the vulnerabilities faced by female domestic workers in Ethiopia to inform policy and improve working conditions and legal protections for this marginalized group.

Given the precarious and abusive working conditions faced by female domestic workers in the study area, it is crucial that further investigation is conducted to improve their working conditions and protect them from violence. This study provided a comprehensive, cross-sectional analysis of the violence faced by female domestic workers in Hossana, to inform policy and advocacy efforts to address these issues.

### **1.5.1. Relevance**

The phenomenon of school dropouts among adolescent girls, particularly those aged 15 to 17 in rural areas, presents a pressing issue with significant implications for both education and labor systems. During my tenure as a teacher in a rural primary school in the Hadiya Zone, the designated study area, I observed an alarming increase in dropout rates among this demography. Investigating the reasons behind this trend, I gathered insights from student representatives and community members, uncovering that many of these girls left school to seek domestic work in urban areas to support their families. This migration, often facilitated by illegal brokers embedded within local networks, highlights a critical intersection between rural education challenges and urban labor exploitation. The lack of comprehensive research addressing this dynamic in the current study area underscores a significant research gap and provides a compelling rationale for this study.

The lived experiences of female domestic workers in Hossana town, researcher's birthplace, further reveal the "severity" of their vulnerability. While many young women actively seek domestic employment, others, often under the age of 20, are forced into exploitative circumstances such as sex work or begging on the streets, sometimes with children in town. Additionally, cases of underage girls burdened with domestic responsibilities beyond their physical and emotional capacity epitomize child labor exploitation. Their attempts to escape or their dismissal from employers' homes often leave them stranded and exposed to further harm, including harassment, violence, and sexual abuse, perpetuating a cycle of vulnerability and despair. These observations point to the urgent need for an in-depth investigation into the structural, social, and economic drivers of such exploitation.

This study addresses a critical gap in the literature by focusing on the underlying causes of vulnerability and exploitation among female domestic workers in Ethiopia. Existing research has largely overlooked the intersection of rural school dropout patterns, informal labor migration,

and urban labor exploitation within this demographic. By shedding light on these interconnected factors, this study not only advances scholarly understanding but also aims to inform policy interventions. This research is both timely and necessary for addressing a deeply entrenched social issue with profound implications for gender equity, child labor, and labor rights in Ethiopia.

## **1.6. Objectives of the Study**

### **1.6.1 General objective**

The general objective of the study was to scrutinize the factors for the vulnerability of domestics; and the employers-employees interpersonal interaction in the Hossana town.

### **1.6.2 Specific objectives**

The specific objectives of the study were:

- ✓ To examine the socio-demographic characteristics and patterns of female domestic workers contributing to their employment vulnerability in Hossana town.
- ✓ To assess the role of brokers in the recruitment and placement of domestic workers and the impact of their practices on workers' safety and job stability in Hossana town.
- ✓ To find out the role parents, and sociocultural aspects in solicitation of young girls for domestic work in Hossana town.
- ✓ To investigate the dynamics of employer-employee relationships, focusing on patterns of abuse and exploitation in Hossana town.
- ✓ To identify the institutional and policy-related factors contributing to female domestic workers' vulnerability in the study area.

## **1.7. Significance of the Study**

Significance Categorized into Knowledge Production and Applied Policy

### **I. Knowledge Production Significance**

The study provides a valuable resource for academics, managers, and decision-makers interested in exploring domestic workers in local contexts. Its intellectual contribution lies in expanding academic and practical understanding of this often-overlooked subject. Additionally, the research results encourage further studies in this field. Given the scarcity of research on domestic workers,

the study serves as a foundation for practitioners, professionals, and academics at universities and research institutions to deepen awareness and foster new inquiries into the situation of domestic workers in Ethiopia. Finally, by shedding light on domestic workers' vulnerabilities, the study raises public and scholarly awareness of their working conditions, environments, and overall circumstances. This knowledge is critical for addressing their susceptibility and improving their well-being.

## **II. Applied Policy Significance**

The study's findings serve as a reference for regional bureaus, zonal offices, district labor and social affairs departments, women's affairs departments, and other stakeholders. It provides practical insights into improving and developing strategies for managing migrant domestic workers. The research also sheds light on effective social interaction methods when engaging with female domestic workers within communities. The findings also enhance stakeholders' understanding of brokers, legal challenges, and employer concerns related to female domestic workers. The study supports strategic and policy measures needed to drive meaningful changes in the sector by addressing these issues. Furthermore, the study highlights government agencies and organizations' need for proactive action. Its findings encourage these entities to mitigate the negative effects of unfavorable interactions between domestic workers, employers, communities, and other stakeholders. This calls for implementing actionable, effective interventions to improve governance and labor practices in this area.

### **1.8. Scope of the Study**

Two parameters delimited the scope of the study, such as theme issues and geographic spots.

#### **1.8.1. Delimitation in Terms of Themes**

In brief, the characteristics that suggest the idea of vulnerability, the assessment of interpersonal connections between employers and their employees, and the circumstances that led to the vulnerability of female domestic workers were all addressed by the theme delimitation of the study.

#### **1.8.2. Delimitation by Geographic Settings**

The study focuses exclusively on Hossana Town in the Hadiyya Zone, located in Central Ethiopian Region (CER). The Hadiyya Zone comprises 11 woredas and six town administrations, but Hossana Town was specifically selected for the research. According to the study area profile, Hossana is a central hub for rural girls migrating to urban areas for domestic work. Moreover,

the town hosts several private employment agencies whose staff members were also interviewed for the study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. REVIEW ON DOMESTIC WORK AND DOMESTIC WORKERS

#### 2.1. Theoretical Underpinnings: Frameworks to Understand Domestic Work and Domestic Workers

This sub-section clarifies the definition of domestic labor, its historical development, and the roles played by domestic workers or domestic workers from the perspective of sociological theory. In this context, efforts to combine their viewpoints based on theoretical presuppositions were also made. Additionally, efforts were made to investigate the experiences of women in the workforce and comprehend intersectionality, or the way that socioeconomic class, age, and other factors influence each person's experience. Examining the systems and procedures that influence these encounters would also be helpful. Using the three primary sociological viewpoints was best, which opened the door to a deeper comprehension of the socioeconomic phenomena of gender difficulties in domestic labor. Additionally, it aids in creating a more comprehensive analytical framework for addressing the issue.

##### 2.1.1. Frustration Aggression Theory

It is also called the frustration-aggression-displacement theory, is a theory of aggression proposed by John Dollard and Neal Miller (Berkowitz, 1989). The initial version of the concept said that frustration always comes before aggressiveness and that frustration would inevitably lead to some kind of aggression. The theory makes an effort to explain why individuals choose to victimize others (Berkowitz, 1989). It makes an effort to explain the root of violence. In contrast to aggressiveness, which is defined as "an act whose goal-response is an injury to an organism (or an organism surrogate)," frustration is the "condition that exists when a goal-response suffers interference," according to Dollard and colleagues (Breuer, 2017). According to the notion, frustration leads to violence, but when the source of the frustration cannot be addressed, the hostility is directed at a victim. Frustration can be conceptualized as arising from an inconsistency between a perceived situation and a desired, or expected, situation, that is, from the availability of the preconditions necessary to be able to complete some internal response sequence, by defining frustration as coming from the perceived resistance to achieving a certain goal (Berkowitz, 1989). This strategy uses aggressive conduct as a tool to coercively change perception to reflect the anticipated circumstance.

For instance, a guy could lash-out at his family at home if he receives contempt and humiliation at work but is unable to speak up for fear of losing his job. This theory is also used to explain riots and revolutions, which are both believed to be caused by poorer and more deprived sections of society who may express their bottled-up frustration and anger through violence (Breuer, 2017). People may get "frustrated" and act aggressively against people if they stand in the way of their aims. Due to their limitations and inability to offer a comprehensive explanation or cause of family violence, some ideas may very well be causes of family violence but are not complete. Thus, if a person's social network upholds standards that encourage power displays (such as macho culture), then unfulfilled aspirations will only result in violence. Goals being threatened or obstructed can lead to unwarranted hostility and violence (Ibid).

In the study at hand, employers set their aims and intentions while hiring domestic employees to work in their homes. But when their intentions are not fulfilled for a variety of reasons, they get frustrated, which generates anger. For instance, employers frequently face challenges from their employees over their expectations of obedience in all circumstances. In this situation, they could appear in accord and ultimately violate their workers. However, employees may also disclose such abuse from their own perspective. For instance, when workers aim to work as domestic workers, they do have their own goals, like saving money, moving on to starting their own business, and so on. They may choose to behave violently against their employers in a variety of ways, including revenge, theft, and other actions, if they are dissatisfied with not getting their deposited money back from their employers.

The frustration-aggression theory is extremely pertinent to the study on the vulnerability of female domestic workers because it provides a framework for understanding the underlying causes of abuse, conflict, and violence in employer-employee interactions in domestic settings. The notion states that when someone's expectations or aims are not met, they become frustrated and may become aggressive toward a more accessible or vulnerable target. Employers frequently recruit domestic workers with certain expectations, such loyalty, efficiency, and compliance. Employers may become frustrated when these expectations are not fulfilled because of miscommunications, inconsistent standards, errors, or employee resistance. If this anger is not adequately handled, it may show up as verbal, physical, or emotional abuse or exploitation of the employees.

In a similar vein, female domestic workers have their own objectives, such as making money, providing for their families, and becoming financially independent. Employees may also get frustrated when these objectives are thwarted—by underpayment, excessive labor, mistreatment, or denial of rights. Because of their precarious situation, they would not always react directly; instead, they might steal, flee, or engage in passive resistance. Accordingly, the Frustration-Aggression Theory provides a psychological framework for comprehending how cycles of vulnerability and violence are caused by unfulfilled expectations and power disparities. It emphasizes that social and emotional constraints that both parties experience at work are the primary cause of violence and abuse, rather than just personal character defects.

### **2.1.2. Intersectional Theory**

Intersectionality was first coined by Crenshaw in 1989 to describe the multidimensional of trouble that black women suffer from in the United States of America. Her core issues were that the intersectionality of different factors oppressed and hurt black women in the United States, like class, race, gender, and sexuality (Ernst, 2019).

Crenshaw (1993) argued that no single force puts women in severe vulnerable situations, but rather the interaction of multiple forces like gender, class, race, color, and others that make an intersection and then put them in a discriminatory position in society. Furthermore, Castro, and Halvino (Castro & Holvino, 2016) defines intersectionality as the intersection of many different categories of differences in individual lives, social practices, institutional arrangements, and cultural ideologies, resulting in a serious outcome in the subject. Furthermore, he argued that intersectional discrimination is the result of multiple discrimination interacting with one another in a single party. This is especially true for domestic workers, who are subjected to a slew of discrimination, putting them in a precarious position. The concept and its application have recently traveled across disciplines to inform policy and practice in development and humanitarian assistance.

One of the approaches that intersectional thinkers disagree with, argue, and challenge is the 'One size- fits all' approach. This approach is first used for a description of a product that would fit in all instances, which means one form, type, style, or procedure would fit in all related applications, scenarios, and circumstances. However, practically only some people fit the mold; rather, it should consider the interest, need and context of the person (Esposito et al., 2021). Providing a

framework for better integrating social variability by exposing explicit and implicit presumptions about established social categories is frequently seen as the most effective strategy to swiftly reach the majority of people in emergencies. In order to enable a more nuanced knowledge of people's needs, interests, capacities, and experiences, it enables an analytical tool for comprehending and responding to the ways in which individual factors or identities intersect with others (Chaplin et al., 2019).

One of the importance of intersectionality is to reflect complexities and help prevent the simplification of complex local and grassroots realities (Chaplin et al., 2019). They mentioned that it would be essential to highlight complexities to understand the contexts of social inequality and marginalization. The notion of intersectionality recognizes that being a member of many marginalized groups or identities intensifies and complicates experiences of oppression in various circumstances, which may result in higher social, legal, or cultural restrictions. Marginalized populations may, for instance, have lower resources and more obstacles to receiving social assistance or having a voice in politics, impairing their capacity to deal with, prepare for, and respond to environmental hazards. In order to create networks of unique exposures, sensitivities, and adaptive capacities, intersectional techniques can help us understand how social dimensions of gender, identity, power, governance, and institutions intersect in diverse socio-cultural environments, economic, personal and other determinants (Ernst, 2019).

According to Pérez & Llanos, (2017), intersectionality has been utilized in two aspects. First, it can explain why women employed in domestic work continue to be a highly vulnerable group. Second, considering the intersectionality of gender, race/ethnicity, class, and others in this case can provide a clear framework to understand the situation of the marginalized groups.

Adolescent girls from disadvantaged social groups (like domestic workers) backgrounds already have few options in their lives and endure various responsibilities because of their age, gender, and other personal related factors. Early marriage, a lack of access to health care or education, discrimination, and different forms of violence are some of the inequities they experience on a daily basis (Chaplin et al., 2019). Intersectionality is used as an analytical instrument for domestic workers, particularly for paid domestic workers. Several scholars have noted that domestic workers typically originate from lower-class, racially diverse, power educational background and economically underprivileged homes (Perez, 2017). Nonetheless, it is evident that there are marginalized sections within each ethnicity; however, women from these

communities are not even permitted to work as domestic helpers, and/or just a few sorts of work are permitted to be done with them.

### **2.1.3. Labor Market Segmentation**

Labor market segmentation refers to the division of the workforce into distinct segments characterized by variations in employment conditions, wages, and levels of job security. The theory of labor market segmentation suggests that labor markets are not perfectly competitive but instead segmented into different segments (Mok and Loveridge, 1979). The labor market is divided into two main segments: the primary and secondary segments. The primary segment consists of high-wage, high-skill jobs with job security, benefits, and opportunities for advancement. The secondary segment includes low-wage, low-skill jobs characterized by instability, limited benefits, and minimal opportunities for career advancement (Ibid). Labor market segmentation is driven by structural factors, including institutional, social, and historical factors, rather than individual skills or preferences. These structural factors may include education systems, discrimination, labor market policies, and historical employment patterns.

As Mok and Loveridge (1979) claimed the theory frequently claims that because those in the primary part of the labor market have better economic and social results than those in the secondary sector, labor market segmentation leads to social stratification. Theories of labor market segmentation draw attention to the possibility of disparities between workers in various segments about access to opportunities, salary, and job security. Knowing these ideas and presumptions offers insights into the processes of social stratification and economic inequality in countries and how and why particular worker groups may encounter various labor market circumstances. In the context of female domestic workers, labor market segmentation underscores the unique challenges and vulnerabilities this specific group faces within the broader workforce. Regarding the segmentation factors, the domestic work sector often operates within an informal and unregulated labor market. This informality contributes to the segmentation of female domestic workers, limiting their access to formal contracts, legal protections, wage discrepancy, and social security benefits. Furthermore, the informal nature of domestic work contributes to job insecurity, with many female domestic workers lacking formal contracts. Those who belong to more vulnerable groups are more prone to this uncertainty since they may face sudden job terminations and have few options for resolving workplace disputes. Furthermore, access to fundamental labor rights may be restricted as a result of the segregated

labor market for female domestic workers. Legal protections, such as standardized working hours, overtime pay, and rest days, may vary significantly across different segments.

Generally, labor market segmentation significantly shapes the experiences of female domestic workers, contributing to wage disparities, job insecurity, and limited access to labor rights. Recognizing the intersectionality within this segmentation is crucial for developing targeted interventions that address the challenges faced by diverse segments within the domestic work sector (Zekić, 2020).

#### **2.1.4. Vulnerability Theory**

This theory was first coined by Martha Albertson Fineman's in 1970s by emphasizing the natural disasters. This theory serves as the foundational concept, emphasizing the inherent vulnerability of all individuals and the need for societal structures to provide comprehensive protection (Fineman, 2017). This theory asserts that vulnerability is not a static condition but is dynamic and influenced by various factors, including social, economic, and legal structures. In the context of female domestic workers, vulnerability is not merely an individual characteristic but a result of systemic shortcomings that intersect and compound, shaping the experiences of these workers (Journal et al., 2018). Furthermore, Paul (2014) asserted that vulnerability theory provides a comprehensive framework to understand and analyze the multifaceted challenges and risks they face. This theory goes beyond a traditional focus on poverty or economic disparities, delving into the structural, social, and cultural factors contributing to this specific group's heightened vulnerability. As McLaughlin & Dietz (2008) depicted, it focuses on particular groups or social units and assesses their risks about multiple and interacting social and environmental stresses. Vulnerability theory recognizes that the human experience of constant vulnerability varies due to stages in the life course, social institutions, and law, which often trace intersecting forms of oppression based on race, gender, sexuality, disability, class and others.

Yet the theory focuses our attention on social rather than individual identities and characteristics on socially constructed relationships that are inherently unequal, such as those between employer/employee, creditor/debtor, adult/minor, parent/child, stockholder/stakeholder, and so on (Shitindi, 2023). Equality and antidiscrimination are inadequate frameworks for promoting justice within these roles and relationships. Vulnerability thus provides a **heuristic** device for exposing these relationships' structural privileges and disadvantages and suggests ways to readjust them to advance social justice and lessen inequality. Theorizing vulnerability as

universal and constant means it should not be used as a variable and/or comparative concept. No individual or group should be considered more or less vulnerable, uniquely vulnerable, or specifically or especially vulnerable. Instead, we can think about spaces, places, and positions or relationships as indicators of the proximity of, exposure to, or probability for vulnerability to be manifested or realized in the form of dependency (Kuschmind, 2014; Mahmud, 2021; Nisrane et al., 2020). In the case of female domestic workers, this theoretical framework seeks to elucidate the vulnerability experienced by this social group through a multidimensional perspective. Drawing upon Martha Fineman's Vulnerability Theory, this framework integrates critical elements from feminist, labor theory, and intersectionality theories to comprehensively analyze the socioeconomic, legal, and gender-related factors contributing to the vulnerability of female domestic workers.

#### **2.1.4.1. Structural Vulnerability**

##### **I. Legal framework**

Female domestic workers often find themselves in precarious legal positions with limited protection under labor laws. The absence of specific domestic work regulations can expose them to exploitation, long working hours, and inadequate compensation.

#### **2.1.4.2. Social-cultural Vulnerability**

##### **I. Gender Inequality**

Vulnerability is increased when gender and job are combined in residential environments. Women who fit into stereotypical gender roles may be restricted to household duties, which would restrict their possibilities and perpetuate existing power disparities. Women working as domestic workers in private homes feel alone in society because of their seclusion; they may find it challenging to establish support systems and obtain resources or help when needed.

##### **ii. Social Perception**

Societal perceptions frequently stigmatize domestic labor, diminishing its importance and making female domestic workers more vulnerable. This prejudice against their culture may lower their self-esteem and impede their ability to advance professionally. Employers may take advantage of cultural conventions about submission and obedience, thus undermining the agency of women employed as domestic workers. These conventions can potentially maintain a vulnerable cycle in which it becomes tough to question these processes.

### **iii. Intersectionality**

Intersectionality plays a crucial role in vulnerability theory. Female domestic workers from marginalized ethnic backgrounds and/or economically lower class, limited school attendance and educational achievement may face additional challenges, such as discrimination and limited access to resources.

### **iv. Migration Status**

An additional degree of vulnerability is added by the fact that many female domestic workers are immigrants. Their vulnerability to abuse is heightened by poor awareness of local regulations, language obstacles, and the possibility of being taken advantage of by unscrupulous recruiting agencies. In conclusion, vulnerability theory offers a thorough framework for comprehending and resolving the difficulties experienced by female domestic workers. By acknowledging the interdependence of structural, social, and cultural elements, activists and politicians may endeavor to provide a fairer and more balanced atmosphere for this susceptible group.

## **2.2. Empirical Review of Studies Related Domestic Workers**

Domestic work has a long history in the world, and its experiences are different from continent to continent accordingly. Domestic work has been practiced for centuries in Asia. Their experience was more social in nature, in that poor families “sold” (symbolic sell) their children, particularly girls, to rich families in order to work as slaves, maidservants, and/or quasi-members of the family by denying their rights (Bryan, B., Dadzie, S., & Scafe, 2018).

According to the Päävi (2011), in ancient India, the majority of domestic work was performed by the "serfs," who are from the lower class and who have no room to claim to access any rights. Regarding gender, women's employment as domestic servants is a characteristic of a feudal society. However, the situation of women domestic workers under feudal society in general is quite deplorable. In addition, by its nature, domestic work is considered an informal and unregulated sector. Due to this, it will be the most common employment option for the millions of poor women between the ages of 15 to 29 who find it difficult to get a job opportunity (Svennson, 2018).

On the other hand, there is a significant increase in middle-class women in urban areas, who want to maintain their upward mobility and status in public arenas. On the other hand, it paved the way for them to be removed from domestic work performance and increased the demand for poor women to perform domestic tasks. Furthermore, employing a woman worker from a poor

family does not cost much. These factors influence the demand for poor rural women in urban areas as well as the increase in rural to urban migration of rural women (Dar et al., 2014).

Even though it has its own negative consequences for the migrants, it provides an opportunity for employment for the youths and plays a role in the improvement of the socio-economic conditions of the migrants as well as their families. Furthermore, there has been little change in the economic conditions and access to rights of female domestic workers. In the case of Latin America, domestic service history has existed since the time of colonialism.

Domestic service served as one of the limited roles available for women within a patriarchal society (Pérez & Llanos, 2017a). Although women of various races and ethnicities were permitted to engage in domestic service, those who were well compensated belonged to the native country rather than being migrants. During this period, men typically worked in mining, leaving women with a high likelihood of relocating to urban areas. They eventually found employment in Spanish households, where they were subjected to mistreatment resembling slavery and were prohibited from marrying. Consequently, they remained bound to the households where they worked, essentially living as lifelong slaves. The denial of rights faced by Latin American domestic workers parallels the experiences of their Indian counterparts, as both groups find themselves outside the legal protections afforded to citizens. Given the low participation of women in the labor force and the marginalization of female domestic workers, understanding the division between domestic and market work becomes a crucial issue.

### **2.2.1. Reasons for the Augmentation of Domestic Service Industry**

The need for domestic assistance is steadily growing worldwide, particularly in industrialized countries (Neiderud, 2015; Robinson & Robinson, 2018). Several factors contribute to this trend. In affluent nations, there has been an increasing demand for paid domestic work among women, driven by a reluctance to allocate time to household responsibilities. The expansion of businesses within the domestic service sector has further simplified communication between employers and potential domestic workers. Social media also plays a pivotal role in advertising and recruitment for this industry. Additionally, wealthy countries are experiencing a rising demand for domestic workers from developing nations, partly due to heightened cleaning standards and the appeal of hiring lower-cost labor. Eco-friendly cleaning solutions, which are often more time-intensive, have further amplified the need for domestic cleaners. Other contributors to this demand include the increase in pet ownership and the growing use of Western products in households, both of

which necessitate additional household management efforts (Mellahi & Mol, 2016). The nexus between technology and domestic work in the modern world reflects a transformative shift in how household tasks are managed and labor is distributed. Technological advancements, such as smart home devices, automated cleaning tools, and digital platforms, have reshaped traditional domestic roles. Devices like robotic vacuum cleaners and voice-controlled assistants reduce the physical and cognitive workload associated with household management, while apps and online platforms streamline the hiring of domestic workers, improving connectivity and efficiency. However, this intersection also exposes critical challenges, including the digital divide and its implications for domestic workers, many of whom may lack access to or familiarity with these technologies. Furthermore, while technology has eased household management for employers, it has occasionally led to increased surveillance and control over domestic workers, raising ethical concerns about privacy and autonomy. This evolving relationship underscores the dual potential of technology to empower and challenge stakeholders in the domestic work sector, warranting further research to ensure equitable outcomes for all involved.

### **2.2.2. Domestic Workers in Global Perspective**

Even though it's difficult to count all the domestic employees in the world, empirical data from various nations' experiences showed that there was an increase in demand for domestic workers to help with household chores (Hunt & Machingura, 2016; Islam & Cojocaru, 2016). In the USA, in 2012, about 2 million jobs were in the home health and personal care industry (Thompson, 2017). Domestic workers are obviously used by millions of families in the United States; however, a significant proportion of these workers are undocumented immigrants who work for their employers informally (King-Dejardin, 2019). In the case of Australia, of the total employment rate, 19% are employed in households to perform domestic duties. A study of Singaporean women entrepreneurs found that 82.4% of respondents employed maids for household chores and 66.7% employed maids for childcare (Du Preez et al., 2010). In India, the number of domestic servants employed increased dramatically from 2.5 million to 90 million workers (Päivi, 2011). They called it an "invisible workforce" without any stock despite its contribution to the economy of the country in general. According to an ILO report, numerically in 2010, the number of domestic workers who engaged in domestic duties was between 52.6 and 100 million worldwide. In terms of gender, of the total number of domestic servants engaged in domestic service, 80% of them were women (ILO, 2013).

### **2.2.3 Domestic Work in African Perspectives**

In Africa, there are approximately 5.2 million domestic workers, making the region the third-largest employer of domestic workers globally, following Asia and Latin America (Miyazaki & College, 2023). This marks a modest increase from the 1995 estimate of 4.2 million (ILO, 2013). However, caution is advised due to a lack of sufficiently dis-aggregated employment data for many African countries (Wegenast et al., 2019). The statistical database covering global and regional estimates is notably weaker in Africa, encompassing only 20 out of the total countries and representing just 62 percent of the regional employment. Available data indicates that domestic workers constitute at least 4.9 percent of wage employment, with women domestic workers comprising 13.6 percent of all female-paid employees. South Africa leads in the number of domestic workers, with 1.1 million in 2010, followed by Zimbabwe, Botswana, Lesotho, and Namibia. Ethiopia stands out for having the highest percentage of domestic workers on the continent, attributed to factors like income inequality and enduring social roles from colonialism (ILO, 2013). Ethiopia is a significant employer of domestic workers, with around half a million individuals engaged in the sector (Fernandez, 2011). The sector is highly feminized, with women constituting 91 percent and domestic work accounting for 1.5 percent of female employment (ILO, 2013). In sub-Saharan African countries, many lack regulations addressing violence against women and girls, particularly domestic workers. Nonetheless, there is a growing effort by regional, national, and international organizations to combat this issue, as highlighted by Lake D. in 2021. Some African nations, such as the Republic of South Africa and Zimbabwe, have made notable strides in addressing domestic violence by integrating educational initiatives into their curricula, according to WHO (2012). Conversely, countries like Kenya and Botswana have implemented strict laws against rape, with even attempted rape being punishable, as outlined by GBVLSA in 2007. The African Development Bank's report in 2004 revealed that approximately 40% of the civil service labor force comprises women, indicating limited educational opportunities for women. In terms of employment and wages, around 71% of employed women hold positions with relatively low monthly salaries. This data underscores challenges in both educational provision and economic opportunities for women in the region. Some African constitutions, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo's, address the elimination of discrimination against women (EDAW), and the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia goes further by explicitly stating that women shall enjoy equal rights with men.

Despite legal provisions in place to protect women's rights and prevent domestic violence in certain African countries, their practical implementation remains questionable. South Africa has made efforts to address domestic violence against women and ensure their rights to equality before the law and equal protection of the law; however, the issue persists (Report, 2010).

#### **2.2.4. Feminization of Domestic Work**

Regarding the feminization of domestic work, feminists emphasize societal attitudes and, policies, and laws that treat domestic workers as unproductive and undervalued labor. As IOM indicates, "feminization of labor migration" refers to the increased number of female labor migrants at the international level. More specifically, of the total international migrants currently, almost half are women (HRW, 2014).

Domestic work is allegedly associated with the societal devaluation of female labor, and its economic effects are frequently overlooked (Kofman & Raghuram, 2012). Additionally, it is socially articulated because domestic labor is still seen as unskilled, unproductive labor with no place in society. This is due to the improper recording and documentation of their contributions to society through caregiving and other domestic tasks. The feminists disputed this idea and claimed that homework is essential to social reproduction and regulation (Wong & Wong, 2012).

#### **2.3. Historical Nature of Female Domestic Service in Ethiopia**

In Ethiopian history, slavery was normalized and recognized by both society and the government, as indicated by the "Fetha Nagast." Slaves, predominantly women for domestic service and men for agriculture received no remuneration; instead, slave raiders profited from the market, even exporting slaves abroad. After the fall of Haile Selassie's regime in 1974, the Derg government marked a turning point by officially acknowledging domestic servants as oppressed and exploited. Derogatory names like "Ashker" and "Gered" were removed and replaced by the term "yebet serategna." The Workers Federation of Ethiopia (WFE) (1979) aimed to support marginalized groups, including domestic servants. Despite political instability, the EPRDF has made strides for women's rights, incorporating them into the 1995 FDRE constitution and establishing associations for socio-economic and political empowerment. Nevertheless, challenges persist, particularly regarding violence against women rooted in patriarchal structures. Domestic work, primarily urban, employs 81 percent of domestic workers, making it the fourth-largest employer of urban women workers, with a slight increase in numbers before 2005 (EWAL, 2019).

## 2.4. The Concept of Vulnerability

Vulnerability, as articulated by various academics and organizations, encompasses the likelihood of suffering losses or witnessing casualties in threatening or dangerous situations (Mahmud, 2021; Nguyen-trung & Forbes-mewett, 2019; Päivi, 2011). The International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) (2004) defines vulnerability as the combination of an inability to manage disasters and environmental conditions that heighten the likelihood of adverse impacts. Philip (Philip, 2004) sees vulnerability as exposure to contingencies and stress, posing challenges in coping. According to Paul (2014), vulnerability is an expression of threat exposure within a risk context, shaped by the socioeconomic, political, and institutional capabilities of individuals and groups in specific places and times (Mustafakulov et al., 2020). In the case of migrant domestic workers, vulnerability arises from a complex interplay of situational and individual factors, such as the circumstances prompting migration, conditions during transit or upon arrival, and personal traits like age, gender identity, color, disability, or health status. Migration itself does not inherently increase vulnerability; rather, it is the result of discrimination, inequality, and institutional and cultural processes that undermine individuals' power and rights, exposing them to human rights violations (Morchain et al., 2015). Chaplin (2019) emphasizes the need for individualized assessments to ensure proper protection of the rights of each migrant (Chaplin et al., 2019).

According to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08), domestic workers are classified under Major Group 5: Service and Sales Workers, specifically within Sub-major Group 51: Personal Services Workers. This classification identifies two primary unit groups relevant to domestic work.

**The first is Unit Group 5152: Domestic Helpers and Cleaners**, which encompasses workers performing housekeeping and household maintenance tasks in private homes. These tasks include sweeping, mopping, and dusting rooms and surfaces, preparing meals and engaging in other cooking-related activities, washing, ironing, and folding clothes and linens, and grocery shopping and running errands to meet household needs.

**The second relevant category is Unit Group 5322: Home-Based Personal Care Workers**, which focuses on individuals providing personal care services within private households. These services are primarily directed toward assisting the elderly, disabled, or children. Tasks performed by workers in this category include helping with personal hygiene, dressing, and

eating, supervising children and facilitating their activities, and providing companionship and emotional support.

This ISCO-08 classification framework allows for the systematic categorization of domestic workers, emphasizing their diverse roles and contributions, and provides a basis for developing labor policies and protections tailored to their specific work environments.

## **2.5. Factors for Vulnerability Domestic Workers**

Domestic workers' vulnerability has been depicted by scholars from different angles. According to Chaplin (2019) before categorizing individuals and/or groups vulnerable, it would be essential to understand how the factors such as historical, social, cultural and political intersect to create vulnerability. The use of generic categories and the homogenization of people overlooks specific barriers facing people who are highly vulnerable and marginalized.

Scholars divide vulnerability elements into two, internal and external categories (Ahmed, 2007; Hamidazada et al., 2019; Pocnet & Strippoli, 2016). The internal factors are those traits that are more concerned with defenselessness-related personal difficulties. Risk factors include being a woman, having a poor sense of safety and social support, having a greater trait neuroticism, and having a negative evaluation of the traumatic incident. The external elements, on the other hand, include more environmental pressures and shocks, such as poor educational level, immigrant status, prior traumatic occurrences, and degree of exposure. In line with this concept, Kadam and Chaudhari (2011) emphasized on individual-generated causes of susceptibility include low educational attainment, youth, lower socioeconomic status, hostility toward women, and relationship characteristics that increase risk, such as drinking and drug use). Regarding the domestic workers, ILO (2015) revealed a number of factors contribute to the vulnerability of domestic workers, such as the lack of labor regulations in the domestic work sector, the sponsorship, system under which the domestic worker is dependent on and bound to their employer, the unregulated nature of recruiting agencies, social attitudes, overlooking, and norms deeply rooted in society.

### **2.5.1. Sociocultural Context and Vulnerability**

These factors are generated from the culture and norms of the society that female domestic workers are working for. Most of the time female domestic workers get domestic work through their intermediaries such as brokers (licensed or not), relatives, friends and others (Getachewu, 2006). On the other hand, there are social factors that paved way to the violence against women

in general and female domestic workers in particular. These sociocultural factors can be expressed in terms of various ways.

Patriarchy and Societal Traditions are one of the factors which accelerated from the cultural practice of the society regarding women in that specific culture. These culture-related factors incorporate the following points: traditional gender norms that support male superiority and entitlement; social beliefs that tolerate or justify violence against women and the customs that are accepted and practiced by the society as normal towards the women on their role and status (Kadam & Chaudhari, 2011).

On the other hand, educational status of the female is less in rural area relative to the urban areas. This less educational status is not only females' problem instead associated with the nearby community and their outlook for the female education. According to Nazir (2011), from the total female domestic workers, those who migrated rural to urban, about 64.7% were Illiterate, 25.3% of the respondents had primary education, 10.0% of the respondents had middle education. This is associated with the attitude of the community for the female education. As Kidist (2012) stated, from the total studied female domestic workers' low level of education with the highest registered level of education being secondary school attendants and many of them are illiterates which paved way for the women to be vulnerable to different kinds of abuse. The point of Pérez (2017) is not far from the above idea that most of the time paid domestic workers represent a historically discriminated, marginalized and economically poor family background. Svennson, (2018) also illustrated that the socio-economic strata is considered as the reason for the accords of the few rights for young female domestic workers. Due to this reason, domestic workers are usually women, not men, and child laborers.

### **2.5.2. Legal Provisions and Domestic Workers**

Violence against domestic workers has been inadequate and marginally covered by legislative acts of many nations and governments. Hence, their vulnerability is highly observable in different parts of the world due to the absence of legislation in the law of different countries (ILO, 2013). Lack of legal protection open room for exploitation by abusers, and the victims have no ground to protect themselves from their encounters. This unorganized, undervalued, unrecognized and unprotected group is finally exposed to exploitation, and vulnerable to multiple types of troubles like physical abuse, psychological abuse and sexual violence (Ndulu, 2018).

Migrant women, especially domestic workers, face precarious situations due to factors like lacking independent legal status and limited access to health and social security coverage. This vulnerability exposes them to interpersonal and institutional violence. International efforts, led by organizations like the ILO and Human Rights Watch, focus on labor rights and human rights violations of domestic workers globally. The ILO Convention No. 189 (2011) emphasizes the importance of contract agreements to inform domestic workers of their terms and conditions, addressing details like work, working hours, accommodation, meals, and termination conditions. Despite these efforts, awareness among female domestic workers about their fundamental rights, including the right to a minimum wage, remains low (Ndulu, 2018). Victims of violence are often hesitant to report due to a lack of awareness about relevant laws and a lack of initiatives to make them aware of their rights (Sunill, 2011; Kadam & Chaudhari, 2011). Female domestic workers, particularly those from rural areas, lack awareness about reporting violations, basic rights, and the existence of labor-related organizations (Kidist, 2012). Weak legal sanctions, poor implementation of existing acts, and insufficient efforts to increase awareness contribute to the vulnerable conditions of domestic workers (Kadam & Chaudhari, 2011). Concerned governmental institutions, NGOs, and civic society are deemed indispensable for the well-being of domestic workers, as the absence of follow-up can make them more vulnerable to health and psychological issues (WHO, 2012).

### **2.5.3. Parent Related Concerns Related to Domestic Workers**

Domestic work in Asia has deep historical roots, often entwined with social class dynamics. Historically, impoverished families, driven by financial desperation, resorted to selling their children, particularly girls, to wealthier households. These children were effectively treated as slaves, maid servants, or quasi-family members, devoid of their basic rights (Nazir, 2011). In South Asian countries, parents arranging marriages for their children often prioritize superficial factors such as religion, ethnicity, and financial condition, sidelining the primary individuals involved. In some cases, parents deliberately engage in the sale of children, driven by factors like debt bondage, deceptive migration plans for daughters, or for the family's consumption (Brock, 2015).

While such trends may not be prevalent in Ethiopia, there are practices that push women into economically horrifying activities against their will largely prompted by abject poverty and driven by the need to diversify household income. Family influence plays a significant role,

compelling women to migrate and engage in domestic work without their consent. Decisions, primarily made by family members, particularly fathers, mothers, or elder siblings, limit women's free will, leaving no room for them to express their preferences (Seblewongel, 2009). The Population Council magazine of 2021 notes that parents forcing their children into domestic work often make false promises of schooling or financial benefits, adding to the coercive tactics employed by local brokers and employers in urban areas. This exploitative practice further underscores the vulnerability of children forced into domestic service.

#### **2.5.4. Employment Agencies and Their operation**

A broker (in Amharic “*delala*”) is an individual that acts as an intermediary between an employer and employee to exchange their demand. Brokers provide that service and are compensated in various ways, either through commissions, fees, or through being paid by the exchange itself (Chau & Schwiter, 2021). There are two types of brokers “*delalas*” (Proclamation No 1156/19, 2019). The first one is a licensed one; those agents get permission from the concerned government agent as a private employment agency (PEA). There are preconditions to getting this permission, such as their office, a place to stay for the domestic workers who are looking for employment, proper facilities, a contract agreement format, administration, and others. The second is unlicensed brokers. Unlike licensed brokers, unlicensed brokers are invisible from the lenses of the government, and they are considered as unregistered and illegal who put female domestic workers in hazardous situation.

Regarding the social capital, the employment of domestic workers is significantly influenced by social capital, which encompasses informational, economic, socio-cultural, and institutional resources. Informational capital plays a critical role, as networks of friends, relatives, and community members often act as channels for sharing job opportunities and connecting potential domestic workers with employers. Economic capital facilitates employment by enabling workers or their families to invest in migration, transportation, or placement fees, which are often required to access jobs in urban or international labor markets. Socio-cultural capital, including trust and shared cultural or linguistic backgrounds, enhances employers' willingness to hire workers, particularly in private household settings where trust is paramount. Institutional capital, such as policies, regulations, and the role of intermediaries like recruitment agencies or brokers, further shapes employment dynamics. These institutions can either formalize and protect

domestic labor or perpetuate exploitative practices, depending on their implementation and governance. Collectively, these forms of social capital intersect to influence how domestic workers access, sustain and experience employment opportunities in diverse settings.

Obviously, it is difficult to estimate the size of their network coverage in the rural area because they are part of a community with a strong social network and well-organized communication in which they work or live. Since it is an accepted business and source of income for them via charging a fixed amount of fees for their service delivered with government permission (Kifle, 2002). Those domestic workers who used the unlicensed brokers are more likely to be exposed to abuse and violence from perpetrators in any form. Because the brokers have no place to communicate, follow, or know the status of the workers, including their location and what they are doing (Ndulu, 2018). As stated by Kifle (2002), many domestic workers, particularly rural children, start domestic service for other people in a very informal way, i.e., a short distance from their parents' house or a nearby rural town. Then, when they become very young and develop more physically, their parents, relatives, acquaintances, or guardians initiate their trip to Addis Ababa, whether by communicating with brokers (licensed or unlicensed) to facilitate employment. The Population Council Report ((Fund, 2021)2021) depicts that the role of parents, family members, and/or acquaintances is immense for the engagement of domestic workers in general and child domestics in particular. The report consolidated this by underscoring the indispensable role of the parents in the recruitment process, i.e., for one of the children from the family to be engaged in domestic work, the recruitment is first taken place by the parent(s), relatives, acquaintances, and/or guardians.

“Child domestic workers are their own parents’ recruits,” “parents send the girl out with the expectation of helping to earn an income, or just to take the burden off the family for needing to raise her.” (Population Council Report, 2021).

## **2.6. Working Conditions and Issues of Domestics**

When it comes to their working conditions, domestic workers are especially susceptible to violations of human rights. They frequently put in abnormally long hours of work for little to no compensation, with little to no access to social protections. Domestic workers are severely underpaid and denied humane working circumstances in India. They are paid considerably less

than the minimum wage for low- or moderate-skilled employees. Most live-in household helpers put in at least 15 hours per day, seven days a week. Domestic workers around the globe routinely endure long working hours and very little rest, according to Human Rights Watch. Their meager earnings are frequently not paid on time, if at all, and some have been imprisoned inside of homes (Islam and Cojocaru 2016; King-Dejardin 2019). In most of the countries, domestic workers face very similar types of issues and trouble they have faced in uncommon contexts.

### **2.6.1. Very Low Wages and Heavy work**

Domestic workers often receive wages below the minimum, leading to poverty. In the US, live-in domestic workers must be paid at least \$7.25 per hour (Barry et al., 2020). In the Middle East, minimum salaries vary, with workers in the UAE earning between AED 2,000 and AED 15,000 monthly (depending on expertise). In South Africa, specific regulations prohibit employers from withholding payments, supplying work equipment, or requiring purchases from the employer (Mannaa, 2020). Domestic workers in South Africa are entitled to a minimum hourly wage of R23.19 (Morapeli, 2019). Human Rights Watch (HRW) reveals that many domestic workers are paid below their assigned labor value, constituting labor abuse. Wage disparities depend on employer status, residential areas, and worker capabilities. Domestic workers often work excessive hours without proper breaks or overtime pay, facing exploitation. ILO Convention 189 emphasizes minimum wage coverage and nondiscriminatory remuneration, mandates payment at regular intervals, and forbids wage withholding (Articles 11 and 12). Exploitative practices like withholding wages or refusing to pay are prevalent issues faced by domestic workers (HRW, 2014).

### **2.6.2. Extreme Sense of Insecurity**

Anytime without alert, domestic workers may be asked to quit their jobs. Employers tell her to quit and no longer have their jobs when they are dealing with a crisis that is even beyond their control. The uncertainty of their life as a whole makes them less secure (Neves et al., 2018).

### **2.6.3 Abuse**

Domestic workers worldwide, regardless of origin or region, face insecurity due to the intimate nature of the workplace, leading to vulnerability, especially for immigrant, single, young, and less educated female domestic workers (Aboye & Alambo, 2019; Rajan, 2018). Economic abuse is a tactic used by abusers to control victims by limiting access to essential resources and hindering economic progress (Postmus et al., 2020; Stylianou, 2018). Social abuse involves

isolating victims from their social network, damaging their reputation, and restricting participation in community activities (UN Women, 2018). Sexual violence encompasses any coercive act against a person's sexuality, including rape, while sexual harassment involves unwanted sexual advances or behaviors, often exacerbated by the power disparity between domestic workers and employers (WHO, 2019).

Physical abuse is the intentional use of force or aggression to harm a person or animal, occurring in various relationships such as partners, friends, parents, and strangers (Mulugeta and Makonnen, 2017). This abuse involves direct contact like striking or kicking, as well as indirect actions such as hurling objects. Psychological abuse against employees encompasses verbal, mental, or emotional harm aimed at undermining well-being, self-esteem, or mental health (Matheson et al., 2015). This abuse includes attacks on a person's personality, negative tones, obscenities, isolation, shame, violent threats, gaslighting, and hurtful remarks (Dim, 2021; Getachewu, 2006; Kidist, 2012).

#### **2.6.4. Accommodation and Privacy of domestic workers**

Among the basic necessities of life, food provision is very important for any human being in order to survive first. Regarding food, in many cases discriminatory and dehumanizing practices were reported, although there are exceptions where domestic workers were sharing the same dish with other household members. Elsa, (2011) also indicated that it was also a common experience among respondents that they ate after everyone in the house. In many cases, employers had a great degree of control over their workers' personal affairs. For instance, employers get furious to find out that their live-in-domestic workers were involved in any sexual relationship. Repeatedly, employers curiously control their workers and do not allow them to develop any relationship (even friendship) with other people (Kidist, 2012). Female domestic workers are experiencing invasions of privacy (to various degrees) from their employers. Employers also had a great degree of control over their workers' personal affairs like any sexual relationship. Employers were reported not to allow workers to contact or make any friends (especially male) and would check up on their workers even on their time-off.

#### **2.7. Rights and Responsibilities of Employers and Employees**

According to the ILO domestic workers conventions (ILO, 2013), employers and workers both have certain responsibilities and rights. Each party must fulfill their responsibilities properly in order to be able to exercise their rights when their relationships are at work. As long as they

fulfill their commitments, both parties become industrious and productive at work, which also contributes to their relationship's ease and positive. Before requesting any of these rights, all parties should be informed of their key responsibilities and how each is to fulfill them. In principle, employees have a set of basic responsibilities that they must follow in their working environment. Besides these responsibilities there are also rights that the employees can ask for. It is the responsibility of an organization to make sure that each employee is offered with an environment that fulfills their rights to the fullest (DeCenzo, D. A., Robbins, S. P., & Verhulst, 2016). According to the ILO, as a principle, some of the fundamental responsibilities of the employers for their employees are: healthy and Safe Work Environment, adequate Rest Time, annual Paid Holidays, fixed Working Hour, unfair dismissal, and Refusing to work during the holiday. Generally, the freedom to work on weekends or on paid holidays is unrestricted for employees. Even during the Christmas season, employers cannot make their workers do services against their will. The efficacy and efficiency of an employee's job are determined by their roles and responsibilities. The employment contract, reasonable orders, cooperation with the employer, and devoted service are the true tasks and obligations of the employee.

## **2.8. Employer and Employee Relationship**

The relationship between employers and domestic workers is inherently complex and often contradictory, marked by issues of authority and servility (Ahmed, 2007). The employer-employee dynamic in domestic work is unbalanced, leaving employees in precarious situations and vulnerable to exploitation due to their deteriorating conditions and limited ability to assert their rights. Ideally, employer-employee relationships should be courteous, with varying levels of intimacy depending on individual preferences (MacDonald, 2006). Domestic labor goes beyond physical work, shaping workers within specific social interactions (B. Anderson, 2000b). Worldwide, experiences with employer-employee interactions range from positive to highly negative.

Some employers claim to foster positive relationships with domestic workers by showing goodwill and providing clothing, shoes, and medical care, regardless of wages (Ahmed, 2007). However, employers often exploit workers' limited ability to negotiate, exerting pressure that leaves workers vulnerable. Many domestic workers, despite facing dire conditions, continue working due to a lack of legal protections and a belief that seeking justice through the courts is futile. Quitting is often their only escape from exploitation.

The notion of domestic workers being "just like one of the family" is used to obscure power imbalances in the employer-employee relationship. As MacDonald (2006) observed, families reinforce ideological structures like class, gender, and societal norms, which domestic workers navigate both in their own homes and those of their employers. Romero, (1988) highlighted the "boss model" mentality, where employers prioritize maximizing service quality for minimal cost. This attitude erodes trust and worsens the vulnerability of domestic workers. According to the ILO (2003), employers often believe they are helping domestic workers and their families rather than harming them. However, female domestic workers in Ethiopia face widespread violations of their fundamental rights, including economic, sexual, physical, and mental abuse, alongside denial of education and healthcare access. This lack of respect for their rights leaves them exposed to systemic exploitation and abuse.

## **2.9. The Concept of Domestic Work**

According to the ILO (2011) domestic work is defined as work performed in or for a household or households; this includes home chores like cleaning the house, cooking, taking care of the children, elders, and sick members of the employer, gardening, washing and ironing, and others (ILO, 2011, Budrich, 2018). Furthermore, the ILO depicts a domestic worker doing any combination of the following: sweeping, vacuum cleaning, washing and cleaning, caring for family clothes, purchasing family supplies, preparing nourishment, serving meals, and performing various other residential duties. Anderson (2000) contended that it is exceptionally unbalanced to define household work in terms of errands performed instead of an arrangement of assignments. Domestic work is better viewed as a series of processes, of errands that are inextricably linked and routinely performed concurrently. As presented by the Rajha Sabha (2004) presented the definition of the two concepts, i.e. domestic servants and the housemaid. The definition is that

- (a) “**Domestic workers** means any person who earns his/her livelihood by working in the household of his/her employer and doing household chores”
- (b) “**Housemaid** means a woman worker/servant who performs household chores for wages”.
- (c) "**Employer**" means any person or family who employs a housemaid or domestic servant as the case may be, for doing their household chores.

In addition, all domestic workers are categorized as wage workers, which relate to the terminology of the ILO. According to the Bhoi, (2015), wage worker means a person employed for remuneration as an unorganized non-agricultural worker, directly by an employer or through any agency or contractor; whether exclusively for one employer or more employers whether simultaneously or otherwise; whether in cash and/or in kind; whether as a temporary or casual worker or as a migrant worker; and workers employed by households, including domestic workers.

Based on the above definitions, a domestic worker is one who performs household activities such as cleaning utensils, washing clothes, sweeping and cleaning the floor, cooking or assisting the employer in the kitchen, and looking after small children or accompanying them to school. The time they spend on their duties varies based on their agreement, such as full-time or part-time, and whether they work for one or more employers. As defined by Svennson (2018), young female domestic workers are workers whose age is between 13-21 and who work in a household other than their own to perform domestic activities under the umbrella of domestic work, whether it is paid or unpaid. Based on the above definition, in order to be a domestic worker, age, sex, and living conditions might not be the prerequisites. The issue that makes a worker a domestic worker is related to the activity performed in the closed home.

There are two basic classifications of domestic works which are constructed based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). These are

- i. **Housekeeping** which includes housekeepers and related workers and cooks.
- ii. **Personal care and related workers**, including childcare workers and home-based personal care workers.

These classifications can help us to incorporate all domestic based workers such as gatekeepers, maids, cooks, caretakers, chauffeurs, babysitters and others (Kidist, 2012).

### **2.9.1. Types of Domestic Worker**

The meaning given to the term "domestic workers" by the ILO (2013) is "any person engaged in domestic work within an employment relationship. Domestic workers are classified into two types based on their living situation. The first is a **full-time** person who is engaged only in domestic work and stays within the home of the employer with the employer, may be residing in the household of the employer ("**live-in worker**"). The second is **part-time** work; unlike full time work, part-time work does not stay with the employers, but comes and performs the

activities that are expected in the fixed time frame. It is also called a "**live-out worker**". Furthermore, a domestic worker may be working in a country where she or he is a national or in a country where he or she is not a national. However, a person who does domestic work on a part-time basis rather than as a full-time job cannot be classified as a domestic worker. Employees frequently choose live-out work over live-in work because it provides a variety of benefits (Barua, P., Waldrop, A., & Haukanes, 2017). As contrasted with live-in employees, live-out employees sometimes combine full-time and part-time jobs while working for various businesses. The employer typically has less direct control over the employee because they are not totally reliant on them for both their employment and housing.

Gothoskar, (2013); and Maruti, (2016), on the other hand, stated that there are three types of domestic workers based on the hours of work and the nature of the employment relationship. These are part-time workers, full time workers and live-in workers.

### **2.9.2. Conceptual Framework**

A conceptual framework depicts the relationship which the researcher anticipate between the researcher's variables or the traits or features wish to investigate. It outlines how the pertinent goals of research method fit together to provide clear results. It highlights cause-and-effect linkages and is frequently presented visually (Zelege, 2015). The conceptual framework serves both as a digest of the empirical and theoretical reviews as well as gives guidance to the overall analysis of the core themes. The journey culminates in a conceptual model (see Figure1) that captures and condenses demographic factors, parents, brokers related issues, and institutional issues that impact the vulnerability of female domestic workers.

The conceptual framework does, in reality, comprise five essential elements to produce variables for the vulnerability of the research population. These include i) demographic factors, ii) intermediaries-related factors, iii) parent and sociocultural related concerns, and v) institutional factors. The rows depict how the variables affect one another and play a part as independent variables, while the inner circle symbolizes the vulnerability of the study population. Since vulnerability is qualitative by nature and cannot be tested or quantified, the conceptual framework's final point displays the concept's indications. As a result, these indicators enable measurement of the idea using each indication's parameters.

As already mentioned in the labor segmentation theory, intersectionality theory, and vulnerability theory, these are synthesized for this study, there are causalities that make female domestic workers to become vulnerable. But in this study, these causes adopted and contextualized because some mentioned causes are may not be a case in the study area context. This is why the researcher adopted factors for the vulnerability of female domestic workers from the above mentioned theories.

Thus, female domestic workers' vulnerability can be considered the dependent variable in this study. As aforementioned, it is not easy to directly measure and quantify 'vulnerability,' but it can be measured indirectly as latent variables using proxy measures. A latent variable is a variable that is presumed to exist based on observable or measurable data but cannot be explicitly observed or measured. It is sometimes referred to as a "hidden" variable and is generally approximated or inferred by examining patterns and connections among visible variables (Borsboom, 2008).

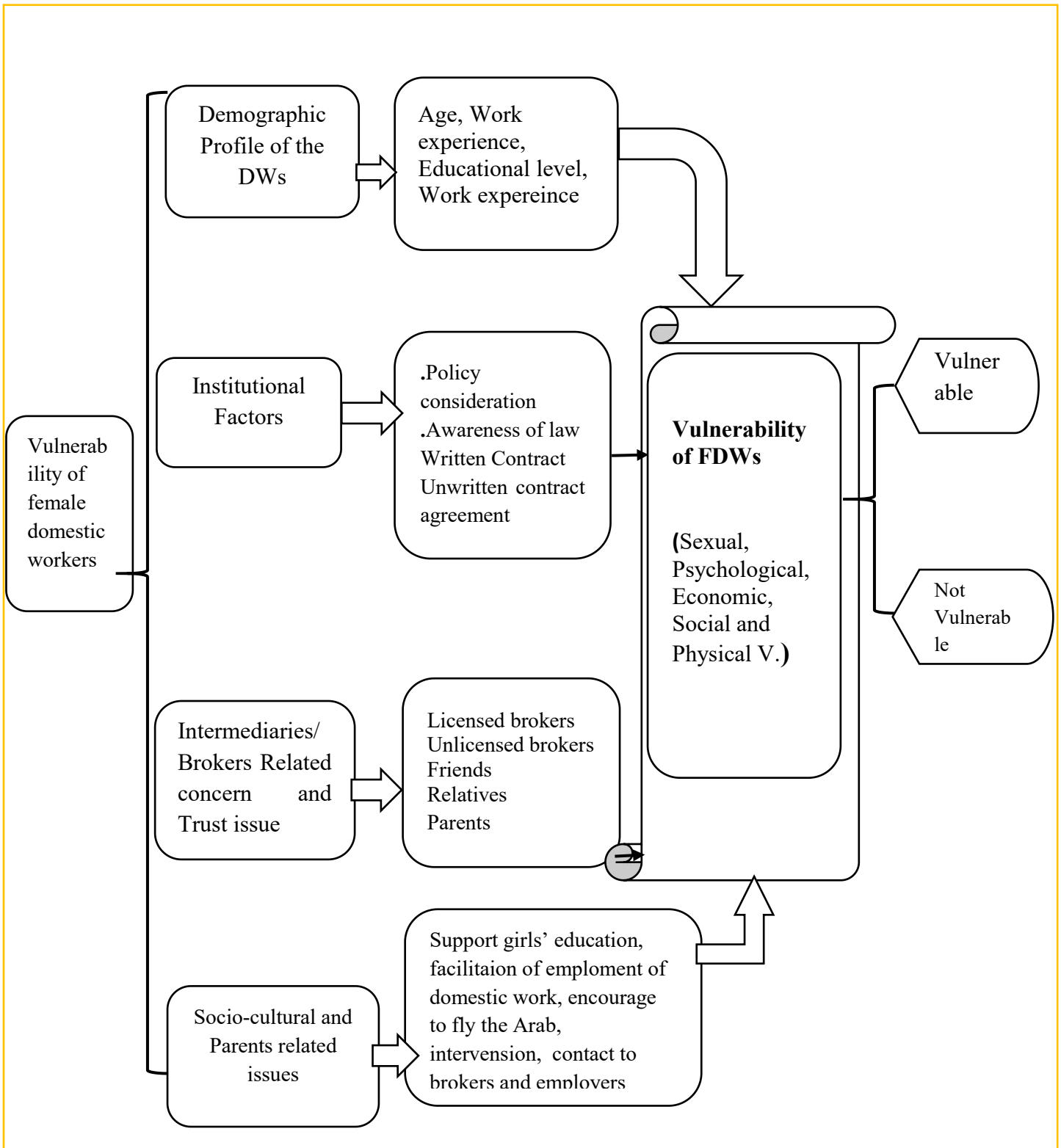


Figure 1. Source Author's own construction from Vulnerability theory, Labor theory and Intersectionality theory (2021).

The conceptual framework in the figure highlights the factors contributing to the Vulnerability of female domestic workers (FDWs) and how these factors interact to influence whether FDWs become vulnerable or not. Here's an explanation of the framework, step by step:

**Factors Influencing FDWs' Vulnerability** Several interconnected factors are identified as influencing the Vulnerability of female domestic workers. These include:

**Sociocultural and Parents-Related Concerns** The outlook of the community and employers toward FDWs, particularly regarding access to education and health support. The sociocultural environment can determine Vulnerability by restricting opportunities and creating unsafe conditions, and vice-versa.

Parents' encouragement or opposition to domestic work and their facilitation of employment or rejection of FDWs' working conditions determine the Vulnerability of female domestic workers. The state of parental support also determines Vulnerability. Supportive parents can reduce risks by ensuring safer employment conditions, whereas lacking support or encouragement to work abroad without safeguards increases Vulnerability.

**Demographic Profile** Factors such as age, work experience, educational level, and the subjects' educational status determine the study population's Vulnerability.

**Institutional Factors:** Awareness level law of female domestic workers, availability of written or unwritten contracts, policy considerations regarding FDWs. The nature of the institutional support, legal awareness condition, and reliance on written contracts leave FDW at great risk of exploitation or defensive risks.

**Intermediaries/Brokers:** the involvement of licensed brokers, unlicensed brokers, friends, relatives, or parents in facilitating employment. The legal status of the brokers or (informal or formal intermediaries) may increase or decrease Vulnerability through ethical practices and mitigate risks if properly managed or by improper management.

**Vulnerability of FDWs** The combined effects of these factors lead to the Vulnerability of FDWs, which is classified into specific types:

**Sexual Vulnerability:** Risks of sexual exploitation or harassment.

**Psychological Vulnerability:** Mental health issues caused by stress, isolation, or abuse.

**Economic Vulnerability:** Financial exploitation or inadequate wages.

**Social Vulnerability** includes marginalization or exclusion from community support.

**Physical Vulnerability** includes exposure to unsafe working or living conditions.

**Outcome:**

Vulnerable vs. Not Vulnerable: The framework indicates a spectrum where the interplay of these factors determines whether an FDW becomes vulnerable or not.

Cumulative Effects: The vulnerabilities (sexual, psychological, economic, social, and physical) often overlap and reinforce one another, creating a compounded risk for FDWs. In conclusion, the framework shows how various individual, institutional, and societal factors intersect to influence FDWs' Vulnerability.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

The primary topic portrayed in this chapter is the methodological approach taken to carry out the research. It enhances interactions about research philosophies, research design, methods, lessons learned from field observation, and ethical considerations. Correspondingly, the chapter gives vivid accounts of field experiences.

#### **3.1. Description of the Study Area**

Hosanna serves as the administrative center of the Hadiyya Zone and it is also a capital of new established region called the Central Ethiopia Region (CER). Hosanna is positioned southwest of Addis Ababa, approximately 232km away via the Alemgena-Butajira route, 280km from the Wolkite route, and 305km via Ziway. Additionally, it is located 168km from Hawassa via Halaba-Angeca. The geographical coordinates of Hosanna are 7.55 latitude and 37.85 East longitude (Atlas of the World, 2009). The administrative area of Hosanna town spans 10,414.3 hectares, with 4,585.48 hectares adhering to a well-structured master plan (Hosanna Town Finance and Economic Development Office, 2011). Hosanna is also designated as one of the 19 strategic development centers in the SNNPRS (Hosanna Town Finance and Economic Development Office, 2011). Furthermore, Hosanna is among the oldest towns in the region and shares close ties with neighboring rural areas, serving as a destination for rural girls and women seeking employment opportunities as domestic workers in urban settings.

The rationales for the selection of the current study area. First, in the Hadiyya Zone, it is obvious to see a significant number of female migrants in Hosanna town because it is the center of Hadiyya zone where many returnees from the Middle East prefer to settle. In addition, it is also a strategic area chosen as a temporary place for migrants (both men and women) waiting for flights to the Republic of South Africa and women to the Middle East. Therefore, female students like to migrate to Hosanna town, whether on the advice of relatives, family and/or others familiar with the area. Secondly, the researcher is a resident of the area mentioned above and familiar with the area. So, he knows the area well, and it is normal for the problem of female domestic workers, including the places where study participants can be found.

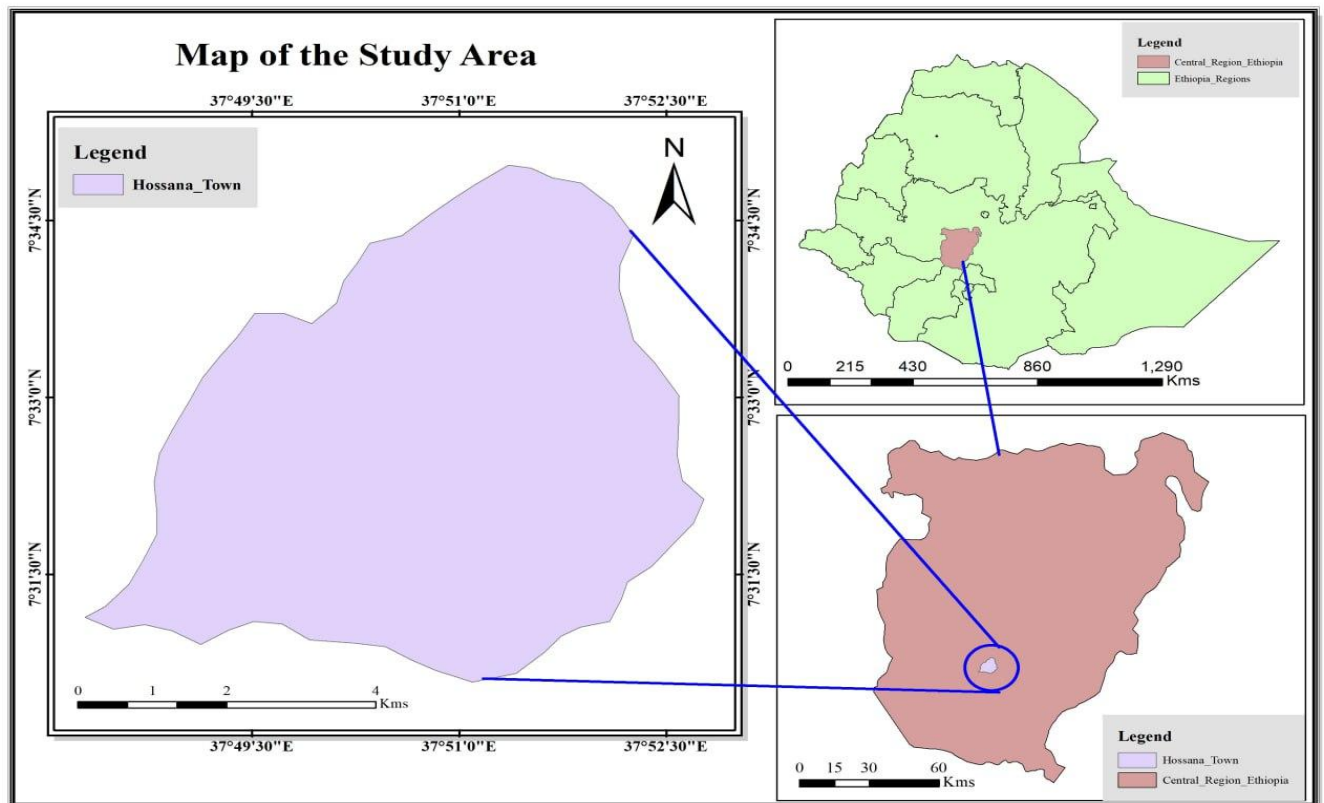


Figure 2: Map of the study area

### 3.2. Philosophical Foundation of the Study

Research paradigms are conceptual frameworks that guide and shape the overall trajectory of the research process. They establish the foundational beliefs and perspectives that underlie the core principles of the human worldview (Scotland, 2012). It encompasses the array of principles and methodologies that delineate a scientific field during a specific era as well as universally acknowledged scientific advancements (Lang et al., 2012). The paradigm helps to discover new world perspectives and social contexts that have immense and solid impacts on the conduct of inquiry (Morgan, 2014). On the other hand, Wahyuni's (Wahyuni, 2012) main emphasis of the research paradigm is the philosophical dimensions of social research. In social sciences research, philosophical worldviews influence research undertakings such as the Positivist, Post positivist, Interpretative, Critical, and Constructivist paradigms (Scotland, 2012). However, other scholars (Creswell, 2012) have added Pragmatism, Feminism and Advocacy or Participatory Perspectives to philosophical research worldviews. Their ontological and epistemological assumptions of each research paradigm help to identify one another based on their features.

Ontology assumptions categories two view of reality: objectivity and subjectivity. According to the objectivity view, reality is external and independent of social actors, whereas subjectivity argues that reality depends on social actors and is subject to construction of it. Regarding epistemology, a school of thought views what constitutes acceptable and valid knowledge on the way to generate, understand and use it (Wahyuni, 2012).

For the school of Positivism, reality is not dependent on human sense rather it is independent of the individual senses and real existence. Consequently, the Positivist philosophical schools advocate the quantitative research method, which involves survey and controlled experiments. However, both quantitative and qualitative techniques, according to post positivists, are flawed. The ontological view of Positivism states reality is entirely external, objective and independent of social actors, whereas the epistemological stance underlined that only observable phenomena can provide credible data facts and emphasizes causality and law-like generalizations (Stockemer, 2016).

On the other extreme, the interpretive school of thought advocates that human social phenomena interpret reality. It advocates lived experience as the core for understanding human behavior (Scotland, 2012). Interpretive paradigm is its ontological stance, whereas constructive paradigm is its epistemological position to share. Constructivist Perspective is another paradigm that scholars extensively discuss, emphasizing the re-construction of subjective interpretation in knowledge generation (Creswell, 2012).

Pragmatism is research paradigm that underpins mixed research methods or methodological pluralism (Tillman et al., 2011). As he stated, joint use of both paradigms, qualitative and quantitative data may help generate unique intuition into a complex social phenomenon that is unavailable for either type of data alone. Neither method alone is amply an inclusive understanding of the investigating phenomena. More specifically, pragmatism is not restricted to one research philosophy and paradigm; rather, it applies to mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative) research in that researchers draw liberally from quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research. This is why combining the two approaches qualitative and quantitative the benefits of the other might outweigh the drawbacks of one (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

With this in mind, this study applies pragmatism (Mixed Method) as a philosophical framework for investigating the themes of interaction, socio-cultural, institutional, and interpersonal frames

of female domestic workers in the study region. Combining both qualitative and quantitative paradigms to create convergent findings in the setting of exacerbated research issues is facilitated by using a pragmatic philosophical perspective (mixed or multiple). Therefore, a combination of ontology and epistemology is assumed as an appropriate to approach and comprehend social phenomena. And this philosophical approach provides an optimal opportunity to profit by overcoming the limitations of each technique.

There are basic assumptions that gives clue in to employ the mixed methods design in this study. Firstly, examining female domestic workers as a social group/category presents a complex and diverse undertaking that considers the viewpoints of various stakeholders as valuable sources for data gathering and analysis. Secondly, relying solely on one approach to investigate this phenomenon, whether at the individual or institutional level, risks restricting the breadth of data and the accuracy of findings. Thirdly, adopting a pragmatic approach allows for contextualizing findings and enriching conclusions with detailed insights. Integrating qualitative data to elucidate quantitative findings enhances the depth of analysis. Moreover, employing diverse methods to collect data on the same subject enhances the credibility of results. Finally, when qualitative and quantitative data converge, it reinforces the validity of conclusions. Collecting varied types of data offers a more comprehensive understanding of research problems than relying solely on quantitative or qualitative data (Creswell, 2012).

The researcher applied cross-sectional survey research as part of the quantitative research strategy. Scholars underscore the importance of cross-sectional strategy that it evaluates events and phenomena in a limited time duration in a given place (Zelege, 2015, Djamba & Neuman, 2002). Based on this narration, employing the cross-sectional design helps to know the circumstances against female domestic workers, the thesis overall situations, involvement process, interaction with employers, institutional issues and sociocultural and parents related contexts belonging to the study area. However, the quantitative approach solely might not be appropriate for providing more thorough justifications for any phenomenon. The employment of a qualitative approach to content results from this circumstance. As a result, the qualitative approach was used to collect data that reflects various aspects of respondents' experiences, personal perspectives, relationships with their employers and employees, and their perception of values, norms, and beliefs about female domestic workers. It could also be useful to identify any emerging trends from the data and better understand the issue at hand.

### **3.3. Design of the Study**

Research design is a comprehensive plan that aims to achieve objectives, and it facilitates the instrument development process, data collection process, sampling process, analysis and interpretation with reporting data in research studies (CRESWELL, 2012; Driscoll et al., 2007; Harrison & Reilly, 2011). There are four major types of mixed methods designs: triangulation, embedded, explanatory, and exploratory. Triangulation design is intended to combine quantitative methods' differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses. This design contrasts a large sample size, trends, and generalization with qualitative methods. Researchers employ this approach to directly compare quantitative statistical outcomes with qualitative findings, validate quantitative results, or enhance them by incorporating qualitative data.

Embedded Design is another type of mixed method in which one data set, either quantitative or qualitative, provides a supportive, supplementary, and secondary role in a study based primarily on the other data type within the overall design (Clark et al., 2007; Creswell, 2006). This design intends that more than a single data set is required to answer the research questions and requires embedding another data set. Primarily, researchers employ this design when they aim to incorporate qualitative or quantitative data into a predominantly qualitative or quantitative study to address a research question. In data collection, this design allows for either a one-phase or a two-phase approach (convergent/concurrent/simultaneous or sequential) for embedded data, with quantitative and qualitative data serving different research questions within the study. The study opted for an embedded design within a mixed research framework based on the research questions and objectives. Specifically, it was used a convergent/concurrent/simultaneous approach to collect data in a single phase.

### **3.4. Paradigm Emphasis and Time Order**

As stated by Creswell (2012), the mixed method contains two dimensions: time order (concurrent/simultaneous versus sequential) and paradigm emphasis (equal status versus dominant status). Cognizant of this, in this study, paradigm emphasis was the dominant status in which quantitative methods dominated the qualitative because the nature and context requires it.

Specifically, from the defined study objectives, the demographic profile of the respondents, sociocultural and parent related factors, institutional and brokers-parent related concerns were treated quantitatively via questionnaire, followed by a qualitative method (QUAN +qual). On the

other hand, the interpersonal relationships between female domestic workers and employers such as, sources of disputes, and how they resolve/react to employers were addressed qualitatively via interviews.

The qualitative data was produced through key informant interviews, in-depth interviews, and case studies, while the quantitative data was produced using a survey questionnaire from female domestic workers who were chosen based on predetermined criteria. When it comes to time order, it is the moment when both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered from the field during the data collection period. As a result, one phase of data collection using a concurrent parallel technique, which involved gathering both quantitative and qualitative data, was used.

### **3.5. Sources of Data**

Both primary and secondary source were used to generate the necessary data. The sequences of data collection affects the quality of the data. First, the primary source of data has been projected to be gathered using different tools according to the nature of the inquiries from the selected respondents. To supplement primary data, secondary sources of information were referred by researchers from the Hadiya Zone Statistics Agency, Hadiya Zone LSA office, Hossana town WAO, Hossana town administration, and the Police department. However, except for the Hossana town police office, which gave data to the researcher, all other offices did not have any organized and recorded data about the study population of domestic workers.

In research, the sequence of data collection is crucial for ensuring reliability and depth of understanding. Primary data should come first when assessing the vulnerability of domestic workers because it provides firsthand, real-time insights specific to their experiences. This data captures the unique aspects of their lives without being influenced by existing secondary sources, allowing for a customized focus on the most relevant issues. Collecting primary data first minimizes bias, encouraging an open-minded approach to uncovering organic discoveries. By starting with direct observations and experiences, researchers ensure their findings are rooted in the realities of the target group.

Secondary data, on the other hand, plays a supplementary role, validating and contextualizing the findings from primary research. It allows for cross-referencing, helping to align individual observations with broader trends or frameworks. Secondary sources enrich the study by providing context. However, when introduced after primary data, they avoid overshadowing or biasing the initial findings. This sequence ensures that primary data offers a solid, authentic

foundation, while secondary data refines and consolidates the conclusions, resulting in a balanced and comprehensive understanding of domestic workers' vulnerabilities.

### **3.6. Sampling**

Sampling is the method by which a researcher chooses a portion of a specific study population to participate in research activities and provide information ((Cochran, 2007; Jupp, 2015)Cochran, 2007; Jupp, 2015). In academic investigations, sampling becomes necessary because researching an entire population is challenging and financially impractical. Sample size determination with sampling techniques to be used is indispensable in the way to survey research. However, the researcher determined the sample size and selection procedures in qualitative research with some fundamental criteria established with the convincing intention of the researcher (Abdulqader, 2017; Israel, 2003). By nature of domestic work, domestic workers are only sometimes present in significant numbers in one location at a specific time. The only way to recruit a sufficient number of participants for the study is to get in touch with available domestic workers who express interest in the study sites throughout the data collection. Therefore, based on the specified criteria by the researcher, all domestic workers who consented to participate in the study at the researcher's request during the data collection period were included in the study.

Cognizant of this convincing intention, the researcher decided to use convenience sampling from non-probability sampling. Convenience sampling is also called grab or, accidental or opportunity sampling; (from the Non-probability sampling) this is a technique in which a sample is drawn from that part of the population that is close to hand, readily available, or convenient (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In addition, convenience sampling was used because of the practical limitations of accessing a larger sampling frame, even though it may increase bias and reduce generalizability. As a result, the results are interpreted cautiously, within context and in light of the sample. By employing convenience sampling, one hundred and thirty female domestic workers participated in the structured questionnaire and twenty-eight respondents participated in the qualitative data via mentioned tools, questionnaire and interview.

### **3.7. Variables in the Study**

A variable refers to any attribute with varying values, such as height, age, temperature, or test results, and they are the characteristics or conditions that can be observed, manipulated, or controlled by the researcher (Kaur & Mittal, 2021).

### **3.7.1. Independent Variables**

An Independent variable is a variable that the experimenter manipulates to examine how it affects the dependent variable and its antecedent. The presumptive origin of the dependent variable, or presumptive effect, is an independent variable (Kaur & Mittal, 2021). Different factors are identified in this study as independent variables. These are demographic characteristics, sociocultural concerns, institutional issues, and parental and intermediary situations.

**I. Demographic Profile:** Demographic characteristics are operationalized in terms of the profile of the female domestic workers. This study's demographic characteristics were age, marital status, year of experience, migration status, number of households worked so far, and educational status. Data was collected from female domestic workers via a questionnaire for demographic characteristics.

**II. Parents and Sociocultural Concerns:** These factors are forces within culture and societies that affect/influences the thought, feelings, and attitudes of the community in general and individuals/employers in particular. In this study, sociocultural factors were operationalized in terms of the attitude of the community in the study area towards female domestic workers, the social value of female domestic workers, social support, employers' attitudes to female domestic workers and treatment. This dimension was addressed via a questionnaire from female domestic workers. On the other hand, parents' intervention situation is their intervention while female domestic workers are employed and employment process.

**III. Institutional Dimensions:** legal, policy and organizational aspects work on protecting women's rights in general and domestics in particular. In this context, institutional factors are operationalized regarding awareness of rights, access to law, the nature of the contractual agreement and follow-up from government bodies.

**IV. Brokers Related Concerns:** In this study, it is operationalized related to the characteristics of the intermediates such as licensed private employment agencies, unlicensed private employment agencies, friends, relatives and parents.

### **3.7.2. Dependent Variable**

The vulnerability of female domestic workers is a dependent variable in this study. As stated above, vulnerability is not measured directly; instead, it is measured by using the indicators mentioned below. Therefore, the level of measurement to be applied is nominal, i.e., it was

categorized into two vulnerable or not (binomial). Vulnerability is conceptualized in this study as the predisposition of female domestic workers to be negatively affected, as well as the potential for casualty when the situation is exposed to the threat. The operationalization of the vulnerability of female domestic workers in this study is approached in terms of physical violence, sexual violence, psychological violence, economic violence, and social violence.

i. **Physical violence** is associated with an act that causes physical harm due to unlawful physical force. This physical violence is operationalized in this study as slapping, pushing, throwing material/objects that can harm/hurt, Kicking, punching, hitting, slamming against, burning the body and beating while they are working.

ii. **Sexual violence** is any sexual act performed on female domestic workers without consent. This study is operationalized in terms of vulgar and obscene language, touching sexually sensitive parts, threatening collaborating for sexual relations, trying to commit rape, encouraging intercourse, and engaging in physical contact for sexual satisfaction.

iii. **Psychological violence** is any act that causes psychological harm to an individual. It is operationalized as accusing of theft/laziness, threatening to hit or throw something, shouting, yelling, storming off during disagreement, and deliberately saying something to hurt.

iv. **Economic violence**: any act or behavior which grounds economic impairment to female domestic workers. Economic violence is operationalized in terms of refusing to pay salary, refusing to allow depositing, property damage, restricting access to financial resources, and salary control by someone else.

v. **Social abuse**: is behavior that intent to cut off from family unit, friends and the community. Social abuse is operationalized as it prevents a domestic worker from contacting relatives, friends, service providers, families and community members and/or restricts the person's activity by increasing a sense of isolation.

### **13.8. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

The following points were the main requirements to be met by domestic workers to be chosen as research participants. First, they should not belong to the town and/or be returnees from abroad. Second, they should either be employed as a paid domestic worker or actively seeking employment. Third, they needed to have been employed for at least a year. Fourth, they have been hired for at least one employers for at least above one year, rather than a “part-time” or

“live-out”. Last but not least, they must have had employment via brokers, at least once (licensed or unlicensed).

### **3.9. Identified Locations where Female Domestic could be Found**

The sites where female domestic workers may be identified and are accessible in search of employers are indicated to be private employment agencies (licensed brokers). The researcher marked this location to contact female domestic workers to collect data. The researcher also discovered potential venues for female domestic workers, including water stations in the town and schools that provide evening education.

**A. Private Employment Agencies:** Hossana town has five licensed brokers (Private Employment Agencies). Ninety-two female domestic workers were selected to respond to the questionnaire from the licensed brokers. Specifically,

➤ Employers and domestic workers are most familiar with **Mamo PEA**, one of the PEAs in the town. Twenty-nine consenting female domestic employees participated in the structured questionnaire for this study.

➤ The second PEA was **Mamush PEA**, and both domestic workers and employers are familiar with it. The study's respondents include 38 female domestic employees.

➤ The third was **Etetu PEA**, which brings together employers and domestic employees. Eleven female domestic employees who expressed interest in participating in the study were included in this PEA.

➤ **Mulugeta PEA**, a recently opened office in the town, was the fourth PEA included in this research. Only eight female domestic workers were included in the study.

➤ Last but not least was **Promise PEA**, an entirely new office in the community. In order to gather data, 6 female domestic workers were interviewed.

**B. Schools that Conduct Evening Classes:** In Hossana town, about three schools conduct evening classes for interested domestic workers, but not only for domestics. In this case, it was the best place for female domestic workers who wanted to attend an evening class by negotiating with their employers. In total, 29 female domestic workers participated in the study.

● The first school is **Alemu Wolde-Hana Primary School**, which is well known by the evening class of female domestic workers. In this study, with explicit consent and willingness, 18 female domestic workers participated.

- The second school is the **Number 1 primary School** in the study area. Five willing female domestic workers have participated.
- The third school is **Yekatit 25/67 secondary school**, where evening classes happening. Therefore, six willing respondents from the school were recruited to participate in the study.

**C. Water Points:** it is one of the centers where female domestic workers are available due to looking for water for their employers. In this compound, the enumerators interviewed nine female domestic workers who gave consent to participate in the study.

### **3.10. Data Collection Tools**

#### **3.10.1 Structured Questionnaire**

Female domestic workers who participated in the study completed a structured questionnaire that collected quantitative data. In order to address objectives connected to elements of vulnerability among female domestic workers, it has been intended to gather quantitative data. As previously mentioned, the researcher used the convenience sample approach to choose 130 respondents for a structured questionnaire designed to collect measurable data. The researcher did a per-assessment of the town by contacting brokers and mentioning school officials in relation to the size of the respondents.

The researcher counted the number of private employment agencies engaged in hiring before choosing the sample. The researcher then estimated how many workers showed up at the brokers' office daily, weekly, and monthly. By keeping track of the numbers presented physically by each private job agency. In the end, the researcher decided on the sample size of the respondents based on how many domestic employees arrived and were employed each week. The number of respondents varies in each private employment agency for this reason. On the other hand, the researcher attempted to include domestic workers who were not employed in agencies by contacting them at schools and water points.

#### **3.10.3. Key Informant Interview (KII)**

The interview took place to gather data from the concerned bodies, those with direct and/or indirect linkage in the employment process, working environment, living situations, and other related areas. Therefore, the researcher's projection to select those bodies was by employing a purposive sampling technique. Hence, the 18 selected key informants were two licensed brokers (private employment agencies), two unlicensed brokers, one from Hadiyya Zone labor and social

affairs department, one Hossan Women Affairs Department; six employers, two police officers, and four parents of employees (those who collected money from their daughters).

This tool was designed to gather information on a variety of topics. These are legal and policy concerns, the government's follow-up with domestic workers, how brokers contact newcomers, and how they are treated. Additionally, the relationship between employees and employers, the causes of conflict and how to handle them, state salary collection, and other related topics are also addressed by employing this tool.

#### **3.10.4. Case Study**

One of the methods used in this study was a case study, in which five domestic workers were contacted and their situations from the beginning to the end were eloquently described. The preconditions established by the researcher for participation in this interview included working for at least two years and above, not migrating to other towns or cities, working for at least three employers, and being a paid employee. As a result, the study described and examined all the pertinent data from the instances. The places where respondents were selected were three from schools and two from the PEA.

#### **3.10.5. In-depth Interview (IDI)**

A deep interview was one of the planned methods for gathering information from the female domestic workers in the research area. This tool addresses the interpersonal interactions between female domestic workers and employers, the hiring process while they are employed, the cause of interpersonal conflict when disagreements arise, the method they utilize to resolve them, and the manner in which they quit the job. In order to illuminate their experiences with the difficulties mentioned above, five female domestic employees have been interviewed. The locations where female domestic workers were interviewed were one from the water point, three from the schools, and one from a licensed broker's office (Etetu PEA).

#### **3.11. Data Collection Period**

Regarding data collection season, there are two ways of the data collection period for in the mixed method. One is a concurrent (simultaneous) way of data collection in which the data collection of both qualitative and quantitative data is conducted at the same time. It is also called one-phase project data collection. The second is a sequential design data collection, i.e. two-phase projects in which type of quantitative data is first followed by qualitative data or vice versa. Unlike the second way (sequential design), the first (concurrent/simultaneous way) was preferred

by the researcher because the nature of the respondents does not work to apply two phases (sequential). In terms of the time frame for gathering data, the researcher first intended to map the location and analyze the overall situation so as to create a favorable context. From November to December 2021, two consecutive months were used for the actual data collecting.

### **3.12. Validity and Reliability**

Validity and reliability are crucial in guaranteeing the quality of gathered data and the credibility of the study's outcomes. Validity pertains to the degree to which outcomes a tool produces accurately measure the characteristic or variable it aims to assess (the accuracy or truthfulness of inferences). In contrast, reliability is the degree to which a construct's measure is consistent, stable, or repeatable (Prabhat Pandey, 2015; Blank & May, 2017). From the mentioned mixed-methods validation or legitimization approaches outlined by Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2004), this study addresses sample integration, weakness legitimization, and paradigmatic mixing legitimization.

**Sample Integration:** This involves integrating samples from different methods to ensure the research findings are representative and comprehensive.

**Weakness Legitimization:** This refers to acknowledging and addressing the weaknesses inherent in both quantitative and qualitative methods. By doing so, researchers can strengthen the overall validity of their study.

**Paradigmatic Mixing Legitimization:** This involves legitimizing the mixing of paradigms (e.g., positivism and interpretivism) to create a more robust and holistic approach to research. Their framework aims to enhance the rigor of mixed research by ensuring that the strength of both approaches are utilized while minimizing their respective weakness. Regarding the tools, the Structured Interview Schedule and unstructured interview were developed based on the scientific literature on the area and previous research on violence. However, two major attempts were made further to assess the validity and reliability of the tools:

#### **Expert Judgment:**

Selected experts in gender violence and related fields, which have experts in postgraduate training, NGO experts such as Population Council, World Bank, EHRC, ILO and IOM in delivering training in helping professions from different fields. In addition experts from different

fields such as Psychology, sociology, and social anthropology, and who have had long years of work experience in gender-related practices were asked to judge the adequacy of the items in the tools. In addition, the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs technical advisor was the one who commented on the tools. The role of the experts was to comment on the relevance and appropriateness of each item based on the topic under investigation. The experts were asked to rate the items based on their relevance and clarity. They were also asked to rate the items as "include," "exclude," and "modify." On the other hand, poorly judged items that ranged from 2-3 points on the scale were revised to a 1-5 scale based on the feedback obtained in post comments from the experts, and those items rated below two were discarded.

As the experts commented, after the content validity was reviewed and revised, the items prepared in English were later translated into Amharic by a professional translator with the researcher's assistance. They were also translated into the Haddiyisa language to make them more understandable and comfortable for the respondents.

#### **Try Out:**

The final version of the tools was administered among 15 domestic workers found in a broker house around the town. Based on the outcome of the pilot testing, revisions were made on the items of the tools, especially the practical problems observed on a few items that were ambiguous and lacked clarity, which were also modified.

Generally, a reasonably sizable and identical sample was chosen using several approaches for both the quantitative and qualitative designs. Similarly, some measures were used to record participant perceptions and the elements contributing to their vulnerability. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data were integrated in order to explain the results better. The researcher also attempted to build the conceptual framework for the study and grasp the issue through a literature review. Additionally, to increase the study's validity, the preliminary findings were presented at several research conferences and/or other occasions on various dates. Lastly, the results were triangulated by utilizing several data sources and techniques in the validation process.

#### **3.13. Data Processing and Analysis**

The intention of this study was to investigate the vulnerability of female domestic workers in the study area, Hossana town. Thus, the unit of analysis is female domestic workers in the study area. From mixed method data analysis processes suggested by Onwuegbuzie and Tillman (2011),

**data decrease, data display, data consolidation, and data integration** were employed in this study.

The data gathered by questionnaires was coded, entered, cleaned and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 21) computer software. The quantitative data was reduced into descriptive statistics such as percentages and correlations. The qualitative data was also transcribed, coded and interpreted thematically. Regarding the sequences of analysis, quantitative data was displayed first and then corroborated by qualitative data analysis in the form of texts and quotes.

The statistical model employed in this study was the Binary logistics regression model (logit model). In statistics, the binary logistic model (or logit model) is a statistical model that models the probability of one event (out of two alternatives) taking place by having the log-odds (the logarithm of the odds) for the event be a linear combination of one or more independent variables ("predictors"). Binary Logistic Regression is helpful in the analysis of multiple factors influencing a negative/positive outcome or any other classification where there are only two possible outcomes (Abdulqader, 2017). Regarding the variables, binary logistics regression requires the dependent variables to be binary.

**Triangulation:** in a triangulation design, it is presumable that a test's or method's weakness would help balance out its strength, strengthening the claim of validity. Additionally, the shortcomings of each approach are distinct from one another. Triangulation is therefore recommended as the appropriate method for conducting this investigation since it aids in making up for a method's defect, strengthening the analysis, and producing a priceless conclusion, as was previously indicated. Cognizant of this, the study first presented quantitative data, followed by the presentation of qualitative data that substantiates the findings. The literature was then discussed, addressing contradictions or support for the findings. Additionally, relevant theories were triangulated based on context and relevance.

### 3.14. Summary of the Process Analysis

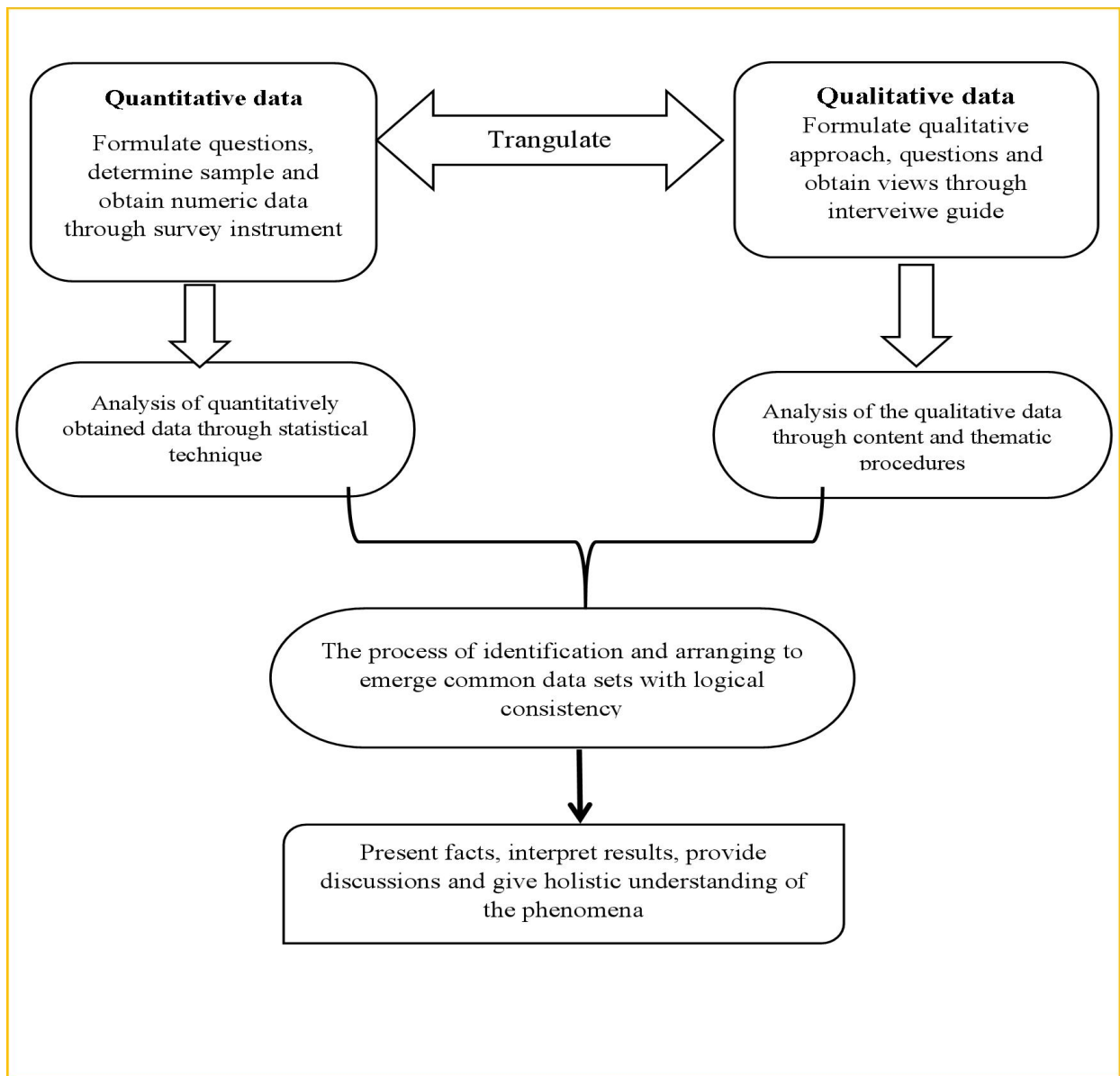


Fig 4: Convergent mixed design (Source: modified by the researcher following the works of Tesfaye 2015: 74)

Figure 4: Convergent Mixed Design (Source: modified by the Researcher following the works of Tesfaye Zeleke, 2015).

### **3.15. Ethical Considerations**

Throughout the fieldwork, the researcher has tried to address several ethical issues. Before conducting the investigation or data collection, the researcher should approach the Hossana town women's and Social Affairs office and the Hadiyya Zone labor and social affairs office to get institutional permission to conduct this study. Consequently, the researcher got a letter of collaboration from the Hossana town labor and Social Affairs office to licensed brokers and other concerned bodies. After getting permission from the concerned government body to conduct it, different steps have been taken to collect data.

The first step was obtaining the participants' consent, which included protecting and not harming their privacy. It was essential to obtain participants' consent and agreement to let the researchers utilize their submitted data. This was done to ensure that the respondents' involvement was voluntary. Before the interview began, the fundamental questions were discussed, including the research subject, the aim and goals of the study, the questions to be asked, the anticipated interview length, and the recording of interviews by note-taking and audio recording.

The researcher was also asked for permission to take photos during the interview so that they might be included in the research. But practically everyone refused to permit me to take photos while conducting the interview. On the other side, the researcher have made every effort to protect the participants and responses from any damage (such as termination from their positions or a physical threat from employers and brokers). Because of this, efforts have been made to avoid revealing their names, and to protect their anonymity, and pseudonyms have been employed. Because it would resent employers and be against the interests of domestic employees, the researcher have also refrained from disclosing the employers' names or home addresses. But, that does not mean the researcher changed the names and locations of the sites, such as the brokers' office and the other locations where the domestic workers were interviewed.

Another ethical concern was protecting the respondents' privacy because several interviewees balked at being asked questions about their marital status, their kids, or sexual assault. Some of the respondents did not feel comfortable answering questions about their children and the sexual abuse that was perpetrated against them, as was noted during the fieldwork and confirmed by my data collectors. Others were, therefore, kept a secret, with the exception of those respondents who were granted permission for their inclusion in the interview.

Another issue noticed throughout the fieldwork was the degree of anticipation for the difficulties they face at work and/or with their family members left behind. As part of the data-gathering process, it was heartbreaking to find out about their living circumstances and those of their families. Due to their legitimate and urgent requirements for survival as well as their dreams and expectations of us, the researcher and data collector experience psychological distress. Making fictitious and misleading promises to live up to their expectations was unfair, nonetheless. Therefore, the ideal strategy at the start of the fieldwork was transparent, informing them of the researcher's standing and informing them that he is neither an official of the government nor an employee of an NGO that may offer assistance or funding. More precisely, the researcher clarified for the enumerators during the training that the study's objective was to provide insight into the challenges faced by female domestic workers while they are employed by employers and engaged in the town's brokerage procedures.

On the other side, the researcher witnesses one of the town's licensed female brokers taking care of the domestic workers' kids in her own home. It was exhilarating to witness the broker acting so kindly, even at her expense. The researcher asked the concerned body from Wachmo University to encourage the distressed domestic workers regularly or as much as they could, even if they could not do so. Additionally, he made an effort to give them educational materials appropriate for their level using the little resources at his disposal, but more was needed to address their issues.

### **3.16. Limitation of the Study**

Despite its success, there are limitations acknowledged by the researcher in the study of female domestic workers. The following are some of the limitations identified by the researcher while conducting the study.

#### **3.16.1. Unrepresentative**

Given the absence of a known sampling frame and the non-random selection of the sample, it is improbable that the sample will accurately reflect the population under study. Consequently, this approach may result in the under-representation or over-representation of specific groups within the sample. Therefore, the research population cannot be deemed representative since the female domestic workers were only conveniently located for interviews. As a result, the results can only be representative of and generalized within the research field. Therefore, users should exercise caution when generalizing the areas of the fast assessment study's findings.

### **3.16.2. Resistance to Share Experience**

By nature, the domestic workers issues are very sensitive, systematic surveillance of them and their working conditions was not feasible to have a clear sense of their working conditions. The reason was employers' unwillingness to cooperate to allow them to observe the working conditions of their employees. This presented an enormous challenge to the study. The female domestic workers themselves were not in a position to share their experiences due to various factors, including a lack of knowledge about questions that determine the effect of domestic workers on the employer's family and the selective nature of their justifications for their exchange or interactional experiences. Due to a lack of time, mistrust, and a reluctance to answer the questions while they were working or attending school, some female domestic workers who were contacted during the data collection avoided participating in the study.

### **3.16.3. Slight Exaggeration**

The data may have been slightly exaggerated because the domestic workers, particularly those contacted while looking for work, may have believed incorrectly that they would receive financial aid right away after the study's conclusion, despite the facilitators and researchers making this clear from the start. The researcher tried to explain to the data collectors why respondents tended to overstate some of the challenges they experienced when doing household labor.

### **3.16.4. Lack of Access to Up-To-Date and Reliable Data**

Another significant problem for the study was gathering trustworthy and current data, i.e., data that had been digitalized utilizing technology to make it simple for researchers to share and interpret the phenomenon of domestic workers in Ethiopia. Relevant data was either unavailable or supplied with often conflicting statements across all government agencies and offices. Despite being essential in the planning of research and development, systems for recording the profiles, modes of living, numbers, income, and other characteristics of female domestic workers were nonexistent. The difficulties of acquiring reasonably adequate and timely data have increased due to outdated data recording and processing methods. In addition to a lack of trustworthy data, it was challenging to get relevant information from female domestic workers. The survey and interview attempts to gather information from female domestic workers were the most uncomfortable. Furthermore, despite being clearly told about the goal of the research in advance, all female domestic employees were cautious when contacted through organized interviews. The

employers, especially the immigrants from rural regions, were loath to acknowledge any of the arrangements established with the female domestic employees. Another significant obstacle came from brokers, who were adamantly opposed to approaching domestic employees for interviews.

### **3.17. Field Experience**

Fieldwork observers have a critical chance to obtain important data using observation as a data-collecting approach. Field research, according to some academics (Sarantakos, 1996; and Ruane, 2005), offers background for examining social life in its natural environment. The observation was helpful in carrying out in-depth analyses of the overall situation of female domestic workers with interactions of the community, employers, and brokers as well. As stated by Gazaly( 2018), it provided possibilities for watching and thinking at the scene of the action, event, process, or phenomena as a greater quality of observation.

In conducting any social research, it is obvious that the researcher faces challenges and difficulties during the fieldwork for data collection. There are both extremes, i.e., interesting issues on one extreme and difficulties on the other extreme. The interesting parts were the achievement and success, more or less, in data collection. It was challenging to get accurate responses from the respondents. On top of this, the main difficulty experienced in the field was that the domestic workers were very busy with their work and had no time for the research, particularly those communicated in the broker's office, and they did not know what research meant or the purpose of social research.

Due to the limited educational background of domestic workers and their reluctance to disclose precise information about their ages and incomes, a significant amount of time was dedicated to clarifying the study's objectives to the respondents. Many domestic workers expressed dissatisfaction with their earnings and working conditions during interviews. Additionally, the researcher observed that migrant domestic workers encountered numerous challenges associated with their workload. Nevertheless, the researcher diligently gathered accurate data, regardless of the participants' circumstances.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION**

### **4. OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND OF THE RESPONDENTS**

#### **Introduction**

The demographic profile of respondents relates to the characteristics of the respondents that are used in surveys, such as, ethnicity, gender, age, education, profession, and marital status. This chapter's primary goal is to describe the study's context and the history of the respondents in terms of various aspects and modalities. It opens with a succinct overview of the social, cultural, and demographic context, then moves on to other contexts that are helpful for domestic employees.

#### **4.1. Personal Profile of the Respondents**

The research population consists of 130 domestic workers, all of whom are female. Since the study sample was not randomly selected, as noted in the study's limitations, this number does not reflect the overall proportion of female domestic workers in Hossana town. Domestic work has traditionally been dominated by women, and data from multiple studies confirm that women are more likely than men to be engaged in this field. Therefore, the participants in this study were exclusively women, with their age, education, and marital status serving as the key characteristics examined under this theme.

##### **4.1.1. Age, School Attendance and Marital Status of the Respondents**

Concerning age in this study, the majority (90%) of the respondents were aged 15-24, while the remaining were children below 15 years old, i.e., below the minimum legal working age in Ethiopia. Approximately 48% of those polled were between the ages of 15 and 18, which states that the country's law specified the type of work should be very slight and legal mentioned parameters (with working hours and type of work) expected to be respected. In Ethiopia, 14 years is the lowest legal age for wage work. Under Article 89 of the Labor Proclamation, 14 is also the mandatory minimum age for young workers. A child is strictly prohibited from working in a way that endangers his/her life or health. Employers frequently prefer younger domestic workers (under 18) to hire because they are easier to control and demand little to no pay; they are unaware of their rights to claim. This is the reason why employers frequently take into account age when hiring domestic workers (which is presented in chapter eight in detail).

Table 1. Percentage Distribution of the Respondents with Regard to Age, School Attendance and Marital Status

Item		Frequency	Percent
Age	<14	13	10.0
	15-18	63	48.5
	19-24	54	41.5
	Total	130	100.0
School Attendance	Never attended school	12	9.2
	Grade 1-4(Primary education, first cycle)	47	36.1
	Grades 5-8 (Primary education, Second cycle)	54	41.5
	Grade 9-12	18	13.8
	Total	130	100.0
Marital Status of the Respondents	Married	2	1.5
	Divorced	3	2.3
	Separated	1	.8
	Single(never married)	124	95.4
	Total	130	100.0

**SOURCE:** Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The respondents' educational attainment is determined by the highest grade level they have completed and/or their stay at that level. Specifically, respondents from the first cycle (grades 1-4) can read and write, as the minimum requirement at this level is relatively high. Most respondents fall between grades 5 and 8, where they are generally more aware of their rights and responsibilities than those in the lower grades. However, some respondents belong to the group that has never attended school.

The findings of this study contradict Getachewus' (2006) study, which concluded that half of the respondents were illiterate. In contrast, only about 9% of the respondents in this study are illiterate. This result aligns more closely with Long's (2019) research, which highlights that the characteristics of rural areas and small towns are influenced by factors that shape rural youth's educational goals and the determinants of success in achieving them. The improved literacy rates

in this study may reflect the Ethiopian government's commitment to expanding elementary education and the community's positive attitude toward girls' education.

Regarding marital status, the findings presented in Table 1 show that 95% of the respondents are single (never married). This result is consistent with other scholars' study, which found that 60% of migrant domestic workers were single (De Regt, M., & Tafesse, 2018). However, it contrasts with Nazir's (2011) findings, where 74% of respondents reported being married, indicating an opposite trend.

A significant difference is also observed compared to Morrow et al.'s (2017) research. In Morrow et al.'s study, a substantial number of migrant domestic workers were reported as divorced, while in the current study, only 2% fall into this category. This disparity may be explained by the community context of this study, where early marriage is less prevalent. The lack of support for early marriage may drive young women to seek employment abroad in the Middle East rather than marry early. Additionally, married individuals may be less likely to migrate, which could account for the lower percentage of divorced respondents in this study.

The logical interpretation of these findings suggests that societal attitudes toward marriage and migration can significantly influence the marital status of migrant domestic workers. The study implies that the community's stance on early marriage and the opportunities available for work abroad can shape individuals' decisions regarding marriage and migration. The analysis is deepened by the citation of earlier research, which emphasizes the variation in marital status among various migrant domestic worker groups.

#### **4.1.2. Ethnic Background, Religion and Place of Origin**

This theme emphasized the background of the participants, including their prior residency before migrating to Hossana, the ethnic group to which they belong, their religious affiliation, and the reasons behind their involvement in domestic labor. The ethnic background of the respondents was dominated by one ethnic group where the study was conducted, the Haddiyya ethnic group. However, there were respondents from neighboring zones such as Walyita and Kembata.

Table 2. Distribution of Ethnic Groups of the Respondents

Item		Frequency	Percent
Ethnic Group	Hadiyya	75	57.7
	Kembata	17	13.1
	Wolaita	30	23.1
	Other	8	6.2
	Total	130	100
Place of Origin	Rural	122	93.8
	Urban	8	6.2
	Total	130	100.0
Religion	Orthodox	16	12.3
	Muslim	15	11.5
	Protestant	90	69.2
	Catholic	6	4.6
	Other	3	2.3
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

As seen in Table 2, almost for all respondents their previous residence are rural areas, except for six percent who came from “urban” areas. Having an urban upbringing was viewed as an advantage in this instance, as respondents saw rural towns as urban, even if they are not in the center of the Woreda.

As a result, compared to urban girls, rural girls are more inclined and attracted to participating in domestic work. Regarding the respondents' religious affiliation, as shown in Table 2, a variety of religions, including Orthodox, Protestant, Muslim, and Catholic, have been practiced in the study area. Respondents were predominately affiliated with Protestantism, possibly due to the religion's dominance in the study region. Being aware of this, the majority of the study's participants 69% were evangelical Christians, followed by 12% of Orthodox believers and 11% of Muslims. This is a sign of religious dominance, which varies depending on the number of followers from one location or region to another.

#### **4.2. Reason for the Involvement in Domestic Work**

Some experts contend that family poverty is the most important element when it comes to the reasons for child labor and the hiring of female domestic workers. For instance, Felleke (2007) stated that child labor is mostly caused by poverty everywhere in the world. He claims that children work to either supplement the meager family income or to become independent when it is insufficient to support the entire family. Children may be forced to work during their childhood due to the poor economic situation of their family since their income is insufficient to maintain them. Without a doubt, poverty is the main cause of people's unhappy lives all over the world (Aboye & Alambo, 2019). The results of this study are compatible with the aforementioned conclusion. In terms of the dominant factor since the desire to migrate to the Middle East (Arab countries) is the main motivation for female domestic workers to participate in the domestic work. As such, they have been domestic work in cities to raise money to pay for their migration to the Middle East where they also plan to do domestic work. This indicates that local domestic work is a transitory phase for the domestic workers.

Contrary to earlier research findings (Mekonnen 2014), domestic employees were either unemployed, in unhappy marriages, or attracted to the city, which led to them to be employed in domestic work. In spite of the small income and some trouble in their stay, lack of other security, women frequently take on paid domestic labor in towns because it helps them manage their domestic responsibilities. This is usually the only paid employment available in rural or semi-urban areas.

However, this research discovered that domestic workers became employed because they wanted to make money to pay for their expenses while moving to the Middle East. However, Erulkar's Erulkar et al., (2022) research findings are at variance with the study at hand. She stated that the lack of adequate educational opportunities in their rural communities and escape for early marriage in the rural areas caused many rural women to migrate to urban areas in order to pursue a better education. As a result, they moved to urban regions as the only way to pursue their desire to attend school. However, in this study, there were very insignificant number of respondents whose reason that made them became domestic workers in urban areas was educational opportunities. Those female domestics who attend evening class may not be due to lack of educational access to attend but rather family background and social factors such as deteriorated

attitude towards female education. On the other hand, some of the domestic workers attend school to fulfill the minimum requirement to have a passport.

Based on researcher's observation, this might be because educational coverage and access are relatively sufficient in the study area and enable women to read and write.

On the other extreme, only 19% of the participants in her survey indicated that they would rather migrate in search of job prospects in Addis Ababa. However, in this case, about half of the respondents admitted that the reason to be a domestic worker was related to push socio-economic factors. On the other hand, female domestics were involved in domestic work to facilitate the opportunity to migrate to the Gulf country to be domestic workers.

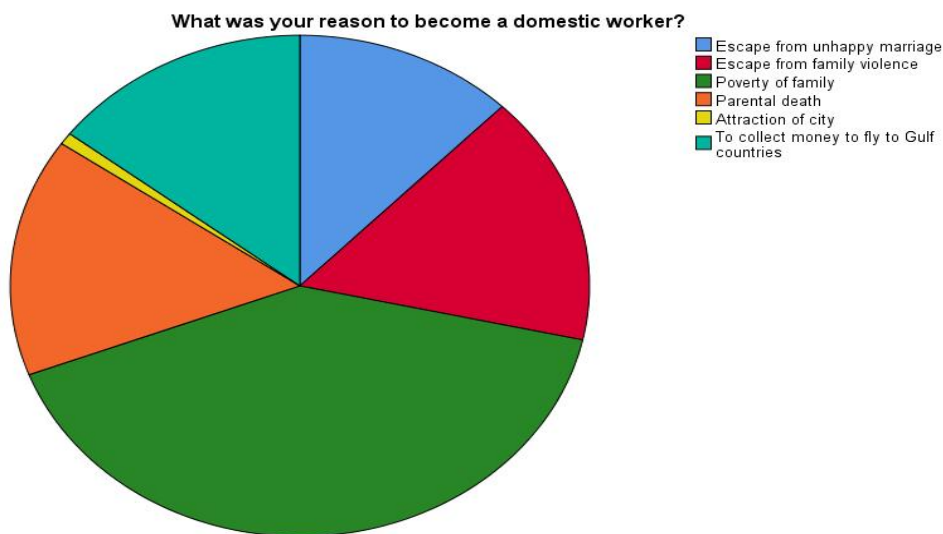


Figure 5: Main Reason to Enter into Domestic Work

The female domestic employees that were interviewed mentioned the reason to involve in domestic work is contradicting with the poverty of family as a reason. For instance, one respondent indicated that her family's refusal to sell their farmland in order to send her to the Middle East was the reason for her departure and involvement in domestic work. She has therefore been working at home to raise money to cover at least half of the costs. Another interviewee said that her motivation was unique among others since, prior to her mother's death and her father's subsequent marriage to another woman, she had never considered being involved in domestic work. As a result of her ongoing arguments with her stepmother, she eventually

migrated to the town without knowing anyone. She is right now overwhelmed with anomie and despair about her life because nothing is turning out the way she had anticipated.

This illustrates how family dynamics influence people's migration and employment choices from a sociological perspective. Migration is sparked by a tense relationship with a stepmother, demonstrating how intra-family disputes can push people to look for other places to live. The stories also highlight the women's agency in the face of social norms. They make decisions that consciously address their situation despite family obstacles and financial constraints. This sociological perspective highlights how different social institutions and individual agencies interact dynamically. In general, the sociological analysis of these stories highlights how complicated the choice to work as a domestic worker is (Madonsela, 2017). Combining individual agency, family dynamics, societal expectations, and economic considerations shapes these women's experiences.

#### **4.3. Experience in Domestic Work**

The points addressed under this theme are related to the experience of domestic work of the respondents, such as current working conditions, whether they were working while the data collection was done (current work status) or not, year of experience in domestic work; the shortest and most prolonged time they have spent working for one employer, the number of households they have worked for thus far, and the wage at their most recent employer's home.

As stated in the methodology part of this study, different sites were selected to contact female domestic workers for the data collection, such as the brokers' offices, schools, and water points in the town. As stated, among all the respondents, only 29% were currently working as domestic workers, i.e., during the data collection. They were contacted at the sites of the school and water point. Therefore, most respondents were contacted through the offices of licensed brokers while looking for employment. The data reveals an interesting pattern concerning the work experience of the respondents, particularly in the 6-8 years category, which constitutes a relatively small percentage. The limited number of respondents with 6-8 years of work experience can be attributed to several logical factors.

Firstly, it is suggested that many domestic workers initiate their employment in smaller towns, possibly to acclimate themselves to work and urban life, especially considering their rural background. This initial work experience might serve as a stepping stone for them to gain

familiarity with the demands of urban living. As they become more accustomed to city life, a trend is observed in the data where workers transition to larger cities, perceived as more conducive to accumulating the financial resources required for their ultimate goal of moving to Gulf countries.

This idea was also supported by interviewed female domestic workers who pinned as follows:

*“Working only in Ethiopia is not a guarantee that anything will change, and the amount of money given to domestic workers makes it impossible to accomplish the stated objective. In the Middle East, domestic employees are living better lives because they are paid attractive wages. But not here, not even after five years of employment. This is the reason why domestic workers relocated to cities like Addis Ababa after working in this town for no more than five years, which is more than enough time to adapt to city life. The city of Addis Ababa is the ideal location for me to gather money, be close to the brokers who facilitate the Middle Eastern process, and monitor its development. I'm going to relocate there to work, so.”* (19-year-old female domestic worker in Hossana, Dec 2021).

The absence of a significant number of respondents with six or more years of experience during the data collection phase is rationalized by this migration trajectory. As domestic workers gain experience and familiarity with urban life, they are more inclined to relocate to cities/towns, potentially for better employment opportunities and to amass/accumulate the necessary funds for their plans in Gulf countries. This interpretation supports the notion that these workers are relatively young and have a limited window of years to devote to employment. In general, the data observed pattern points to a reasonable progression of events in the career pathways of female domestic workers. Initial employment opportunities in smaller towns provide the groundwork for later moves to bigger cities and, finally, to the Gulf nations in search of better prospects. The explanation offered gives the interpretation more depth and consistency since it is consistent with these workers' employment choices and demographics.

#### **4.4. Number of Households Worked so far**

Of the respondents, the majority worked for two or three households in their working years. However, the percentage of respondents who did more than five households or more is small due to different factors. Brokers argued that female domestic workers with more than five years of experience usually do not want to stay in Hossana town. These workers believe that as their

experience grows, after becoming familiar with domestic work in Hossana town, they believed that if they moved to Addis Ababa to be domestic workers, they would be paid a higher salary than in Hossana. Most domestic workers have previously held jobs in several households, except those who only worked for one employer. This could imply a continuous turnover of female domestic workers due to different reasons like their own personal reasons or employer-related concerns. Residing with a particular employer for an extended period seems unusual among the respondents interviewed. Instead, switching jobs frequently, regardless of the intermediaries, occurs in the study region.

#### **4.5. Duration of Employees Stayed with in an Employer**

Table 3 illustrates the duration of employment for female domestic workers categorized by age. Among domestic workers between 19 and 24, 53.1% remained with a single employer for approximately 1-2 years without transitioning to another household. Interestingly, a higher percentage, precisely 70%, of respondents under 14 stayed with a single employer without shifting to another household. It indicates a notable difference in employment stability based on age, with younger workers being more likely to remain with the same employer. Conversely, for female domestic workers aged between 19 and 24, there was a minimal number who stayed with a single employer for more than five years without transitioning to another. This pattern, however, appears to be specific to respondents under the age of 14, as they may stay within a household for an extended period exceeding five years.

A crucial observation in the data is the lack of decision-making power for domestic workers, particularly those under 18, even if they desire to terminate employment due to adverse working conditions. This lack of agency is attributed to the restricted freedom of underage domestic workers to make such decisions. In contrast, respondents aged 18 and above possess the power to decide to leave an employer based on their reasons or unfavorable working conditions. This perspective highlights the fragility of young domestic workers and emphasizes their limited ability to make decisions, especially when quitting their employment. The findings shed light on age-related disparities in the domestic work sector, highlighting potential implications for the well-being and agency of workers based on their age category.

On the other extreme, some employers express their views about the refusal of domestic workers to work for a single employer for an “extended” period. They believe that brokers are involved in the problem since their primary source of revenue is the commissions they receive from settling

disputes between employers and employees. As a result, they are against the concept of workers keeping steady working connections with their employers since this would interfere with the brokers' source of revenue. This is the justification for certain brokers insist female domestic workers to end their jobs as soon as possible. Therefore, issues related to brokers impact the rapid turnover of domestic workers between employers; a more thorough discussion of this topic is provided in chapter five.

Table 3. Cross-tabulation of age and Years Spent with an Employer

Age	1-2 years	3-5 Years	5 & above years	Total
<14	35 (70.0%)	14(28.0%)	11(2.0%)	60(100.0%)
15-18	30(62.5%)	18 (37.5%)	0	48(100.0%)
19-24	17(53.1%)	4 (3.8%)	1(3.1%)	22 (100.0%)
Total	82 (63.1%)	36(35.4%)	12(1.5%)	130 (100.0%)

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

#### 4.6. Wage of Employees

This research revealed that the critical role domestic workers play in global households, providing essential services that facilitate the ability of employers to work and support their families. Despite the undeniable importance of their contributions, domestic workers often receive disproportionately low wages compared to other employment sectors. The study focuses on the average monthly wages of female domestic workers in Hosana Town, juxtaposing them with wages in hotels and cafeterias to gain insight into the prevailing economic conditions.

The findings indicate that a significant portion of respondents, 42.3% and 41.5%, reported monthly wages ranging from 501 to 800 ETB (10-16 USD/month) and 801 to 1000 ETB (16-20 USD/month), respectively. Notably, some respondents were unaware of their monthly pay, suggesting potential issues in wage transparency. In comparison, wages in hotels and cafeterias in the same locality were observed to be higher. This wage disparity is attributed to the specific nature of domestic work and indicates that certain employment sectors offer more lucrative compensation.

Unpredictable with this idea, one of the interviewed female domestic workers disclosed her perspective on low payment for private domestic workers and risks as follows:

*"Despite the demanding working conditions at home, private domestic workers are the least paid employees with heavy work load. They put in a full day's labor without a break,*

*but their pay is highly unsatisfactory, not reasonable and unfair. For instance, the wage of domestic employees recruited in hotel kitchens with clearly defined work is twice as much as domestic workers hired in private homes with not described work (to compare wage and work of hotel and private household domestic workers). Additionally, their set working hours and labor depend on their awareness and level of interest. Additionally, women who formerly undertook private domestic work are now engaged in sex work because they make more money than we do (private domestic workers). This is why sex work is today a popular means of income generation for domestic employees in Hossana town, especially those who have been in domestic work for a long time. (Age of 23 years Female domestic worker, Dec 2021).*

Several interconnected factors contribute to the insufficient wages domestic workers receive. These include the undervaluation of domestic labor and its societal significance, the limited bargaining power of domestic workers, their inadequate representation, and their frequent exclusion from labor protections, notably minimum wage regulations (Irumba, 2020).

Table 4. Distribution of Responses on the amount of Payment of Respondents

Amount of payment you paid or were you paid at your last paid job, monthly.	Frequency	Percent
Less than Birr 500 (less than 10 USD/month)	2	1.5
Birr 501-800 (10-16 USD/month)	54	42.3
Birr 801-1000 (16-20 USD/month)	53	41.5
1000-1500 Birr (20-15USD /month)	18	13.8
Above1500 Birr (15 USD/month)	1	.8
I do not know	2	1.5
Total	130	100.0

**SOURCE:** Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The data further elucidates the concentration of domestic workers in lower wage brackets, with a significant proportion reporting monthly earnings ranging from 501 to 1000 ETB (10 to 20 USD). The limited wage variation for domestic workers within this range signifies a segment characterized by uniformity in compensation, reflective of the marginalized position of domestic work in the broader labor market. When viewed through the lens of labor segment theory, the findings highlight the intricate dynamics within the domestic work sector(Nayak, 2020).

Domestic workers play a vital role in sustaining households globally, facilitating the ability of employers to participate in the broader labor market. Despite the indispensable nature of their services, domestic workers consistently experience low wages, positioning them in a distinct and economically disadvantaged labor segment. Labor segment theory posits that several interconnected factors contribute to the persistent low pay within specific labor segments. In the case of domestic workers, factors such as a high labor supply, societal under-appreciation of domestic work, weak bargaining power, lack of representation, and frequent exclusion from labor protections, mainly minimum wage coverage, collectively contribute to their economic vulnerability. Moreover, the observed correlation between work experience and higher wages suggests a stratification based on skills within the domestic labor segment. Those with expertise in employment, especially in tasks like cooking, care-giving, and house cleaning, command higher compensation. This aligns with the theory's emphasis on skill differentials as determining wage variations within specific labor segments.

Table 5. Cross-tabulation age and Monthly salary of the Respondent

Age	Monthly Salary					Total
	Less than Birr 500	Birr 501- 800	Birr 8001- 1000	1000- 1500 Birr	Above1500	
>14	7	6	0	0	0	13
15-18	2	24	28	9	0	63
19-24	0	19	25	9	1	54
Total	2	55	54	18	1	130

As evident by the above table, the positive correlation between age and wages underscores the influence of bargaining power within this labor segment. As employees age, their increased bargaining power is reflected in higher wages, a phenomenon consistent with labor segment theory, which recognizes workers' agency in negotiating better compensation over time. Generally, analyzing through the framework of labor segment theory, the findings reveal a distinct and economically marginalized position of domestic workers within the broader labor market. Low wages, uniformity in compensation, and the influence of factors such as skill, age,

and bargaining power characterize the segmentation. Specifically, when age and experience increase the wage also increase and the vice versa.

#### **4.7. Demographic Factors Predicting Vulnerability**

The results of the binary logistic regression model suggest that age and the number of households worked for so far are significant predictors of vulnerability among female domestic workers (The detail about the model is stated in the last chapter, and Annex). Specifically, the coefficient for of the age of the respondents is negative (-1.671) and statistically significant ( $p=0.005$ ), indicating that younger age is associated with more vulnerability (either all abuses economic, social, sexual, physical and psychological and/or at least one of them). This could be attributed to a lack of awareness and empowerment among domestic workers, hindering their ability to assert their rights and resist mistreatment when faced with challenges. Additionally, a notable trend is observed where employers prefer intermediary services to recruit female domestic workers under 18. The reasons for this preference include the perceived ease of giving commands, the acceptance of lower wages, a presumed reluctance to report violence, suspicions of theft, and other factors (detailed in Chapter Eight). However, the study suggests that as the age of female domestic workers increases, they may be less susceptible to exploitation and violence compared to their younger counterparts. This finding aligns with Fellek's (2007) research, which indicated that domestic workers commencing employment below the legal minimum age were more prone to various forms of abuse.

The report highlights that the Minimum Age Convention of the International Labour Organization (ILO) specifically specifies particular kinds of work and working hours for children under 14. It is important to note that Ethiopia has ratified this pact; however, minors under 14 continue to work, not under legal authorization but due to customary practices. If forced into work, there is a worry that these kids would be abused, which might endanger their health. Given that children in this age range are usually enrolled in primary school, it is especially concerning that these kids would be forgoing their education in favor of better job prospects. Therefore, the risk of exploitation increases with age, i.e., when the age increase the risk of exploitation decrease.

In the lens of Vulnerability theory, the research findings demonstrate a situation that is consistent with the theory's basic tenets. Specifically, certain groups are more vulnerable to harm and exploitation than others because of their heightened susceptibility resulting from a variety of

factors, including age, socioeconomic status, or institutional marginalization. Furthermore, the idea recognizes that people at particular life stages like childhood are more susceptible because of their dependence, lack of autonomy, and developmental requirements. In this instance, their age has a significant role in increasing their susceptibility. The study emphasizes how important international labor norms are for defending the rights of marginalized communities. One such standard is the Minimum Age Convention of the ILO. However, the gap between the legal framework and its effective implementation in Ethiopia suggests that vulnerabilities persist despite regulatory efforts. The study draws attention to the potential trade-off between education and employment for domestic workers. This aligns with vulnerability theory, which recognizes that limited access to education can exacerbate vulnerability by restricting future opportunities and perpetuating cycles of disadvantage.

On the other hand, the coefficient for the number of the households that respondents employed for so far is positive (1.265) and statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ), indicating that when domestic workers reputedly shift from one employer to an other is more vulnerable relative to their encounters. The data suggests that domestic workers who frequently change employers are more vulnerable than those who stay with one employer for an extended period. This vulnerability is due to factors such as unfamiliarity, lack of participation in the household, and unfamiliar personalities when workers change employers frequently. The study argues that longer-term employment with a single employer fosters greater familiarity between domestic employees and their employers, reducing vulnerability. Trust is highlighted as a critical factor in this relationship, suggesting that more extended stays contribute to a culture of trust between employers and employees. Lack of trust and empathy on the part of employers and frustration on the employees' side paved the way for conflict. This lack of trust is attributed to a short time for employers to get to know their employees well, a lack of intimacy, and communication issues. Generally, shorter stays with a particular employer or frequent changes in families may leave employees more susceptible to exploitation and vulnerable due to a lack of participation, intimacy, communication, and unfamiliar personalities. Therefore, a nuanced understanding of the vulnerability of domestic workers emphasizes the importance of longer-term employment for fostering trust and reducing the risk of exploitation.

#### **4.8. Discussion**

The demographic factors influencing the vulnerability of female domestic workers are examined in this study. The data reveals that a significant proportion of respondents fall within the age range of 15-24, with some below the minimum working age in Ethiopia, indicating potential issues related to child labor. The observation that employers often prefer younger domestic workers due to perceived ease of control and a potential absence of consciousness of their rights raises concerns about the exploitation of this demographic group.

Educational attainment among respondents varies widely, with some having low levels of education or no high school attendance. Most female domestic workers are unmarried, come from rural backgrounds, and belong to diverse religious and ethnic groups. These demographic characteristics suggest a vulnerable population with limited educational and social resources, contributing to their susceptibility to exploitation in the domestic work sector. The study highlights the diverse motivations behind female domestic workers' involvement in such employment. A significant number express a desire to immigrate to Arab countries, with the primary motive being financial gain for travel expenses. Poverty emerges as another key factor, driving female domestics to engage in domestic work to support their families by sending income or achieving financial independence. This finding is inconsistent with Erulkar's (2022), which states that the primary reason for domestic worker migration to Addis Ababa was looking for educational opportunities. This is consistent with the findings of Elisa, which states that the family's poverty was the main driving factor that encouraged domestic workers to fly to urban areas to find domestic work. Only a minority desire to migrate for job prospects, emphasizing the economic motivations behind their engagement in domestic work. On the other end of the spectrum, the study shifts its focus to the experiences of female domestic workers. The findings reveal that these workers have been hired by more than one employer, experiencing both long and short-term engagements. This aspect suggests a dynamic and potentially challenging work environment, raising questions about job stability, working conditions, and the overall quality of the domestic work experience for these individuals.

The results of the binary logistic regression model provide valuable insights into the factors influencing the vulnerability of female domestic workers. The negative coefficient for the age of the respondents, indicating that younger age is associated with higher vulnerability, raises

concerns about the exploitation of younger domestic workers. This vulnerability is attributed to a lack of awareness and empowerment, hindering their ability to assert their rights and resist mistreatment. The study suggests that employers' preference for recruiting underage domestic workers may contribute to this vulnerability, driven by perceptions of ease of control, acceptance of lower wages, and presumed reluctance to report violence.

The alignment of the study's findings with Fellek's (2007) research, indicating that domestic workers commencing employment below the legal minimum age are more prone to abuse, adds credibility to the argument. The report underscores the importance of international labor norms, such as the Minimum Age Convention of the International Labour Organization (ILO), in protecting the rights of marginalized communities. However, it points out the gap between Ethiopia's legal framework and practical implementation, highlighting persistent vulnerabilities despite regulatory efforts. The discussion also introduces the Vulnerability theory, emphasizing that certain groups, including children, are more susceptible to harm and exploitation due to various factors such as age, socioeconomic status, or institutional marginalization. The study highlights how limited access to education can exacerbate vulnerability by restricting future opportunities and perpetuating cycles of disadvantage. This insight underscores the potential trade-off between education and employment for domestic workers. Shifting the focus to another significant predictor, the positive coefficient for the number of households worked so far implies that frequent employer changes make domestic workers more vulnerable. The study attributes this vulnerability to factors such as unfamiliarity, lack of participation, and difficulties building trust when workers frequently change employers. It emphasizes the critical role of longer-term employment in fostering familiarity and trust between domestic employees and employers, reducing the risk of exploitation.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. BROKERS' ROLE IN THE HIRING PROCESS AND VULNERABILITY OF THE FEMALE DOMESTIC WORKERS

#### Introduction

This chapter intends to examine key concerns related to intermediaries (brokers) contributing to the joining of domestic work in Hossana town. More specifically, the chapter's intent was the role of brokers as a factor in the vulnerability of female domestics. First, the issue of the source of information about domestic work and migration—concerning brokers and other primary sources—is discussed. And, how the clients (potential migrants) contacted them. The brokers' facilitation process and their methods for persuading recently arrived domestic workers to participate are then discussed. Additionally, the brokers' legal status, licensed or unlicensed; their efforts to boost awareness of rights and responsibilities to employers and female domestic workers during employment facilitation. Finally, the prevalence of violence against the study population during the employment process via brokers is another core point underscored within the chapter.

#### 5.1. Brokers and Labor Law: An Overview

Intermediaries are third parties who carry out a task necessary for two other parties to finish the transaction or accomplish a certain task. In an agreement involving both parties, they act as a mediator or information conduit and create a connection between the parties to reach an agreement. Some people have been compelled to serve as intermediates for both sides in the process of employers looking for domestic workers and employees performing domestic work.

Brokers (known as "*delalas*" in Amharic) are intermediaries or "go-betweens" that facilitate transactions across different sectors in Ethiopia, such as the purchase or rental of houses and vehicles. Brokers are categorized into two: licensed brokers (legal and registered by government agents) and unlicensed ones (unrecognized/illegal). Licensed brokers are those allowed by the authorized government body as per the criteria fulfilled. As stated in the labor law of Ethiopia, 1156/2019, licensed brokers are named as Private Employment Agencies (PEA), which means any individual holding a valid license is permitted to offer one or two of the specified local employment services without levying any direct or indirect fees from the worker. This includes

providing local employment exchange services without engaging in an employment relationship directly. Plus, by entering into an employment contract with such employees, it can send employees under its control to work for a customer organization or combine the two services. Conversely, unlicensed brokers have no legal status and are prohibited by the government authority from operating without fulfilling the criteria specified in the law for brokers. However, they work in various settings with established relationships with their clients and the local community.

The function of intermediaries is crucial because they hire, place, and manage domestic employees in various locations. It is easier for rural females to choose domestic work in the urban areas if someone can make things easier there. By hiring, placing, and managing domestic employees, intermediaries contribute to formalizing domestic work. During the migration process of rural girls, brokers play a crucial role for the migrants, helping them with everything from lobbying to smuggling by making promises that will win over their hearts. Generally, licensed and unlicensed brokers are fully involved in the intermediate process, one in the office overtly (licensed) and the other invisibly and covertly (unlicensed). Their common character is both facilitate employment and charge some amount of fee from their customers. But, unlicensed brokers is considered as illegal by the government.

## **5.2. The Role of Intermediaries in the First Decision for Domestic Work**

There are different sources of information that female domestic workers first heard about involving domestic work and domestic workers. Particularly, friends, family, brokers, and neighbors were the primary sources of information for prospective migrants who aware of domestic migration to urban centers to become domestic workers. Out of these choices, the majority of respondents identified brokers and friends as the primary information sources. A substantial number of respondents mentioned that their family was a reliable source of information on the route they followed. This suggests that everyone in the neighborhood knows the possibility of moving to cities to work as domestic help.

Table 6. Responses on the first Information and Decision to be a Domestic Worker

<b>Item</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
The first source of information about domestic work	Friends	37	28.46
	Family	21	16.15

	Neighbor	18	13.84
	Broker	41	31.53
	Other	13	10
	Total	130	100
Anyone who was initially encouraged to make the decision to become a domestic worker.	Yes	130	100.0
	No	-	-
	Total	130	100
The person who primarily facilitated domestic work.	Broker	47	36.2
	Friend	34	26.2
	Parent	34	26.2
	Relatives	14	10.8
	Self	1	.8
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

According to Table 6, every respondent acknowledged that they needed help deciding to get involved in domestic work, and there were indications that the power of decision-making by themselves to be a domestic worker was minimal. During their first decision to be a domestic worker, all of the respondents reported that they were advised by another person or persons. In specific to facilitators, a similar number of respondents (26.2% and 26.2%) indicated that it was a friend or parent who used the moderation process while involved in the employment relationship. However, very few respondents said their relatives voluntarily assisted them in this process. Unlike Elsa's (2011) finding, which states parents take a limited role in the brokerage process, in this study, friends and parents had a significant role they play, whatever the reason may be. This is consistent with Samia's (2011) finding, in which 43 percent of the respondents were motivated and the employment process was facilitated by their parents. In addition, Thompson (2017) labeled that migration decisions were not made by isolated individual actors (migrants solely) but by related people, especially families. This is why it is a collective project in which families, parents, friends, religious leaders and the community elders at large.

The research highlights the importance of friends, family, and acquaintances in informing female domestic workers about their line of work. It demonstrates the variety of sources through which

they obtain knowledge. In one instance, a domestic worker claimed that her family's and her close relatives' visits from cities over the holidays were their main sources of knowledge on domestic labor. Other sources that contributed to the initial exposure to information included friends, family, and brokers. A specific example is provided: a 21-year-old female domestic worker learned about domestic work through her neighbor, who had experience in the Middle East. The neighbor's advice to send daughters to cities for domestic work to familiarize themselves with the job and save money for potential travel to the Middle East exemplifies the significant role played by friends, neighbors, and nearby families in shaping perceptions and decisions related to domestic work.

The results demonstrate that the way prospective domestic workers, especially young women, obtain information about domestic employment is greatly influenced by the connections they make with others in the urban and by recommendations from individuals with firsthand knowledge. People are influenced to think about and seek possibilities in domestic employment by the guidance and experiences shared within these social groups. This emphasizes how crucial social networks influence people's opinions and decisions about working in this line of work.

On the other hand, as for who helped them, 36.2% of respondents indicated that they were placed through a licensed or unlicensed broker. Brokers were asked how they can be a source of information about the domestic work for potential girls; and how they promote their work. Both licensed and unlicensed brokers responded that the most important way to promote their work and become a source of information for potential domestic workers in rural areas is through their previously hired servants, relatives, and friends. Specifically, to licensed brokers, they had their own offices to get in touch with customers. However, due to the lack of legal recognition by concerned government officials, the promotion of unlicensed brokers differs from that of licensed ones to become source of information for the potential migrants in the rural area. Specifically, unlicensed brokers' way of promoting their work is by increasing social capital and their social network in the rural community because potential migrants are from the rural community. In addition, they believed that it is of utmost importance to establish strong ties with the most respected and trusted religious leaders and community elders in the community to further their work. This indicates that the promotion of unlicensed brokers is more extensive than that of licensed brokers and that sources of information are easily accessible to potential migrants.

Due to this, unlicensed brokers are the primary source of information for the potential migrants found in rural areas, whether directly by themselves and/or by using their networks in the rural areas.

### **5.3. "Convincing" Promises of the Facilitators to Domestic Workers**

Brokers who have access to contact potential domestic workers use a variety of strategies to convince them to be involved in domestic work in the towns. They provide them with better pay, better working conditions, and better family-friendly possibilities. They also make exaggerated claims and offer false promises to encourage them to be involved in domestic work. Brokers may occasionally collaborate with employers of the destination to recruit domestic workers; and they made contact with other intermediaries in the rural areas like locals, the neighborhood, community elders and bus drivers to facilitate overall process.

Notably, commitments related to supporting parents and securing employment abroad (specifically in Middle Eastern countries) emerged as significant but potentially misleading pledges made by these intermediaries (Anex A2). It is understandable and generally accepted for individuals to seek various assurances from facilitators, and there exists a likelihood of trusting these promises. Furthermore, there is a prevalent trend in the study areas where individuals who relocate abroad or to urban areas are expected to support their families left behind financially, a practice well-received within the community. Consequently, promises from intermediaries regarding family support are both anticipated and positively regarded. Moreover, the most compelling commitments from these intermediaries involve facilitating the employment process abroad, a prospect highly coveted by many female domestic workers.

In contrast to previous studies conducted in Addis Ababa (Mekonen, 2014; Getachewu, 2006; Kidist, 2012) in which the persuasive promise made by intermediaries was to facilitate employment in Addis Ababa. However, in the case of this study, the promise of employment in urban areas is only used as a stepping stone to emigration abroad.

This indicates that the immigrants' backgrounds are from low-income families, which is why they are easily persuaded to promise to help their families. On the other hand, eagerness about migrating to the Middle East is one of the few compelling, bold promises made by facilitators and/or anyone who helped them join the domestic work. In line with this, one of the interviewed female domestic workers replied that her dream when she joined domestic work was to support

her family and her siblings, who lived in poverty in rural areas. Consistently, the interviewed parents replied as follows:

*"A reason to permit my daughter to be engaged in domestic work in urban areas is because I could not support my family by working on the farm. Due to the farmland's intermittent lack of productivity, life becomes very challenging, and I cannot provide for my family's needs. I, therefore, sent her to the city to get accustomed to city life in the hopes that she would be sent to the Middle East to aid us. However, I was unable to receive the agents' promises." (Interviewed on Dec 2021)*

This demonstrates that their low-income family backgrounds are the reason they were so easily persuaded by the promise to support the family they left behind as supported by evidence in the above chapters. As other parents disclosed, the commitments made by unlicensed brokers in the study area are believed by parents and communities. This trust is rooted in the presence of individuals within the community, such as a community elder, religious leader, a young person, or a government body, who maintain connections with these unlicensed brokers. On the other hand, the facilitators and/or anyone who guided them in entering the domestic work made other audacious, convincing promises to pique their interest in migrating to the Middle East. The same is true for parents with the ambition to be supported by their daughters, i.e.; brokers promised to facilitate hiring in the town as domestic workers, which paved the way for the parents to be supported monthly. Additionally, it shows that parents intended to use their daughters as a source of income to help them overcome their financial difficulties.

The data reveals a complex web of strategies brokers employ to persuade potential domestic workers, particularly those from low-income families, to engage in domestic work in towns and, ultimately, emigrate abroad. Brokers utilize a range of incentives, including promises of better pay, improved working conditions, and family-friendly opportunities. Notably, commitments related to family support and securing employment abroad, particularly in the Middle East, are highlighted as significant but potentially misleading.

The study found a common pattern in the studied areas: people who go overseas or to cities are expected to provide financial assistance for their family members who remain behind. The community as a whole accepts this approach, which involves intermediaries promising expected and well-received family assistance. Female domestic workers make a persuasive pledge to facilitate employment overseas, indicating a strong desire to travel to the Middle East for better

economic prospects. Unlike earlier research conducted in Addis Ababa (Getachewu, 2006), which focused on providing work opportunities within the city, this study suggests that the promises of urban employment function as a springboard towards the more general objective of immigrating overseas. Of course, some domestic workers migrate to urban centers to supplement the livelihood of their parents and families on temporary basis while planning to go back.

Furthermore, the information emphasizes how low-income family origins contribute to prospective domestic workers' susceptibility to enticing promises. People from these backgrounds are readily persuaded by promises of financial help for their families. The research also emphasizes how relationships with community elders, religious leaders, youth, or government agencies may foster confidence in unlicensed brokers inside the community. This trust emphasizes the power of local leaders in influencing decisions and perceptions by extending to the promises made by unlicensed brokers. To get out of financial troubles, parents also express the desire to utilize their daughters as a source of income, demonstrating the intricate interaction between economic incentives and societal expectations. Overall, the data paints a nuanced picture of the motivations, vulnerabilities, and trust dynamics within the context of domestic work migration.

#### **5.4. The Legal Status of the Facilitators (Brokers)**

Employers looking for domestic workers and employees seeking domestic work both need a mediator to connect the two parties. These individuals are considered intermediaries, whether they are licensed or unlicensed. However, the majority of brokers “*delalas*” operate as legal enterprises. In the employment process, particularly by the unlicensed facilitators, no written agreements are ever made. For their services, they demand a certain amount of fee. But both licensed and unlicensed are involved in the facilitation process, the licensed brokers in their formal office (overtly) and the other obscurely (illegally).

For respondents who were engaged in domestic work with the advice and support of the brokers, details the legal standing of the brokers (Anex A2). Based on this, as was already mentioned, 36% of all respondents joined due to broker facilitation. Regarding the brokers' legal standing, 70.2% were unlicensed (illegal) brokers, and only 14.9% were licensed brokers. This may be due to unlicensed brokers' accessibility in the rural areas via their networks to prospective migrants and parents of the employees. Unlike licensed brokers, who can only be found in urban areas, unlicensed brokers built a network and strong relationships with local figures.

Conversely, 14.9% of the participants indicated that they were unaware of the legal status of the brokers. This lack of awareness may stem from two possibilities: either they genuinely lack information about the legal status or choose not to disclose it due to concerns that the government does not endorse or support illegal brokers in the employment process. Some individuals within this group may be subject to investigation, given the absence of legal recognition, categorizing them as potential smugglers.

### **5.5. Prior Preference of Female Domestics to Intermediaries**

This concept states the trustworthiness of brokers for their customers, domestic workers, those looking for employment via them. There are numerous agents and parties involved in the employment process for domestic work who function as intermediaries between the employee and the employer. Their top choice for facilitators varies depending on the employees' social networks and their awareness level. Cognizant of this, (Fig 7) depicts that majority of respondents prefer unlicensed brokers to get employment, whereas licensed brokers are the third choice for the domestics. This might be the case since their agents are well-known and their network is reachable in remote areas. They still choose unlicensed brokers even if licensed brokers are more accessible when moving from one home to another. As such, familiarity and chain are more critical to brokers than accessibility regarding choice. Parents were the second-most popular choice of the respondents to get employment rather than licensed brokers. Regarding unlicensed brokers, they are invisible, and the government considers them illegal, i.e., they are supposed to put domestic workers into miserable condition by pushing them into situations that cause them suffering. Even though, the objectionable connotation mentioned by the government about unlicensed brokers, they are the top choice of the respondents (female domestic workers) to find employment.

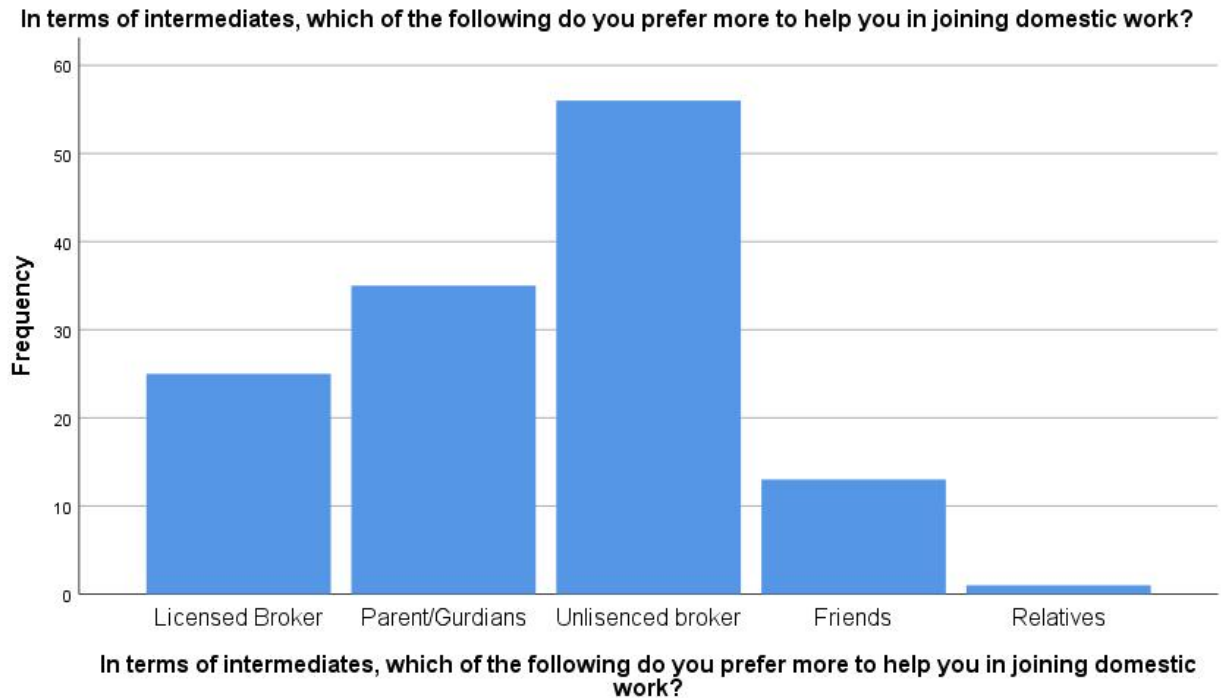


Figure 7: Preference of intermediaries by Brokers

For several reasons, even the interviewed employers supported the idea that unlicensed brokers are preferred over legally licensed ones. The first one is related to the amount of charge they are required to pay while facilitating employees for the employers. Unlike licensed brokers who requested “unreasonable” payment for their brokerage, the amount of charge asked by the unlicensed brokers for their brokerage service is not exaggerated, and the monthly salary fixed to employees is reasonable and convincing. Specifically, licensed brokers requested up to 20% from the employers (the amount may vary according to the broker's relationship with the employers). The charge is also from employees, but the payment is done after the employment in debit.

On top of this, the other reason employers rely on unlicensed brokers is their exclusion from interfering in interpersonal relations between employees and employers. As employers disclosed, the licensed brokers lobbied the employees to stop their work, and they made arrangements for another place with a better salary. The reason behind this plan is not to serve the interests of the employees. However, when the employees shift from one employer to another, the broker will collect their commission and calculate their advantage at the employees' expense. Then, female

domestic workers thought of a pretext, citing things like the need to visit sick family members and other reasons to cease and leave.

One of the 25 years old female domestic workers who was interviewed in Alemu WoldeHana school replied as follows:

*"On my first decision to be a domestic worker, my friend told me about an honest broker who provides the facility of a 'good' employer with a better salary. He contacted me and my family through my friend. During that time, I had no idea about his legal status, whether he was licensed or not. He convinced me to facilitate everything for me, like kebele identity card and promised to contact "good" employers in the town by giving me my friend's employment trends. Now, I understand that he also has a good relationship with my friend and her family. After I was involved in domestic work via his intermediary role, I understood other brokers in the town with their own offices and contact addresses. This helped me to differentiate between licensed brokers and unlicensed brokers. Compared to licensed brokers with offices in cities, unlicensed brokers are much better for us because we know them, they know us, and they do not mistreat us. Even if they abuse us, we will call the family and/or friends who contacted us because they are known by my friend and her family as well. In the case of licensed brokers, those found in the office in the town, it does not work because, in the first place, we do not have strong attachments like those who are not licensed. Second, they favor employers over employees, and they do not trust domestic workers, but rather take the employers' accusation as it is." (Age of 25 years female domestic worker during data collection, interviewed in Dec 2021).*

After briefing the differences between licensed and unlicensed brokers, the interviewed parents stated that they were comfortable with the brokers with relatives and friends in the local areas and at least those well-known by the local community. Obviously, it would be good to know the facilitator for the safety of the employees and the location where she is employed and for whom she works. In contrast, they disclosed that they are uncomfortable with licensed ones because what they heard and experienced about them is unpleasant, unwelcoming, and not appreciable. Specifically, unlike unlicensed brokers, licensed brokers threaten and force the domestic workers to have sex with them against their will, send domestics to sex work with or without their consent, and take their property when workers refuse to comply. All of this information from

different sources has exacerbated parents' animosity toward licensed brokers. The sources of information about these scenes of licensed brokers are female domestic workers who have faced such problems, other domestic workers who returned from towns, and nearby unlicensed brokers who have forged close ties with the community. (This part is discussed in detail in the next chapter).

The data also clarifies why employers use unlicensed brokers as well. The idea that unlicensed brokers are not allowed to meddle in the personal relationships between employers and workers is one important contributing element. On the other hand, Licensed brokers are charged with pressuring employees to step down from their employment and move to other areas so the broker may earn commissions at the cost of the staff. This exposes a negative aspect of the licensed broker system: the interests and well-being of domestic workers may be subordinated to financial gain.

The contrast between licensed and unlicensed brokers is particularly stark when it comes to reported incidents of abuse. Licensed brokers are accused of engaging in exploitative and abusive practices, including sexual coercion and involvement in sex work. This negative perception is not only based on hearsay. However, it stems from firsthand experiences shared by female domestic workers who have faced such issues, as well as accounts from other domestic workers and unlicensed brokers with close ties to the community. Therefore, the animosity towards licensed brokers among parents is fueled by concrete incidents and testimonies, adding a layer of scientific validation to the negative portrayal of licensed brokers in the data.

## **5.6. “Safe” and “Unsafe” Brokers for Female Domestic Workers**

The insecurity of domestic workers is not limited to a given country or nation; rather, it is a global issue (Morrow et al., 2017). For instance, it is estimated that there are about 250,000 domestic workers residing in Lebanon and that 99% of them are foreigners with valid work visas. Women from Ethiopia, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka make up the overwhelming majority. For migrant domestic workers, insecurity can have devastating effects. They might be subjected to exploitation, sexual harassment, and physical and mental abuse as well as denied access to essential services like healthcare (Gazaly, 2018). All these problems happen in the country where the subjects do not belong, i.e., they are migrants, not citizens; their documents are not fulfilled, and so on. On the other hand, the brokers have different socio-cultural backgrounds, like citizens

of another country, and they have different languages and may not have similar culture; rather, they have a strong chain with local brokers in the departure.

In the case of the study at hand, it was conducted at the local level; focused on the domestic workers who have the similar color, similar social settings, and related culture. In this study, the sense of insecurity of domestic workers can be noted as a lack of confidence and a feeling of uncertainty that leads domestic workers to worry about themselves and their security.

**In terms of intermediates, which of the following do you think "unsafe" for you in joining domestic work?**

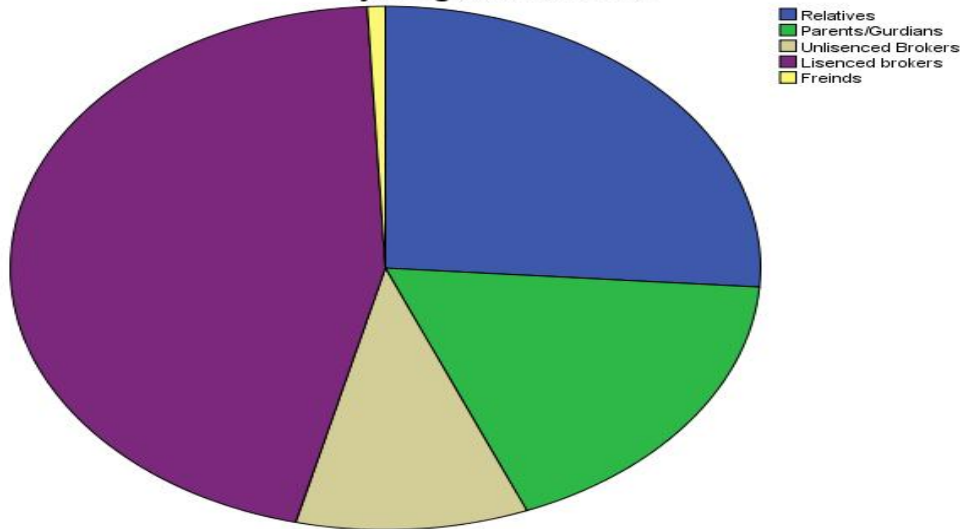


Figure 8: Responses on “unsafe/insecure” intermediaries to join domestic work

The feeling of insecurity of domestic workers vis-a-vis their facilitators is born when they lose confidence in their work, and experience a kind of awkwardness towards them by brokers; and what they heard from their friends around. It is obvious that some brokers and intermediaries are not trusted by female domestic workers because of the different “convincing reasons” raised by the employees. This is supported by fig 8 which depicted the intermediaries considered “unsafe/insecure” and “safe/secure” for female domestic workers to look for domestic work. As a result, of the total respondents, the majority agreed with licensed brokers as “insecure/unsafe” for them to be employed. The licensed (Private Employment Agency, PEA) brokers are employment agencies that are recognized by the legally authorized government body by fulfilling all the requirements such as working office, contract formats, office assistance, place of rest for employees and others laid by the government office. From the very beginning, the

intention of the government to give a license to individuals who want to be engaged in brokerage services between employers and employees is to make a "safe way" for both parties. It intended to abolish the engagement of unlicensed brokers, those who have not been registered to be brokers and are considered exploitative, abusive, violent, and "unsafe" for female domestics and employers.

On the other hand, as shown in Fig. 8, respondents' perceptions of unlicensed brokers differed from what had previously been said about them. In more precise words, the employees (female domestic workers) prefer employment with unregistered brokers because they felt "safest/secure" doing so. Only a small percentage of respondents admitted that using unlicensed brokers to contact employers is less secure than using licensed brokers. As already mentioned in the above paragraph, the assumption of government is reducing the number of unlicensed brokers from the market would mean working at the same time on creating a safe environment for the female domestic workers. However, the reality of the exploitation of the subjects by the intermediaries (both unlicensed and licensed brokers) is totally antithetical. On top of this, it was assumed that both employees and employers would choose licensed brokers when looking for their service. (Detail of this part is well discussed in next part). This implies the prevalence of a large number of unlicensed brokers in the study area. Majority were commonly underscore that getting to employment through unlicensed brokers and parents were the safest and secure intermediary way to find employment.

Overall, the evidence reveals a widespread lack of confidence in brokers among domestic workers, stemming from uncomfortable experiences with brokers and hearsay from colleagues. Notably, most workers viewed licensed brokers, who are supposed to provide a safe and secure job route, as 'insecure/unsafe.' This raises concerns about the effectiveness of regulatory procedures, as it contradicts the government's objective of ensuring safety through licensing. Many respondents disagreed with the notion that licensure guarantees safety, often preferring unlicensed brokers. Although the government assumes that reducing the number of unlicensed brokers would enhance safety, the data shows that respondents face exploitation regardless of whether brokers are licensed, suggesting a potential systemic issue. Contrary to popular belief, informal networks, such as friends and unlicensed brokers, are perceived as more trustworthy than licensed channels.

According to vulnerability theory, social, economic, and political variables make some groups in society more vulnerable to abuse and exploitation (Shitindi, 2023). This puts domestic workers in the spotlight as a vulnerable group that is exploited and exposed to dangers in the labor market. Their susceptibility is shown by the statistics, which indicate that they have little trust in brokers who are licensed and those who are not. Domestic workers sense instability despite the government's desire to establish a secure pathway through licensing, indicating a systematic failure in safeguarding this vulnerable population. This vulnerability is exacerbated by the power dynamics in the broker-worker relationship, making it challenging for domestic workers to stand up for their rights and make sound choices.

### 5.7. Prevalence of Violence by Brokers

Sometimes, brokers, whether licensed or unlicensed, may commit abuse against migrant female domestic workers in different ways. Forms of violence may vary and the degree is also uncommon. Prevalence of violence against domestic workers is a significant problem. Several domestic workers, according to the International Domestic Workers' Federation (IDWF), experience various types of violence, including physical abuse, intimidation, threats, bullying, sexual attack, harassment, and a lack of privacy (Sarkar, 2020). Murder and other severe acts of brutality have been recorded. It is uncommon to address the prevalence of violence committed by brokers or intermediaries against domestic workers. Prevalence of violence is abuse committed by the brokers against female domestic workers while they were looking for employment via brokers (licensed or unlicensed brokers), is addressed in this section.

Table 7. Prevalence of Violence by Brokers against Domestic Workers

Item	Options	Frequency	Percent
Any trouble experienced or violence while looking for work via brokers.	Yes,	51	39.2
	No	45	34.6
	I do not know	34	26.2
	Total	130	100.0
The type of violence has been faced (if the answer is yes to the above question).	Physical	11	21.6
	Sexual	27	52.9
	Psychological	4	7.8

	Economic (charging more than required)	9	17.6
	Total	51	100
The person who committed violence in the brokerage process	Unlicensed brokers	11	21.6
	Licensed broker	27	52.9
	One working with licensed broker	8	15.7
	Person looking for work via licensed broker	4	7.8
	Other	1	1.9
	Total	51	100
The person committed sexual harassment	Unlicensed brokers	3	11
	Licensed brokers	20	74
	One working with a licensed broker	4	14.8
	Total	27	100

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The evidence of violence against female domestic workers that occurs throughout the brokerage process offers a startling new perspective on the pervasive victimization of this vulnerable work group. The results show that a significant percentage of respondents—**39.2%**—had been the victims of violence committed by brokers while looking for work, underscoring a widespread problem that requires immediate response. The 26.2% who gave an "I do not know" response highlights the possibility of underreporting because of psychological stress, sense of shame, fear, threats, intimate ties with brokers, or privacy concerns. It also sheds light on the complex dynamics that hinder disclosure. Unfortunately, the study reveals that sexual assault is the most prevalent form of maltreatment, with 52.9% of victims reporting experiencing sexual abuse during the brokerage process. This is consistent with Getachewu's (2006) earlier research, which showed a persistent and unsettling trend of sexual harassment in this setting. Interestingly, 52.9% of reported instances included licensed brokers, who are supposed to give domestic workers a safe route. These brokers were found to be the main perpetrators of violence. This calls into

question the licensing system's presumed protective function and points to a serious flaw in the system of regulations meant to stop exploitation. The data shows that 15.7% of recorded violent incidents include assistants who work with licensed brokers, which is a concerning finding. The gender dynamics within licensed brokers' offices, where a majority of assistants were male, suggests a potential structural vulnerability that may facilitate the abuse of female domestic workers. This raises questions about the adequacy of licensing requirements in ensuring a safe working environment within brokerages. Unlicensed brokers, on the other hand, were less common in occurrences of sexual harassment even though they were accountable for 21.6% of reported violence. According to the data, 74% of sexual harassment instances were attributed to licensed brokers, highlighting the increased risk that comes with being a registered broker. This runs counter to the purpose of licenses, which is to safeguard domestic workers against abuse and exploitation.

The study's findings shed light on a very unsettling reality in which licensed brokers play a significant role in the abuse of female domestic workers rather than offering protection. The conclusions question the efficacy of licensing procedures and demand a thorough review of the regulatory structure. The frequency of misuse by licensed brokers and their assistants highlights how urgent it is to address structural problems in the brokerage industry to guarantee.

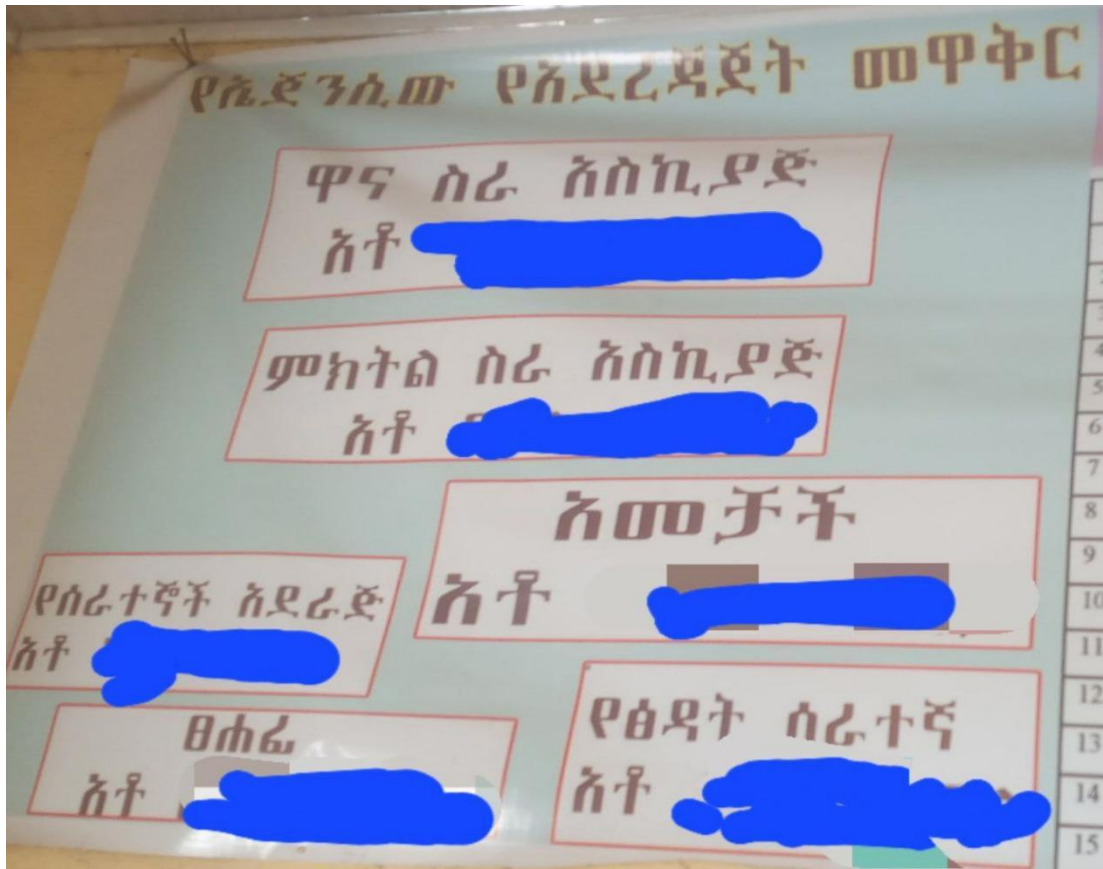


Figure 9. Photograph of the office Structure of licensed brokers

There were finding which found from the in-depth interview respondent who was interviewed disclosed as follows:

*One of the licensed brokers we contacted for employment had brought many troubles that could not be handled at our level. Many domestic workers were raped at the choice of a broker in his home, and he warned us not to tell anyone. Worse still, he and his assistant spoke to the man, and they took what they agreed with and then made us go with him (as a prostitute) to cover our expenses, for we stayed with him waiting for employment. He cautioned us not to tell anybody about it. Unless and otherwise, they told us to report to the police as theft. It was a severe warning since, as is well known, the town's police favor brokers over domestics, and there have been instances where female domestic workers have been charged with and taken into custody for stealing. We were unable to report and inform anybody else as a result. In the end, women worked in the sex industry and finally became prostitutes there. Currently, more than two of my acquaintances work*

*as nighttime prostitutes in Hosanna Town.(Female Domestic worker interviewed in Water points in the town, Nov, 2021).*

Basically, the purpose of female domestics to contact licensed brokers is to get domestic work because they are there to facilitate employment for domestic workers through legal way. They may not be able to defend themselves as long as they are migrant females from rural areas, and they are unsure of who they will report to. However, these agents would take advantage of them, abuse them sexually, and even send them to serve as sex worker.

This narrative can be understood through the lens of feminist theory and structural violence. Critical feminist theories highlight power imbalances and patriarchal structures that perpetuate gender-based violence and exploitation (Allen, 2022). In this case, the licensed brokers' actions demonstrate a clear abuse of power in a patriarchal system in which domestic workers are subjected to sexual violence and coercion. Logically, the narrative reveals a series of exploitative and coercive activities carried out by a licensed broker. The logical sequence of events that begins with the broker's decision to subject domestic workers to sexual violence in his office illustrates a disturbing abuse of power. The warning not to disclose the incidents and the resulting obligation to obtain sexual services to cover the costs illustrate a strategy aimed at maintaining the control and silence of victims. The logical progression of the story, which includes the threat to report him to the police as a thief, underlines the broker's awareness of the power dynamics in the justice system. The victims are prevented from pursuing justice or reporting exploitative behavior by the logical fallout from the police's hostility against domestic workers, which fosters an environment of fear and restraint. It makes sense that the victims' forced activities would lead to their eventual employment in the sex business.

Regarding the experience of rape by employers and collaboration of licensed brokers, one of the interviewed female domestic workers depicted that

*“Three years ago, one of the employers I know raped a female domestic worker working in his home. Because of this action, the employer immediately fired the employee. The office to which she would report was not informed to her, but the only person she knew to report was the licensed broker who had set up the employment. Due to the employer's favor to the broker for not reporting it to the police, the broker did not make a complaint to the relevant government body. Instead, he pushed the victim*

*to seek employment in a distant town (another "zone") from the town where the perpetrator and his office was located. Finally, the victim remained with her scar without getting justice for the crime.”(23 year Femal domestic worker interviewed in Alemu W/Hana School, Nov, 2021).*

The story's interpretation via the lens of internationalist theory highlights the intricate interactions between many social categories and power dynamics that increase the victim's susceptibility to abuse and their inability to receive justice when it happens. It reflects larger power disparities in society that disproportionately impact women. Her job ended abruptly following the incident, which draws attention to gendered violence and the economic vulnerability that regularly befalls women who engage in domestic work. Furthermore, because the victim in this story experiences both economic hardship and sexual assault, class plays a crucial part. Her working-class background and the employer's choice to fire her increase her financial vulnerability.

The power dynamics at work are made visible via the internationalist lens. The employer's sway and the broker's involvement in the attack's aftermath demonstrate how powerful people may use the system to escape punishment. The office's or the appropriate authorities' refusal to notify the victim about the reporting process indicates institutional flaws and how institutions can collaborate to support injustice knowingly or not. The denial of justice for the victim is the main focus of this story. The internationalist lens emphasizes how the convergence of gender, class, and power dynamics works against the victim, leaving her scarred without any recourse for the crime committed against her.

### **5.8. Domestic Workers' Rights and Duties Informed by Intermediaries**

In fact, female domestic workers may not understand and be aware of their rights while working in domestic work. This might be because of their low level of education, intermediate position, get-up-and-go lifestyle, and other connected issues. Sometimes, intermediaries' responsibilities for informing employees of their rights and obligations at work not addressed appropriately, and the necessary awareness-raising may not be done. And, intermediaries, particularly brokers, not advise workers about their fundamental legal entitlements when working at their employer's residence. On the other hand, while the contract is being made, the necessary awareness-creation effort to employees about contract agreement not properly made.

Before beginning to do domestic work at home, necessary awareness-raising is done to make sure that workers comprehend and are conscious of their rights and responsibilities. As the data revealed (Anex3) revealed that 45% and 43.8% of the respondents received advice from brokers on how to live peacefully with employers in any situation. And they also told them that there were only interesting opportunities while working in the employer's house.

Some comments stressed that the intermediaries had only been transparent about the basics of their roles. As was previously stated, intermediaries frequently help domestic workers find employment while failing to inform them of their rights and responsibilities. This is because female domestic workers frequently lack knowledge of their legal rights due to their less access to awareness about their fundamental rights and less initiative from intermediaries to inform about it.

Regarding the information provided by the intermediaries about the government agents working on women's rights and the direct connection to the hiring process, 63% of the respondents were unaware of the government agents to whom they could make a complaint and report issues. More specifically, female domestic workers who experience violence do not report it because they are unaware of their rights, especially newly joined domestic workers, and are unaware of the government offices interacting with them. This might be because of a variety of factors, including the fact that the intermediaries (like friends, parents) themselves may not be aware of the government organizations working for them; as well as their reluctance to introduce subjects about the organizations; so the government bodies were not adequately introduced by intermediaries. Certain licensed brokers may feel uneasy disclosing information on government agents to domestic workers since these agents occasionally engage in unlawful behavior against their subjects. If subjects know government agents, they may report and disclose their activities to the government during this period. Unlicensed brokers, however, are regarded as illegals. Therefore, they refuse to inform government agents to female domestic employees who are not under investigation.

Domestic workers are expected to take the points emphasized by brokers as essential because if they fail to fulfill it or are not careful of what they are told to do, domestics may face trouble when they come back to the brokers. The researcher observed this during communication in one of the broker's offices while dealing with him. The broker mentioned that a female domestic

worker who disputed with her employers and returned to him after two months did not keep what he had told her to keep in the home. Due to this, he failed to trust her to send her to other employers, particularly his customers. She claimed that she had to collect her salary from each month. This is often her experience because employers do not need to pay monthly; instead, they may be guaranteed to pay when she ceases her work. That has its results, like refusal to pay the whole sum kept with them; they seek an affection not to pay the whole sum at once and calculate what has been broken, whereas she was working as a household employee. As the researcher observed, her claim was correct but not accepted by the employers and brokers. However, she did not know to whom she made complaints of her exploitation. Even if she knows the police or other government offices to complain, the brokers who facilitated the employment should agree to give evidence to the police and/or other office (women's affairs). On the other hand, even if they know offices filed her problems against her tights, she faced a language barrier to explain it.

One of the licensed broker was asked about how to solve such a problem and how awareness creation works before joining employment. He responded as follows:

*During their stay at my office, I gave my clients (workers) the information they needed that I felt would be useful to them when working in the employer's home. Before coming to me, the majority of them had experience of domestic work in various families and were aware of their rights and obligations. Employers are aware of their obligations to their employees as well. However, most of the time, problems can rise when domestic workers want to quit their jobs without giving employers enough time to find alternative workers, and due to this, employers respond badly to their employees. This does not imply that all employers maltreat their employees but some employers not only treat them kindly and passionately but also protect them from different types of violence. (Interviewed on Dec 2021).*

As his response, the licensed broker attempted to emphasize raising awareness before assisting the hiring process. The response could not show the extent to which the licensed brokers attempted to make female domestic workers aware of their fundamental rights.

Other licensed brokers also stated the same point with different terms:

*"Regarding their rights, both employers and employees are aware of their rights to enjoy and responsibility to fulfil. However, there is a significant gap between them in practice. In the contract agreement templates, I tried to include key rights like wages, the*

*number of employers to serve, and the nature of the work performed by employees to exchange wages for employers. It is the duty of other government organizations, not mine, to raise awareness of their fundamental rights. However, there are situations when employers mistreat employees by keeping their clothing or failing to pay their wages on time. I'll phone the employers to give the employees materials and try to know the overall problems of the employees and employers as well." (Interviewed on Dec 2021).*

In this case, the licensed broker responded that informing the rights and responsibilities of each party is not his responsibility but rather the government agent's duty. This means brokers are sometimes unwilling to mention their rights while living together rather their basic concern is collecting their income whatever the condition looks like. Since they are registered and licensed brokers, it would seem reasonable that they have to outline each party's rights and obligations in the contract templates fairly and impartially. If so, it would serve as a springboard for defending each party's rights. Undoubtedly, the relevant government body is responsible for safeguarding all parties' interests by creating a platform that benefits both parties and the authorized brokers. In such cases, there would be less chance of being taken advantage of by others. But before assisting in the hiring process, which benefits both employers and employees, licensed brokers ought to, at the very least, advise both sides of their fundamental constitutionally guaranteed rights.

This connotation should be triangulated by the response of employees and employers as well because the information from one side can have a probability of being biased. Cognizant of this, one of the 21 years interviewed female domestic workers in the Alemu W/Hana primary school replied as follows:

*For the first time, I joined domestic work via a friend who had previously worked in town. She told me everything about the work conditions, particularly those issues that inspired me. However, after much suffering from my first employers, I went to the brokers who is found in his office in the town to find another employer. During that time, the broker told me nothing about my rights while working in the employer's household; rather, he was pushing me by saying a lot of good characteristics of the employers, like family size, the slight workload, their welcoming behavior for employees, and they have a lovely home in the town. All these were to lobby me to get employed because he was eager to collect his commission from the employer. Finally, urged me to join work*

*without telling me anything about my rights to exercise; instead, employers told me to respect my rights covertly without clarifying them to me. (21 years interviewed female domestic workers in the Alemu W/Hana primary school, Dec 2021)*

This implies that brokers are not sufficiently outlining the obligations and rights of employers and employees before assisting the parties. As stated in the contract agreement prepared by brokers, the rights and obligations of both parties are not explicitly stated, providing general terms like remuneration, type of labor, and payment schedule. (Contract agreement issue presented in the next chapter of this paper). Basically, employees and employers have different responsibilities. Employees are paid for their work, and employers are responsible for ensuring that workers and other individuals are safeguarded against potential harm, although the shared responsibility between employees and employers extends far beyond mere protection measures. Employers have different rights and obligations depending on the nature of employment and the laws of the nation they operate. Employers must take all reasonable steps to improve their employees' working environment while they are living with them. However, these circumstances are violated by different stakeholders like employers and brokers and deliberately and/or unknowingly. On the other hand, employees should serve as required in the household, be available, and fulfill the household's three Cs (caring, cooking, and cleaning) packages accordingly. However, employees also violate it by withdrawing from their jobs, absconding, and sabotaging their employment. These misbehaved characteristics might be because both parties lack understanding and fulfill their responsibilities adequately.

### **5.9. Brokers Related Factors Predicting Vulnerability**

As suggested in the result of the binary logistic regression model, concerning the brokers, the preference of intermediaries and the information the brokers give about the government agents are significant predictors of vulnerability among female domestic workers. Specifically, the coefficient for employees' preference for intermediaries is positive (.666) and statistically significant ( $p=0.001$ ). Positive association indicates that those female domestic workers who prefer licensed brokers are more likely to be vulnerable than those who prefer others (such as unlicensed brokers, relatives, parents, and friends).

Table 7: Predictor variables of Vulnerability from Brokers-Parents Related

		<b>Variables in the Equation</b>					
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 <sup>a</sup>	Preference of domestic workers to licensed brokers and other intermediaries in joining employment	.666	.205	10.576	1	.001	1.946
	Information given by the intermediaries about the relevant government agent to approach whenever trouble happened	2.015	.430	21.992	1	.000	7.499
	Constant	-4.868	.882	30.456	1	.000	.008

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: In terms of intermediaries, which of the following do you prefer more to help you in joining domestic work?, Did your intermediate inform you about the relevant government agent to approach whenever you face problem as a domestic worker?

This might be because licensed brokers' relationship with female domestic workers is based on formal business type of relation rather than other groups. In sociology, primary group's quality of relationship are distinguished by strong sentiments, loyalty, deep emotional connections, and a strong sense of group identity. Unlike the primary group type of relationship, a secondary group in which their relationship is less intimate and less relevant, economic efficiency is a priority issue than psychological identity, and relation is a means to an end rather than an end. Cognizant of these, the secondary group characterizes the relationship between licensed brokers and female domestic workers. Economic efficiency is more emphasized as a means to achieve their goals. There might not be any social tie between licensed brokers except their business and, which reduces sympathy. Unlike licensed brokers, friends, relatives, and unlicensed brokers know each other, have social ties, and feelings of compassion, and employers have trust in them instead of licensed brokers' contact.

On the other hand, the coefficient for information given by the brokers about government organizations is positive (2.015) and statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ), indicating that female domestic workers who have not been aware of the government organization to report when they

face problems lead to vulnerability than their counterparts. This might be because domestic workers are unaware of the government organizations that work for women's rights, such as women and social affairs, police office and labor and social affairs, and the victims keep silent while trouble happens. As stated earlier, most female domestic workers had rural backgrounds, so they may be strange about where and how to communicate with these institutions even if they knew it before. On the other extreme, most of the time, brokers emphasize their money to collect after facilitating the employment process of their employees rather than worrying about the subjects' work situation and fundamental rights. Female domestics might not ask about these institutions because their main concern is to find work and to get employed at any cost, particularly the newcomers. In addition, sometimes licensed brokers might not be willing to inform these institutions of their customers (domestic workers) because some of the brokers work out of legally framed responsibility to do like commit violence against their customers, abuse them, and rape them (which is presented in the previous chapter). Therefore, if they are informed about the legal institutions and domestic workers aware of their rights, brokers' illegal acts might be disclosed to the police and other offices who give license to do so. Suppose domestic workers are informed about these institutions. In that case, they can file complaints against any violations, thereby increasing their understanding of their rights and enabling them to develop trust in government organizations.

#### **5.10. Discussion**

Intermediaries' role in the employment of female domestics and their accessibility were the primary emphasis of this chapter. Licensed brokers are those registered by the government to perform their intermediary role, but unlicensed ones are invisible from the government and considered illegal. Despite licensed brokers being recognized by government agents, the respondents consistently prefer unlicensed brokers. This preference is rooted in familiarity and interpersonal connections with unlicensed brokers, emphasizing the importance of personal relationships and trust in decision-making. The invisibility and illegal status of unlicensed brokers, as acknowledged by the government, do not deter potential domestic workers from choosing them as their top preference for finding employment. This suggests a nuanced understanding of how familiarity, community ties, and personal connections shape choices, even when legality and government objections are considered.

Furthermore, the data shows why employers also opt for unlicensed brokers. One significant factor is the perceived exclusion of unlicensed brokers from interfering in the interpersonal relations between employees and employers. In contrast, licensed brokers are accused of lobbying employees to quit their jobs and move to other places where the broker can benefit from commissions at the expense of the employees. This reveals a dark side of the licensed broker system, where financial interests may supersede the well-being and interests of domestic workers. The contrast between licensed and unlicensed brokers is particularly stark when it comes to reported incidents of abuse. Licensed brokers are accused of engaging in exploitative and abusive practices, including sexual coercion and pushing female domestic workers to be involved in sex work. This negative perception is not only based on hearsay; rather, it stems from firsthand experiences shared by female domestic workers who have faced such issues, as well as accounts from other domestic workers and unlicensed brokers with close ties to the community. Therefore, the animosity towards licensed brokers among parents is fueled by concrete incidents and testimonies, adding a layer of scientific validation to the negative portrayal of licensed brokers in the data.

Respondents' perceptions of unlicensed brokers differed from what had been said about them. In more precise words, the employees (female domestic workers) prefer employment with unregistered brokers because they feel "safest/secure" doing so. Only a small percentage of respondents admitted that using unlicensed brokers to contact employers is less secure than using licensed brokers. As mentioned in the above paragraph, the government assumes that reducing the number of unlicensed brokers from the market would mean working simultaneously to create a safe environment for female domestic workers. However, the reality of exploiting the subjects by the intermediaries (both unlicensed and licensed brokers) is antithetical. On top of this, it was assumed that both employees and employers would choose licensed brokers when looking for their service. This implies the prevalence of many unlicensed brokers in the study area, and their customers trust them.

Generally, the evidence reveals a generalized lack of confidence in brokers among domestic workers, resulting from awkward encounters with brokers and hearsay from colleagues. Remarkably, most saw licensed brokers supposed to provide a safe and secure job route as "insecure/unsafe." This raises questions about regulatory procedures' efficacy since it contradicts the government's safety licensing objective. Many respondents disagreed with the belief that

licensure equates to safety, favoring unlicensed brokers. Contrary to popular belief, informal networks such as friends and unlicensed brokers are more trustworthy than licensed channels.

This disconnect between government assumptions and the reality of exploitation by both licensed and unlicensed brokers suggests a systemic issue. The perceived trustworthiness of informal networks, like friends and unlicensed brokers, raises critical sociological questions about the complexities of trust within the informal labor market. Overall, the evidence points to a need for a deeper understanding of the sociocultural dynamics influencing domestic workers' choices and perceptions in their interactions with intermediaries, challenging prevailing beliefs about the safety of licensed channels. According to vulnerability theory, social, and economic, and variables make some groups in society more vulnerable to abuse and exploitation (Paul, 2014). This puts domestic workers in the spotlight as a vulnerable group that is exploited and exposed to dangers in the labor market (Aboye & Alambo, 2019; HRW, 2014, 2015). Their susceptibility is shown by the statistics, which indicate that they have little trust in licensed brokers but trust in those who are not. Domestic workers sense instability despite the government's desire to establish a secure pathway through licensing, indicating a systematic failure in safeguarding this vulnerable population. This vulnerability is exacerbated by the power imbalance in the broker-worker relationship, making it difficult for domestic workers to stand up for their rights and make sound choices.

Intersectionality theory emphasizes the interconnected nature of social categories, such as gender and background, shaping individuals' experiences and vulnerabilities (Ernst, 2019). The relationship between gender and socioeconomic position becomes clear when considering domestic workers. The majority of domestic workers, who are frequently women, are vulnerable because of their situations. The perceived absence of safety cuts between licensed and unlicensed brokerages is one way that the data illustrates this intersectionality. Generally speaking, ideas of intersectionality and vulnerability offer helpful frameworks for comprehending the nuances of domestic workers' experiences in their dealings with brokers.

The evidence of sexual violence against female domestic workers that occurs throughout the brokerage process offers a startling new perspective on the pervasive victimization of this vulnerable social group. The results show that a significant percentage of respondents had been victims of sexual violence committed by brokers while looking for work. Getachewu (2006), in his study, revealed a persistent and unsettling trend of sexual harassment among brokers. In line

with his study, Makonnen and Mulugeta (2014 & 2017) highlighted the fact that 72 percent of the participants indicated experiencing sexual harassment by brokers. However, they did not clarify the legal status of the perpetrators and brokers. In the study at hand, the perpetrators who committed sexual harassment were identified with their legal status. Specifically, 74% of sexual harassment instances were attributed to licensed brokers. Unlicensed brokers were less common in occurrences of sexual harassment. The data shows that violent incidents were committed not only by the licensed brokers but also by the assistants who work with licensed brokers, which is a concerning finding. The offices of licensed brokers operated as both a location for sexual harassment and a site for either consenting or non-consenting recruitment of workers for sex work. As a result, the structure of licensed brokers (manager to assistant) has played a significant part in the study population's vulnerability by letting respondents live in appalling conditions rather than standing up for their rights.

The gender dynamics within licensed brokers' offices, where a majority of assistants were male, suggests a potential structural vulnerability that may facilitate the abuse of female domestic workers. This raises questions about the adequacy of licensing requirements in ensuring a safe working environment within brokerages. Furthermore, this calls into question the licensing system's presumed protective function and points to a serious flaw in the system of regulations meant to stop exploitation. The frequency of misuse by licensed brokers and their assistants highlights how urgent it is to address structural problems in the brokerage industry to guarantee.

Furthermore, the power dynamics at work are made visible via the intersectionality lens. The employer's sway and the broker's involvement in the attack's aftermath demonstrate how powerful people may use the system to escape punishment. The office's or the appropriate authorities' refusal to notify the victim about the reporting. The denial of justice for the victim is the main focus of this story.

This narrative can be understood through the lens of critical feminist theory and structural violence (Ernst, 2019). Critical feminist theories highlight power imbalances and patriarchal structures that perpetuate gender-based violence and exploitation. In this case, the licensed brokers' actions demonstrate a clear abuse of power in a patriarchal system in which domestic workers are subjected to sexual violence and coercion. Logically, the narrative reveals a series of exploitative and coercive activities carried out by a licensed broker. On the other hand, the

warning not to disclose the incidents and the resulting obligation to obtain sexual services to cover the costs illustrate a strategy aimed at maintaining the control and silence of victims. The victims are prevented from pursuing justice or reporting exploitative behavior by the logical fallout from the police's hostility against domestic workers, which fosters an environment of fear and restraint. It makes sense that the victims' forced activities would lead to their eventual employment in the sex business. The story's interpretation via the lens of intersectionality theory highlights the intricate interactions between many social categories and power dynamics that increase the victim's susceptibility to abuse and their inability to receive justice when it happens. It reflects larger power disparities in society that disproportionately impact women. Her job ended abruptly following the incident, which draws attention to gendered violence and the economic vulnerability that regularly befalls women who engage in domestic work.

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6. INSTITUTIONAL AND POLICY RELATED CONCERN

This theme aims to assess institutional features, including legal and policy concerns related to private domestic workers. It endeavors to address citizens' rights, specifically focusing on the educational right and health access as outlined in the FDRE constitution. Mindful of this, the theme broadly explores the situation of private domestic workers within the framework of the country's labor proclamation. It delves into the legally binding conditions of a contract agreement, encompassing its contents, the nature of work, salary levels, weekly off days, and rest time. It also takes into account, among other things, the oversight that government agencies regularly offer, and the knowledge of domestic workers about government representatives. Finally, the channels for bringing complaints against these representatives, and how these complaints are handled and addressed.

#### 6.1. The Policy and Law of the Land Regarding the Domestic Workers

The Ethiopian Civil Code of 1960 governs the employment of local domestic workers and primarily relies on the fairness of employers. A significant deficiency in the legislation concerning domestic workers is the lack of sufficient protection for their rights and the failure to address issues related to establishing stable domestic work contracts.

Under the 1960 Civil Code, the term used for domestic servants is incomprehensible and appears to be an Amharic derogatory term called "Ashker" "አ ሽ ከ ረ ". This term was formerly associated with slaves purchased by the owner. However, the rules cannot explain and define what domestic work means and who domestic workers are. Its effects may be related to adverse conditions and treatments that employees traditionally encounter in the context of authority-servility relations with lower levels of treatment and protection than those offered to other groups of workers.

According to the Labor Proclamation, number 377/2003 Article 3 (C) excluded domestic workers by pointing out that the Council of Ministers shall issue regulations governing conditions applicable to personal services. Furthermore, Proclamation number 1156/2019 facsimiles the same statement from the previous proclamation (377/2003) without any modification. There is no chance for domestic workers to claim their rights except for crime-related issues. The interviewed government officer stated that the absence of regulations for

private domestic workers in Ethiopia paved the way for the unmanageable conditions of the social group. The respondent from the Labor and Social Affairs Department stated as follows:

*"There are no advertisements or laws about private domestic workers affirming their rights, obligations, working conditions, issuance of contracts, or public activities. As a result, we cannot address their problem and cannot monitor their condition while they are at home with their employers. On the other hand, private employment agencies cannot employ them like other employees, as stipulated in Proclamation No. 1156/19. Due to their exclusion from Proclamation No. 1156/19, various perpetrators, such as employers, brokers, and others, acted violently against them; we should not follow their status unless they reported to our office and women's affairs department. On the other hand, we tried at stakeholder meetings to raise their status before the appropriate authorities to include them in the notices, but no one responded to them and they ignored them. As indicated in Proclamation No. 1156/19, Article 3, the mandate to ratify regulation about private domestic workers is for the Council of Ministers. However, it is about 15 years of procrastination to enact the law." (Hadiya Zone Labor and Social Affairs Department, Dec 2021).*

The legislation has not covered private domestic employees, which allowed for prejudice and discrimination against them and was seen as a barrier to expanding labor rights. The community's deteriorating attitude toward domestic workers, their exclusion from the 1156/19 proclamation, and their backgrounds—low-income family backgrounds, limited educational levels, prior residence (in a rural area), and low awareness of their rights are also layered contributing factors to their suffering and place them in the worst possible circumstances concerning violence against them.

The legal framework of Ethiopia about labor rights is still attempting to give all workers access to it. Employees of both public and private firms that conduct economic activity are entitled to labor rights. Several specific social groups are exempt from this, such as private employees. As amended, Labor Proclamation No. 377/2003 expressly exempts domestic workers from applying the 2003 labor law. Moreover, Proclamation No. 1156/2019 also mentioned the same as the above proclamation. The position of domestic employees is still governed by the 1960 Ethiopian Civil Code (the 1960 Civil Code) until the Council of Ministers develops a new domestic workers' Regulation under article 3(3)(c) of the 2003 labor law. Both Proclamations (377/2003

and 1156/2019) indicate that ratifying a regulation on private employees is a responsibility. However, the Council of Ministers procrastinates in establishing special regulations for this group as long as the law gives them a mandate. As aforementioned, they are not adequately emphasizing this socially and legally marginalized group. The absence of law to treat and make them decent and the procrastination of the Council of Ministers to enact regulations about this essential but marginalized social group paved the way to be vulnerable to different forms of difficulty. Moreover, it resulted in a social crisis because they are essentials for the households to regulate their day-to-day lives. On the other hand, these social groups have family members to support in their background left in rural areas. Therefore, the absence of law and not enacting law addressing them resulted in multilayered trouble in society.

## **6.2. Contract Arrangement**

According to the ILO convention, the need for a contract between employer and employee should be mandatory before employees enter into employment. ILO believes that it is imperative to protect and defend the rights of the employees if there is any type of attempt of abuse perpetrated by employers, and/or anybody else. In specific terms, contractual arrangements that take place between both parties should be in written form rather than verbal because an oral agreement cannot be used as evidence in case of any legal allegations brought forth by either party. The contract as a document is the one that shall be evidence of the terms agreed upon in the event of a dispute. Regarding the importance of contractual agreements, ILO Convention No. 189, which is not ratified by the Ethiopia, undoubtedly recognizes the need to sign contractual agreements between employees and employers because it ensures that domestics and employers, alike, understand the terms and conditions of their employment, the type of work, the terms of the agreement, the terms of termination, and other aspects.

In the study area, as stated in the below conversation and other survey response, most of the domestic workers lack awareness regarding the importance of signing employment contracts. One of the interviewees expressed a misunderstanding of written agreements, stating the following:

**Interviewer:** Do you know about a written contract agreement?

**Respondent:** Yes, I do.

**Interviewer:** Did you sign a written contract agreement when you were employed?

**Respondent:** No

**Interviewer:** Why?

**Respondents:** There is no need to sign it because it appears to be a lack of trust in my employers." So, an oral agreement is enough.

From the quote, it seems the girl does not want to offend the employer or look not to trust them. So, rather than holding misconceptions, she seems to try not to offend the employer and prioritizes that relationship before her personal interest.



Figure 10: Distribution of Response Related to Presence written Contract Agreement

The absence of signed contract agreements among domestic workers and employers by the facilitation of licensed brokers, despite the legally binding nature of the contract agreement format, reflects a concerning reality rooted in financial challenges, lack of awareness, power imbalances and fear of negative reactions, and exploitative practices. As reported by employers in the study, the financial burden of taxes imposed on licensed brokers emerges as a significant deterrent, leading to a reluctance to formalize agreements with domestic employees. In addition, the rural upbringing of many domestic workers contributes to their limited awareness of the importance of signing contracts. At the same time, the prevalence of employment through

unlicensed brokers further compounds the issue, given the lack of formal contract formats and recognition.

As revealed by the female domestic workers interviewed, even though both parties sign the contract, the employer or broker might, at times, retain the worker's copy by using coercion or convincing them to turn over their copies. Additionally, there are situations where brokers take copies and even their salaries, of female domestic workers rather than employees. This shows that licensed brokers do not fight the abuse that results from the deficiency of a written contract of their workers' rights, knowingly or unknowingly exacerbating the vulnerability of female domestic workers.

The study emphasizes the absence of formal contracts between domestic workers and employers, a notable infringement of international labor standards, and a significant barrier to safeguarding the rights of domestic workers. Research indicates that the lack of a written agreement can expose domestic workers to exploitation and mistreatment, leaving them with minimal legal options in the event of conflicts with their employers (ILO, 2013a).

One of the unlicensed brokers views the value of a contract agreement.

*"Basically, the contract agreement form is not legally binding; instead, it is prepared in the personal interest of the brokers. Next, a contract agreement cannot guarantee that domestic workers are not to be abused; rather, it is up to the employers to treat the employees with sympathy, and the employees should fulfill their responsibilities as required. The two parties should agree not to violate the rights of each other, regardless of their status and power relationship. This is what I said to both parties when I facilitated employment." (Unlicensed broker interviewed in Hossana in Dec 2021)*

This indicates the absence of written contract agreements for female domestic workers employed via unlicensed brokers, coupled with the lack of standardized contract templates even for those facilitated by licensed brokers, reflects a systemic failure that perpetuates the vulnerability of domestic workers. Unlicensed brokers contribute to an environment where the terms and conditions of employment remain ambiguous and unregulated by not promoting or providing written contracts during the facilitation process. This absence of formalized agreements leaves domestic workers without a clear framework to understand their rights and obligations, enhancing their vulnerability to exploitation. Moreover, the fact that even licensed brokers

prepare contract forms without ensuring consistency and uniformity in addressing the rights and obligations of both parties compounds the issue. This variability in contract agreements and the lack of legal standards create a precarious situation for domestic workers. Vulnerability theory helps to contextualize this situation by highlighting how the absence of clear contractual arrangements contributes to the power imbalance between both parties, employers and employees, making the latter more susceptible to arbitrary decisions and mistreatment. (the templates are annexed). This finding is in line with other studies that found low contract agreement levels among domestic workers (Gebremedhin, 2016; Nazir 2011).

On the contrary, the licensed brokers who participated in the study prominently displayed a notice in their office, explicitly stating that they no longer recruit domestic workers for private residences. Instead, they exclusively focus on providing services to hotels, cafeterias, guardians, and other entities within the same sector. Furthermore, they emphasized their policy of not hiring domestic workers under 18. They cited government scrutiny and caution in reviewing monthly reports to the Labor and Social Affairs department as reasons for this restriction, highlighting that hiring individuals under 18 without a signed contract agreement is deemed illegal. However, despite the assertion by the visited licensed broker that they refrain from facilitating the employment of domestic workers for private households, accounts from visited employers and domestic workers contradicted this statement. They revealed that the licensed broker indeed assists in recruiting domestic workers for private households, both with and without a formal contract agreement. Moreover, it was disclosed that the brokers actively facilitate the hiring process for female domestic workers, including those under the age of 15.

Regarding the role of the government in contract agreement preparation for domestic workers, the ILO (2015) depicted that one of the reasons for the vulnerability of domestic workers is the absence of government regulations or good employment practices. They incited the fact that the agreement that took place between the employers and domestic workers was verbal rather than written. In the report of the ILO, several participants, who were domestic workers, indicated no written agreement exists between themselves and their employers. The absence of a written contract agreement between employees and employers paved the way for the employers' exploitation and violence against domestic workers, strengthening the employer's control.

Their susceptibility is greatly increased by the lack of government rules and good employment practices, especially when drafting formal contract agreements for domestic workers. Some participants have stated that the verbal character of agreements highlights the fragile nature of work relationships in this line of work. The consequence is that domestic workers continue to be vulnerable to different forms of exploitation in the absence of explicit government laws and uniform procedures governing written contracts. In addition to creating uncertainty regarding the terms and circumstances of employment, the lack of a documented contract agreement increases the employer's power over domestic employees. The power dynamics in this situation become disproportionate, with employers holding the upper hand and domestic workers finding it difficult to stand up for their rights.

### **6.3. Contents of Contract Agreement Templates**

An employee contract agreement is a legal document that spells out the terms of the working relationship between an employer and an employee. It is advantageous for both parties to preserve their rights and obligations when it is implemented. Domestic workers may be more susceptible to exploitation and abuse in the absence of a contract. Regardless of the parties' positions, the contract agreement should provide all necessary information. Even though both parties have signed the contract, the information listed in the form should include crucial details supporting the defense against mutual violations.

As mentioned by ILO (2015), the minimum contractual agreement should encompass various essential elements, including the duration of employment, terms of termination, wage structure, general job responsibilities, work schedule, benefits, types of work, location, and work hours. Furthermore, the contract should incorporate "express terms," such as the employer's and employee's names and addresses, commencement date, the contract's effective period (if temporary or fixed-term), job title or duty description, and the designated place of work, holiday entitlement, sickness absence, and grievance procedures.

In this study, it is evident from Fig 9 that a majority of respondents indicated not having signed a written contract agreement specifying the nature of their work. Instead, they relied on oral agreements, while 40% reported having signed a written contract. Among those who signed written contracts, the majority had previous experience signing such agreements in different households. Additionally, a noteworthy number of respondents with contract experience had

worked in hotels and restaurants, where written contracts are mandatory due to the specific nature of the job. Consequently, when it comes to the details of the contract agreement, all respondents stated that terms such as working hours, holidays, sleeping arrangements, food, accommodation, and payment intervals were agreed upon orally rather than being outlined in a written contract.

The findings suggest that a significant portion of domestic workers in the study region may possess limited comprehension of their employment terms and conditions, as evidenced by their apparent lack of insistence on including these provisions in written contract agreements upon employment. Moreover, the absence of legally enforceable contracts places these workers in a vulnerable position, hindering their ability to assert their rights and safeguard against potential mistreatment. These observations align with previous research indicating that domestic workers frequently encounter exclusion from labor regulations and encounter challenges in accessing legal safeguards and social assistance (ILO, 2011; Human Rights Watch, 2013; Nazir, 2011).

Table 8. Response on Oral vs. Written Agreement contents in the Contract Template in the Employment Process

<b>Characteristics</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Types of Work	Written	35	26.9
	Oral Agreement	95	73.1
	Total	130	100.0
Working hour and Holidays off	Written	-	-
	Oral Agreement	130	100.0
	Total		
Sleeping quarter	Written		
	Oral Agreement	130	100.0
	Total		
Amount of salary	Written	52	40.0
	Oral Agreement	78	60.0
	Total	130	100.0
Payment Interval	Written		
	Oral Agreement		
	Total		
Food accommodation	Written		

	Oral Agreement	130	100.0
	Total		

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The rights of domestics are mentioned/stated in the contract agreement. It is expected that in the form of an agreement, despite the already granted constitutional rights, the rights and responsibilities of both parties should be incorporated into the format. As depicted in Table 8, this is evident from the high percentage of respondents (73.1%) who reported that the terms of their employment, including days off, access to health care and education, family visiting time. In addition, the number of employers they would be working for, were agreed upon through oral agreements rather than being included in a written contract. This highlights the need for greater efforts to educate and empower domestic workers about their rights and the importance of having a written contract to protect them in the workplace. According to related studies (Gebremedhin, 2016), domestic workers are often excluded from labor laws and regulations, and their rights and working conditions are not protected. This lack of formalization disadvantages domestic workers in protecting their rights and accessing necessary resources. And makes them vulnerable to exploitation, abuse, and human rights violations. Studies have shown that domestic workers, particularly women, face high rates of exploitation and abuse in the workplace due to their marginalization and lack of legal protections (Hall et al., 2019; ILO, 2013a; Nazir, 2011).

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**ሆሳዕና**

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የሙያ አይነት ----- ደመወዝ የሚከፈለበት ቀን -----

1. ውል ተተባይ በትድግሪያ የተተባለውን ----- ብር ውል ሰጪ ከደመወዝ ያስከፍላል
2. ውል ሰጪ ተረኛው ተጥር በሚወስድበት ወትት ሚወጣውን ማለትም የአልጋ፣ የትራንስፖርትና የምግብ ሠራተኛውን አያስከፍልም።
3. ተተባሪው ሰራተኛ 45 ቀን የሙክራ ትጥር ጊዜ ሳይጨርስ ሰራተኛውን ስራውን ለመልቀቅ ቢረዳ ለአሰሪው በገዛ ወትት ያወጣውና በኢጀንሲው ያወጣውን ወጪ ሰራተኛው መክፈል ይኖርታል ነገር ግን አሰሪው ሰራተኛውን ለማሰናበት ቢረዳ በገዛ ወትት ያወጣውን በበኢጀንሲው ያወጣውን ወጪ ማስከፈል የለበትም።
4. 45 ቀናት የሙክራ ተጥር ያጠናቀቀው ሰራተኛ ሥራውን ለመልቀቅ ቢረዳ ምትክ ሰራተኛ አገናኝ የሚያመጣ ለአሰሪው 10 ቀን ጊዜ ገደብ መስጠት ይኖርበታል። የሙክራ ትጥር ጊዜውን ያጠናቀቀ ሠራተኛ ከአትም በላይ በሆነ ችግር ስራውን ለማቆም ቢገደድም በገዛ ወትት ያወጣውንና የኢጀንሲውን ወጪ ለሰሪው ማስከፈል የለበትም አሰሪና ሠራተኛ ከዚህ በላይ በተመሰከተው ውል ተረፈርመዋል ። አሰሪና ሰራተኛ አዋጅ ቁጥር 1156/2011 በተደነገገው መሰረት ለአገናኝ የሚከፈለው ክፍያ ከአሰሪው ብቻ ይሆናል።

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ማህተም መኖሩን ያረጋግጡ!!

**የአዋጅ** ----- ብር የአገናኝ  
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 የቅርብ ተጠሪ ስልክ:- -----  
 ማሳሰቢያ:- አዋጅ ከማዋዋል ውጪ ምንም ኃላፊነት የሰውም !!



**6.4. The Fundamental Rights of Domestic Workers Mentioned/Stated in the Contract Agreement**

As stated before, though the Ethiopian labor law (1156/19) foregrounds the need for a contract agreement template to detail each party's obligations and rights. However, it does not work for private employees I.e. live-in domestic workers who employed in households to do household 3Cs (cleaning, cooking and caring). It is expected that in the form of an agreement, despite of the already granted constitutional rights, the rights and responsibilities of both parties should be incorporated into the format.

Table 9. Distribution of Responses in terms of their Basic Rights

Characteristics		Frequency	Percent
Days off (Weekly and/or monthly break)	Written	35	26.9
	Oral Agreement	95	73.1
	Total	130	100.0

Access to Health	Written	-	-
	Oral Agreement	130	100.0
	Total	130	100.0
Access to school attendance(education)	Written		
	Oral Agreement	130	100.0
	Total		
Family Visiting time	Written	52	40.0
	Oral Agreement	78	60.0
	Total	130	100.0
Number of employers (home) working for	Written	53	40.8
	Oral Agreement	77	59.2
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

As indicated in Table 9, 73.1% of the respondents made oral agreements to determine the terms of their weekly or monthly days off. This indicates that even if a uniform contract agreement template is developed at the national level, as long as they do not have a clear awareness of the benefits of a written contract agreement, there are possibilities to be abused and exploited. On the other hand, some domestic workers surveyed said they wanted to learn the importance of signing a written contract between the worker and the employer.

Table 9 lists their right to education while working in the employer's home. The contract format does not mention the employer's employee education access. The same story also happens in terms of employees' access to health. The right to health and education are constitutional rights, and in general, they are human rights that all children deserve, and no one can deprive children of their rights. However, in the case of female domestic workers, they are deprived of their constitutional rights due to different factors, such as being excluded from the contract agreement, the employer's unwillingness, security, and fear that employees will claim their rights. They are also not covered under the Labor Law, but under the Civil Code, that further constrains their access to rights as workers in Ethiopia. Constitution, adopted in 1995, includes provisions related to the right to education. Specifically, Article 41 of the Ethiopian Constitution addresses the right to education states: "1. Every Ethiopian citizen has the right to engage in education. Basic education is compulsory.

The employers contest this, claiming there is no school near their home to which they may be sent. Since most crimes are committed at night, employers risk having their workers become victims of crime if they let them attend evening classes in a location distant from their residences. Employers contend, then, that their worries are for their safety rather than about violating or denying them their right to an education. Regarding access to health facilities, nothing was mentioned about access to healthcare during sickness. They reported that they faced problems visiting physicians in the nearby government hospital and/or government clinic which they face because of lack of time and the unwillingness of some employers to allow it. All respondents agreed that access to health care is not a contract but depends on the employer's goodwill.

However, rest periods and days off are inconceivable because they can only be requested if they are included in the contract. Even if specified in the contract, the employer's preference usually serves as the deciding factor in granting leave. This starkly contrasts the poll results from Kidist (2012), where 57% of respondents said they took a day off within a month. The study's findings do not support the notion that there are free time for the employees unless there is an a social problem happened among the family of the employees. As mentioned above, ILO Convention No. 189 emphasizes specifying working hours and rest periods in contracts. Article 10, paragraphs (1 and 2) stipulate that equal treatment between domestic workers and other workers shall be respected, and their working hours, overtime compensation, daily and weekly rest hours, and paid annual leave shall be respected and protected. Workers are not obliged to stay at home or at their employers' residence during weekly and daily breaks. However, even when employers allow weekly or daily break time to their employees, the place where they spend their break normally is determined by employers, not employees. This is a significant indication that domestic rights are generally violated.

### **6.5. Educational Aspiration as Challenge for the Domestics to find Employment**

The data presented in Table 12 highlights the challenges female domestic workers face regarding accessing education. Concerning female domestic workers' interest in schooling, 72.3% expressed a desire to attend school while working. However, only 13% of the respondents were allowed to attend evening classes. Seventy-five percent of employers disregarded or refused their workers' requests to go to school.

Table 10. Distribution of Responses on Access to Education

Item		Frequency	Percent
The interest of female domestics to attend school while working with employers	Yes,	94	72.3
	No	29	27.7
	Total	130	100
Request forwarded to employers to get permission to attend the evening class	Yes,	69	53.1
	No	61	46.9
	Total	130	100
Employers' response to the request of their employees to access school	Allowed me	9	13
	Rejected	41	59.4
	Ignored me	11	15.9
	Extension	5	7.2
	Other	3	4.3
	Total	69	100

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

Certain employers have employed the tactic of extension to address workers' demands for educational access, offering assurances of permitting them to attend classes in the forthcoming year or an undetermined time-frame. This approach was utilized as the most efficient method to delay and circumvent their aspirations for schooling, serving the employers' aim of retaining workers.

In line with this argument, one of the interviewed employers stated:

*"After all, the domestic worker is employed to do the homework (household works), but not to send them to school. I am not obliged to send her to school. Besides, I don't want to take the risk of evening classes, including the risk of safety and possible troubles against herself (sexual relations with classmates) which has serious consequences to me as an employer. Besides, I hired them to do the homework my daughters cannot do because of school. For this reason, I am not responsible for sending them to school, and from the very beginning I do not hire a domestic worker who wants to go to school (Employer interviewed in Hossna town, Dec 2021)."*

According to another participant, certain employers decline to hire domestic workers who express a desire to pursue education. The findings of this research reveal instances where female domestic workers in the surveyed region were deprived of educational opportunities by their employers. This constitutes a clear violation of their human rights, as education is a fundamental entitlement for all individuals, irrespective of their occupation or social standing. Research has emphasized the critical role of education in empowering women, shielding them from exploitation and abuse, and advancing human rights and democratic principles (Willems & Vernimmen, 2018). Nonetheless, the lack of support from employers has resulted in a substantial portion of these workers being deprived of this essential right.

Some employers facilitate access to education in compensation of their work and their salary is covered by the payment for evening class attendance. However, some female domestic workers are not interested in attending education; rather, they prefer to save their salary for their families left behind, and others save their salary for planned travel to the Middle East. Conversely, domestic workers' lack of school attendance might also be attributed to parental involvement.

An employer who was interviewed in the Naramo kebele of Hossana town said that a parent (who received their daughter's salary) refused to send their daughter to the school evening session in order to prevent a salary deduction for the school fees paid. She said:

*"As a teacher, I am aware of the right of all citizens to receive an education. One of my employees requested that I send her to school instead of sending her monthly salary to her family. I approached the employee's parents and suggested they allow her to attend school and pay for her fees using the salary I was sending. However, her mother responded aggressively and insisted that she should not be sent to school and that the salary should continue to be sent to them. The employee was visibly upset and begged me to allow her to attend school instead of sending the salary to her parents. Moved by her plea, I enrolled her in a night school near my house and paid for her school fees out of my own funds. Despite my efforts, her mother learned about her schooling and took her away from home, sending her to work for another employer. I am unsure of her whereabouts now." (Interview in Hossana in Dec, 2021)*

The conversation highlights the obstacles female domestics face in accessing education, especially in cases where their parents profit from their labour. In this case, the employer's

decision to enroll the employee in a night school and pay for her school fees out of his funds is appreciable. However, the reluctance of the employee's parents to permit their child to attend school and their preference for receiving her salary instead were evident. At times, they vehemently opposed the employer's suggestion of sending the employee to school. Such decisions could lead to the removal of the employee from school by her mother and her placement with another employer, highlighting the challenges faced by both employers and children in addressing child labor and promoting access to education. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), an estimated 152 million children worldwide are engaged in child labor, often enduring hazardous conditions and being deprived of educational opportunities (Potts et al., 2020). This finding is consistent with research indicating that parental reluctance toward education can significantly impede domestic workers' access to education (Abdullah et al., 2022).

In contrast, some employers revealed that their domestic employees might desire to attend school, but not always true. Specifically, even when their employers permit them to attend school, there are situations where female domestic workers do not wish to do so. Their reasoning was that their current level of education qualifies them to apply for a passport, enabling them to travel overseas. As a result, they strongly disagreed with their employers' initiative.

On the other hand, one of the unlicensed brokers interviewed in Hossana town replied:

*"I am not against advocacy teaching domestic workers; I am happy to see them attending school to improve their future. However, the purpose of hiring a domestic worker for an employer is to work from home and to keep the house when the employer is working and the children go to school or anywhere else. During this time, the employees should do household chores, such as cooking, washing and cleaning, and caring for the family members such as elders and children. Therefore, employers will not want to send domestic workers to school. However, some, but not all, employers send their employees to evening classes. You can see students at Alemu Woldehana School (one of the schools with widely held evening classes) attending their education in the evening. Most employers are reluctant to hire women who want to go to school for reasons not mentioned above and for other reasons. I am not usually the one that handles pushing employers to arrange school attending schedules for their employees because it is not my mandate, but rather the agreement of both parties. I recommend an interview*

*with the employer to find out more.*"(Unlicensed brokers interviewed in Hossana town, Dec 2021).

This indicates that brokers did not express concern about female domestic workers' educational rights but avoid the issue in favor of negotiation between employers and employees. Access to education for employees generally depends entirely on the goodwill of the employers (whether to permit them or not), and the employees' parents. In contradiction to the constitution, which allow every to access the right to formal education, female domestics were denied access to it in their spare time (attending night school- extension). Employers are responsible for ensuring that the employees working in their household are not being exploited and denied access to education.

Studies have shown that domestic work is one of the most prevalent forms of employment for economically disadvantaged social groups, particularly rural girls. Those engaged in domestic work are at a high risk of being denied their right to education (Walter, 2019). Some employers refuse to recruit domestic workers who want to go to school. Even if contract agreements exist, it may not include provisions for education, rather depriving domestic workers of their right to education. This is a significant problem for study population, many of whom want to attend school if given the opportunity. This lack of protection for educational rights can lead to human rights violations for female domestics, as per Mcgreal et al., (2023), which emphasizes the importance of education for children and young people as a basic human right. As per the National Child Labour Project Nanda, (2020), it is revealed that most of the domestic workers want to attend school but cannot do so due to their employer's stance.

The text concludes that the lack of legally binding work agreements incorporating basic human rights for both parties paved the way for violating basic rights. Further, the trouble from the system gave employers and parents the power to deny access to education. The fact that parents and society at large have yet to receive any education or advocacy on the need to support girls' education may be the policy's most giant red flag. The international and national laws that protect the right to education for all must be enforced, and employers are required not to be obstacles for their employees. This highlights the importance of protecting the educational rights of female domestic workers.

## 6.6. Health Condition of the Respondents and The Right to Access to Health

Health is a very important aspect of life because when it is kept well can make life easy and attainable, but poor health can make one's life miserable. The health of domestic workers is a factor in determining whether their work is valuable and productive. In the opposite case, it can lead not only to life complications in that time, but also in the future.

Certainly, the data indicates that 74.6% of the individuals study encountered health issues during their work engagements. Surprisingly, only 23.7% sought assistance from a medical professional or health facility for formal treatment. The majority, constituting 76.3%, refrained from consulting a doctor. Instead, they relied on medications typically reserved for family members' illnesses, administered without proper medical consultation. Furthermore, traditional medicines were utilized, with little regard for appropriate dosage. A significant number of respondents (28.7%) reported that their employers were not concerned about their health and ordered them to work as usual. In addition, 13.5% of respondents revealed that their employer fired them immediately for no reason except for their sickness. This demonstrates that when employees are ill at work, some employers do not send them to the hospital or health facility rather than accepting their suffering and instructing them to complete their regular tasks at home.

This data aligns with studies showing that domestic workers are particularly vulnerable to health risks and have limited access to healthcare (Schenker, 2018). The lack of concern for the health and well-being of domestic workers by their employers and the lack of access to medical care highlights the violation of one of the basic human rights. Most respondents stated that neither the formal contract agreement nor any verbal agreements kept referring to the healthcare service issue for female domestic servants. Instead, the accessibility of health care access relies on the employers' goodwill.

One of the interviewed domestic workers replied about her sickness season:

*"I experienced intense pain throughout the night, including headaches and vomiting, even while lying in the salon. By early morning, I was noticeably weaker than usual. I informed the lady of my illness, but she ignored my condition and instructed me to prepare breakfast for the children. Her husband, however, heard my cries of pain and gave me painkillers, along with money, so that I could visit the health center with his daughter after school. Despite this, the lady refused to let me go to the health center, falsely assuring her husband that I felt better and had recovered after taking the painkillers." (Interview Dec 2021).*

Of course, it is undeniable that some employers treat their employees kindly, treat them like "family members," and provide them with everything necessary. However, some employers refuse to treat employees as human and always say they pay too much for their employees. The 23-year-old interviewee has experienced several challenges in managing her health and work demands. She said:

*"Even if I am in difficult circumstances and feel pain at work, my employers should not let me take the days off unless it is evidently or discernible. As a result, I and other domestic workers continue to work through pain until it gets "worse" and requires the employees' attention. Even though I was in this condition, I was expected to put in extra effort without compensation. Because of time constraints and employers' hesitation, workers cannot receive medical care at the clinic, despite the frequency of complaints from employers about work being done from home (23-year-old interviewee interviewed in Hossan town, Dec 2021)."*

This highlights the lack of concern for the health and well-being of domestic workers by some employers and the lack of access to medical care. Health is one of the human rights recognized by numerous international instruments, such as Article 25.1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which affirms that everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for their own and their families' health, including food, clothing, housing, medical care, and other necessary social services. However, employers and employees do not understand the awareness about these rights, and the government does not give attention to the respect of these rights for this marginalized social group.

From the employer's perspective, there were different outlooks about their employees' sickness while they were in the work.

One of the employers replied that

*"Most of the time, domestic workers used the disease (illness) as a work-stopping (termination) system and the best mechanism to move to another employer. They used their illness as an excuse not to do their usual activity; instead, they went to bed. Sometimes, they refused to visit doctors because of their covert plan to leave the house. Because of this devilish idea, I do not want to take her to the hospital, but I let them leave the house immediately because if she stays with me for an extra day, it can result in sabotage (A government employee interviewed in Hossana town, Dec 2021)."*

From this concept, it is possible to understand that some employers, from their experience, suspect the employees' sickness as a pretext to leave work even if their sickness is natural and severe.

### **6.7. Awareness of Female Domestic Workers about the Government Organizations**

The majority of female domestic workers polled claimed to be uninformed of governmental agents working to advance women's rights, notably those in the areas of women's affairs, labor, and social affairs (Annex A7). They also vehemently disagreed with the concerned government organizations visiting them and informing them of their rights while working with employers or waiting for the employer through brokers. The data revealed that most female domestic workers are uninformed about governmental initiatives to advance women's rights, particularly in areas such as women's affairs, labor, and social affairs, raises critical concerns about the accessibility and dissemination of crucial information.

Hadiyya Zone Labour and Social Affairs Department expert underscored about the awareness creation initiative to domestic workers. He said

*"To be quite honest, we don't have any plans to provide private employees with training or awareness programs due to multiple factors. First, government institutions lack a comprehensive database of domestic employees. Second, it is impractical to gather everyone in one location and instruct them on their fundamental rights. Third, there is no labor law governing domestic workers employed privately. As a part of our institution, we regularly communicate with our office and train licensed brokers on how to report issues, employ the right people, and other topics."*

According to one of the responses from the Haddiya Zone Women and Social Affairs Department experts, their office is striving to defend women's rights at many levels and places per this issue. Some of the office's initiatives empower women via education and decision-making on their concerns and/or families. When it comes to domestic workers, women whom their employers have mistreated occasionally come to the office to file a complaint. The office has attempted to resolve these cases by working with the police office. He did acknowledge, though, that there are restrictions on programs designed especially to safeguard domestic workers from abuse before it occurs. The response from the police officers also not different

from what already mentioned in the other experts' idea. The officer stated that their office is working with collaborating with women and Social affairs department experts, particularly preventing crime. However, specific to domestic workers the mandate is given to other government organization.

The reasons cited for not providing training or awareness programs reflect systemic challenges and limitations that contribute to the vulnerability of this particular group. In the context of vulnerability theory, the data reveals a lack of proactive measures and initiatives to address the vulnerabilities faced by private domestic workers. Firstly, a systemic flaw is the absence of a comprehensive database of domestic employees within government institutions. This can be considered a structural barrier that hinders efforts to understand and address private domestic workers' specific needs and vulnerabilities. The institutional constraint that limits the accessibility of essential information and resources for domestic workers perpetuates their vulnerability. Secondly, another factor is the absence of labor laws specifically governing domestic workers employed privately. This legal gap indicates that the group lacks the legal protections afforded to other categories of workers, leaving them susceptible to exploitation and mistreatment. This finding align with studies that the government organizations have not done enough to protect their rights (International Labour Organization, 2020; National Child Labour Project, 2019).

Thirdly, even though there is a willingness to handle complaints from mistreated domestic workers from some government offices, the statement also reveals limitations, particularly the recognition that there are restrictions on programs designed to prevent abuse before it occurs. Finally, there was also a potential fragmentation in addressing the vulnerabilities of domestic workers, in which an integrated and comprehensive approach is often deemed necessary to protect marginalized groups effectively.

Generally, within the framework of vulnerability theory, the text highlights structural, institutional, and legal factors contributing to the vulnerability of private domestic workers and points to both efforts and limitations in addressing these vulnerabilities at various levels of government.

## 6.8. Complaints and Treatment by the Government Organizations (Feedback)

One of the goals of government agencies is to offer appropriate and equitable solutions to customers regardless of their background, level of education, social status, or other qualities. Additionally, when a citizen enters a government agency, they do so in the hopes and unavoidable expectation of receiving something favorable, such as justice, assistance, or other claims made in line with laws and regulations.

Table 11. Distribution of Response on complaints treatment and response of the government agents

Item		Frequency	Percent
Experience of domestics in visiting a government office to file a complaint about abuses (like refusal to pay, hiding away your materials, clothes) that happened against them.	Yes	45	34.6
	No	85	65.4
	Total	130	100.0
Name of the organization where compliant were reported	Police Office	43	95.5
	Women Affairs Department	1	2.2
	Labor and Social affairs	1	2.2
	Total	45	100
The government body's approach, treatment, and response to domestic servants' complaints.	Very Good	3	6.6
	Good	7	15.5
	Moderate	9	20
	Bad	15	33.3
	Very Bad	11	24.4
	Total	45	100

Understanding this, female domestic workers, aware of government agencies, occasionally file complaints with the appropriate authorities to obtain justice. Just around one-third of the total respondents—as shown in Table 11—reported or visited government authorities to file complaints against them. Domestic workers are more familiar with the police department than other government agencies. More than half of the respondents said that the police treated them poorly or extremely poorly, respectively, in regards to their treatment. There are few situations where female domestic workers are viewed as individuals seeking institutional justice.

In line with this, one of the interviewed female domestic workers depicted as follows:

*"My friend and I went to the police office because an employer refused to pay one year's salary and carried my friend's clothes a year ago. One of the policemen laughed at us, saying, 'You are the thieves of the employers, and you took materials from the*

*employers.' He was providing bits of evidence that other domestic workers had done before and had been found in prison. During that moment, when we were talking with the police officer, the employer came to the police as we were complaining about our roar against her and accusing her of sabotage or vandalism that she ruined. Finally, the police warned us to leave the compound and told the employer to give us only clothes, but he left a monthly unpaid stipend." (Interview in Hossana in Dec 2021).*

This narrative underscores a sociological perspective, revealing a concerning pattern where female domestic workers encounter differential treatment and face challenges in being recognized and treated as equal citizens, irrespective of their individual positions, backgrounds, and other determinants. The recurrent discouragement stemming from unfavorable responses to their grievances further dissuades these workers from reporting misconduct to government institutions, fostering a pervasive distrust in these avenues for seeking justice. This mistreatment not only contributes to the development of a marginalized outlook among female domestic workers but also fosters a perception of being relegated to a second tier of citizenship within their own country. Consequently, this experience may instigate a belief system that positions them as unequal compared to other citizens, reinforcing their sense of being cast off and relegated to the peripheries of society.

### **6.9. Institutional Factors Predicting Vulnerability**

The results of the binary logistic regression model suggest that the presence of a written employment contract between employer and employee during the recruitment process is an essential predictor of vulnerability for domestic workers. Specifically, the coefficient for domestic workers who signed a written employment contract during the work process is positive (2.011) and statistically significant (0.000). This shows that domestic workers who sign a written employment contract during the recruitment process are at a lower risk of exposure to vulnerability than women who do not sign one.

The reason behind this finding might be because of the awareness level of domestic workers, I.e. domestic workers who have signed an employment contract are better informed about their rights and responsibilities than those who do not have a written employment contract. In fact, the written contract is not "standardized" in terms of content, as it contains both parties' basic rights and obligations. Although it does not contain any requirements, the content listed in the

template is understandable for domestic workers. In addition, domestic workers who claim to have signed an employment contract are aware of their right to compliant about situations they have face. Therefore, respondents who do not have an employment contract are more at risk than those who have signed one. This finding is in line with Getachew’s finding (2006), in which domestic workers who signed contract are in a better position of defend themselves relative to those who do not signed contract agreement. This finding is also supported by Wilson (2020) which stated that those without employment contracts were more exploited and insecure as job losses.

Table 12: Predictor variables of Vulnerability Related to Institutional concerns

		<b>Variables in the Equation</b>					
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 <sup>a</sup>	Did/Do you have a legally binding written contract in your employment as a domestic worker? (Current or last employment process).	2.011	.414	23.620	1	.000	7.470
	Constant	-1.196	1.470	.662	1	.416	.303

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Did/Do you have a legally binding written contract in your employment as a domestic worker? (Current or last employment process)., Do you know government agents (institutions) like labor and social affairs office and women affairs office those working on rights of domestic workers? , Have you ever received information/awareness from government institutions about your rights as a domestic worker? .

## 6.10. Discussion

The main objective of this chapter is to address institutional factors related to the vulnerability of female domestic workers. The first point addressed was the issue of contract agreement and its legal status. From the beginning, the contract agreement templates lacked legally binding power because they were developed in the interest of licensed brokers without considering both parties. The absence of officially draft contract agreement templates increase their susceptibility because the daft lacks formal rules, legally binding status and good employment practices.

Even this contract agreement has yet not to be signed among all female domestic workers during employment because the financial burden of taxes imposed on licensed brokers emerges as a

significant deterrent, leading to a reluctance to formalize agreements with domestic employees. Employment occurs through unlicensed brokers also lack formal contract formats and recognition. The study emphasizes the absence of written contracts between domestic workers and employers, which violates international labor laws and poses a significant barrier to protecting domestic workers' rights. Research indicates that without a written agreement, domestic workers are at risk of exploitation and abuse, with limited legal options in case of conflicts with their employer (ILO, 2013a). In addition to creating uncertainty regarding the terms and circumstances of employment, the lack of a documented contract agreement increases the employer's power over domestic employees (Kidist, 2012). The power dynamics in this situation become disproportionate, with employers holding the upper hand and domestic workers finding it difficult to stand up for their rights.

In the context of the contract agreement template's content, it is anticipated that, despite the already established constitutional rights, the format should comprehensively encompass the rights and obligations of both parties. However, as revealed in the findings, these templates lack specific details, such as provisions for days off, working hours, access to healthcare and education, family visiting arrangements, the number of employers an individual may work for, and overtime compensation. Notably, all these fundamental aspects are orally agreed upon rather than formally documented in a written contract. Gebremedehin (2016) argued that domestic workers are frequently excluded from labor laws and regulations, resulting in a lack of protection for their rights and working conditions. This absence of formalization places domestic workers at a disadvantage, leaving them susceptible to exploitation, abuse, and violations of their human rights. Numerous studies have underscored the heightened vulnerability of domestic workers, particularly women, who face elevated rates of exploitation and abuse due to their marginalized status at the institutional level and the absence of adequate legal safeguards (Hall et al., 2019; ILO, 2013a; Nazir, 2011).

Specific to the right to education, all citizens can access education at any level. The international and national laws that protect children's rights must be enforced, and employers should be encouraged to support the education of the children they employ (Gebremedhin, 2016). The study's findings depicted some employers refuse to recruit domestic workers who want to go to school, revealing a lack of contract agreements incorporating the right to education. Walter (2019) argued that domestic workers are at a high risk of being denied their right to education. In

addition, lack of protection for educational rights can lead to human rights violations for female domestics, as per McGreal et al. (2023), which emphasizes the importance of education for children and young people as a basic human right. As per the National Child Labour Project (Nanda, 2020), it is revealed that most domestic workers want to attend school but cannot do so due to their employer's stance. Generally, the lack of legally binding work agreements drafted by government institutions that incorporate basic human rights for both parties paved the way for violating basic rights.

On the other hand, the finding revealed that parents of employees were another challenge that prohibited their daughters from going to school due to their intention of collecting their daughters' monthly salaries. The educational fee would compensate for the monthly salary if they go to school. Due to this, the employees' parents paved the way for indirectly violating the right to education. The implications of this finding are profound, underscoring the multifaceted challenges faced by female domestic workers in accessing education and the systemic factors contributing to their vulnerability. The finding further resonates with research demonstrating that parents' unwillingness to prioritize education significantly impedes children's access to education, and their prioritizing the temporary benefits over future benefits. The connection between poverty, economic resources, and the prevalence of child labor reinforces the systemic nature of the barriers faced by domestic work. This scenario aligns with global concerns outlined by the International Labour Organization (ILO), emphasizing the staggering number of domestics, including children engaged in labor worldwide, often in hazardous conditions and deprived of educational opportunities. The text concludes the trouble from the system gave employers and parents the power to deny access to education.

The respondent's lack of awareness about government organizations points to a significant gap in communication between government agencies and female domestic workers. The vehement disagreement expressed by the domestic workers regarding the government organization's failure to visit them and provide information underscores a tangible disconnect between the authorities and this marginalized workforce. The absence of outreach initiatives, mainly when workers are employed or waiting for placement through brokers, indicates a missed opportunity to empower domestic workers with knowledge about their rights and protections under existing labor laws. This lack of engagement not only perpetuates the vulnerability of domestic workers but also

suggests a failure in implementing laws designed to safeguard citizens' well-being. According to the Labor Proclamation, number 377/2003 Article 3 (C) excluded domestic workers by pointing out that the Council of Ministers shall issue regulations governing conditions applicable to personal services. Furthermore, Proclamation number 1156/2019 facsimiles the same statement from the previous proclamation (377/2003) without any modification. There is no chance for domestic workers to claim their rights except for crime-related issues.

In the context of vulnerability theory, the data reveals a lack of proactive measures and initiatives to address the vulnerabilities faced by private domestic workers. Firstly, a systemic flaw is the absence of a comprehensive database of domestic employees within government institutions. This can be considered a structural barrier that hinders efforts to understand and address private domestic workers' specific needs and vulnerabilities. The institutional constraint that limits the accessibility of essential information and resources for domestic workers perpetuates their vulnerability. Secondly, the absence of labor laws specifically governing domestic workers employed privately. This legal gap indicates that the group lacks the legal protections afforded to other categories of workers, leaving them susceptible to exploitation and mistreatment. This finding align with studies that the government organizations have not done enough to protect their rights (International Labour Organization, 2020; National Child Labour Project, 2019).

Thirdly, even though there is a willingness to handle complaints from mistreated domestic workers from some government offices, there are restrictions on programs designed to prevent abuse before it occurs, and a clear potential fragmentation in addressing the vulnerabilities of domestic workers.

Generally, within the framework of vulnerability theory, the text highlights structural, institutional, and legal factors contributing to the vulnerability of private domestic workers and points to both efforts and limitations in addressing these vulnerabilities at various levels of government.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### 7. PARENT ROLE AND SOCIOCULTURAL ASPECTS AFFECTING FEMALE DOMESTIC WORKERS

#### Introduction

Parents' desires to raise productive individuals who secure better futures, are resilient to life's problems, and assure appropriate development can have an impact on their decision to involve their kids in household chores. Daughters' objectives are greatly influenced by their fathers' opinions and participation in domestic chores. Children who grow up with parents who divide home responsibilities equally and do not associate women with housework are more likely to reject gender stereotypes (Abdullah et al. 2022). Päivi (2011) asserts that it is occasionally acceptable to shift employment from a mother to a daughter or from a father to a son. There are probabilities that girls can be engaged in domestic work where their mothers are involved in and/or interested in it. In addition to these, there are also instances where siblings support one another in engaging in the same activity against the motive and/or disapproval of their parents. On the other hand, sometimes girls find it difficult to make the decision to work as domestic workers on their own. In this case, it would be crucial to address the role of parents in this situation i.e. parents would be the one who played role of facilitation of employment by using their social network.

In light of this, the primary topics of this chapter are parents' or guardians' circumstances, the number of families, their daughters' preferences, their interest in working as domestic workers, the facilitation of their daughters' employment, contact intermediaries, and employers. Before beginning domestic labor, it would be very essential to understand the circumstances of the parents who remained behind. As indicated in earlier subjects, participation in this activity is motivated not only by the family's financial hardship but also by the interests of the employees, peer pressure, deceptive promises, and the predicament of brokers and families.

There are circumstances, though, in which the girls' parents and/or guardians also inspire the young women under their care to be involved in domestic work. According to the aspiration and expectation model which framework can be used to understand how people make decisions about their lives. It is based on the idea that people have aspirations and expectations for their

lives, and that these aspirations and expectations influence their behavior. On the other hand, the social and cultural issues related to female domestic workers in vulnerability also addressed in this chapter. The issues focused on in this theme include society's attitudes towards women's education, women's rights, society's welcoming of domestic workers, and other related issues.

### **7.1. Parents' Intervention on Employment of their Daughters**

Sometimes, parents may encourage their daughters in domestic work to raise children who would support them in the future. Cultural views that normalize child labor play a significant role in decisions to involve children in the family or by a family member in child labor. The goals of children are significantly influenced by their parents. Parents' opinion has an influencing power in the decision of daughters' life that what they want to be in the future. Children who grow up with parents who divide home responsibilities equally and do not associate women with domestic work are less likely to be involved in reject gender stereotypes (Abdullah et al. 2022, p.1-15). As stated by Päivi (2011:155), shifting employment from a mother to a daughter or from a father to a son is occasionally acceptable. Cognizant of this, there are probabilities that girls can be engaged in domestic work where their mothers are involved in and/or interested in it. In addition, there are also instances where siblings support one another in engaging in the same activity against the motive and/or disapproval of their parents. On the other hand, sometimes girls find it difficult to work as domestic workers independently. In this case, it would be crucial to address the role of parents and parents would be the one who facilitated employment by using their social network.

In light of this, the primary subtopics of this content are parents' circumstances, the number of families, their daughters' preferences, their interest in working as domestic workers, the facilitation of their daughters' employment, contacting situation of intermediaries, and employers. Before beginning domestic labor, it would be essential to understand the circumstances of the parents who remained behind. As indicated in earlier subjects, participation in this activity is motivated not only by the family's financial hardship but also by the interests of the employees, peer pressure, deceptive promises, and the predicament of brokers and families. There are circumstances in which the girls' parents inspire the young women under their care to be involved in domestic work.

## 7.2. Parents' Living Condition

The living condition of the parents refers to whether they are alive or not, whether they live together or are divorced, and other perspectives, like whether they do not know about them. Based on that, 40% of respondents informed that both parents live together; 30% were orphans, 20% were single fathers (deceased mother), and 10% were single mothers (deceased father). Therefore, most domestic workers were single mothers, single fathers, or orphans compared to domestic workers with both parents. This shows that there are comparatively more female domestic workers whose parents are still living and cohabiting, and they are more likely to be aware of their daughter's employment in the home. It makes sense that girls whose parents have passed away would become domestic servants. On the other hand, women who have parents are also likely to work at domestic work quite a bit. Hence, girls' participation in domestic work in the research area could not be determined by the death or survival of their female parents.

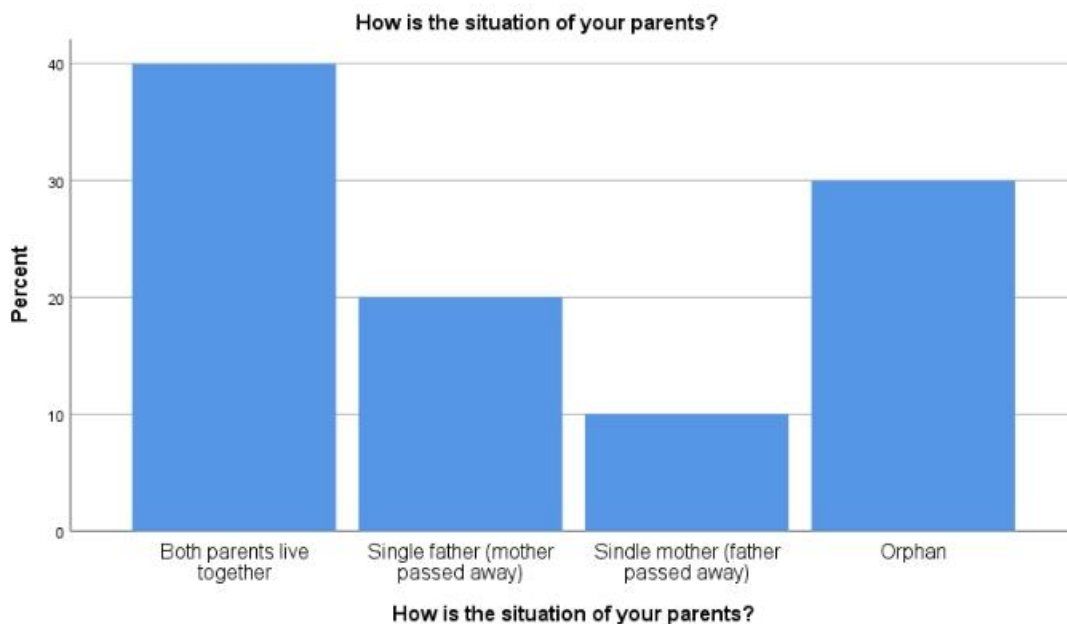


Figure 11: Distribution of the parents' situation of the Respondents

## 7.3. Suggestions of their Parents to be Involved in Domestic Work

Of course, parents' expectations for their children's futures vary based on their lifestyle, background, culture and the region or community where they live. Parents can sometimes influence their daughters to work on the endeavor under study with or without their permission. In other cases, daughters may totally reject the wishes of their parents or guardians due to their state of exposure and peer pressure. As a result, Table 12 shows that while some

families/guardians encourage their daughters to go to school, others provide little to no support for their education. Because their environment can have an immediate impact, this could be low community support toward female education. There are circumstances in which the girls' parents inspire the young women under their care to be involved in domestic work.

On the other hand, the community benefits and supports it to work as a full-time servant in a religious institution as a solo singer, especially in Christian religions. For this reason, several respondents reflected on their parents' desires for their daughters to serve as religious servants, a singer position. Others illustrated how their parents desired to work in small-scale trades in nearby marketplaces. Small-scale enterprises that women in the study area engage in include selling coffee fruits at local markets, known as "*hoff Meerra*" (the Hadiyyisa name for min marketplaces in rural areas, petty trade), and other traditional and handmade items. The intention parents to encourage their daughters in such activities are to get income for the family's expense in the rural areas. On the other hand, young people in the study region tend to participate in small-scale trading to save money for international travel (women to the Middle East, males to the Republic of South Africa). It might be another reason why parents encourage their children to engage in small-scale trading.

Table 12. Parents' wish for their Daughters to be in the Future

Item		Frequency	Percent
They support to complete education instead of domestic worker	Very High	47	36.2
	High	5	3.8
	Neutral	26	20.0
	Low	36	30
	Not at all	13	10.0
	Total	130	100.0
They suggested to be religious servant instead of DW	Very High	5	3.8
	High	49	37.7
	Neutral	49	37.7
	Low	19	14.6
	Not at all	8	6.2

	Total	130	100.0
They encourage to involve in petty trade rather than in DW	Very High	7	5.4
	High	16	12.3
	Neutral	29	22.3
	Low	42	32.3
	Not at all	36	27.7
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The aspiration and expectation model framework can be used to understand how people make decisions about their lives (Bignebat, 2017). It is based on the idea that people have aspirations and expectations for their lives and that these aspirations and expectations influence their behavior. It is predicated on the notion that people have hopes and expectations for their lives and that these things shape their actions. In the case of parents' decisions on their daughters' lives, there is an expectation and aspiration to have additional income for their family via their daughters. Regarding income diversification, Kassie (2017) states that it is an income strategy for rural households that comprises increasing the variety of their economic activity across all aspects and means. The methods for diversifying income may not be restricted to agricultural activities but rather integrated with agricultural and non-agricultural pursuits or completely detached from agriculture. Rural households typically diversify their employment according to their aptitude, determined by access to various resources. As indicated previously, one of the reasons parents could urge their daughters to engage in petty trade is to diversify the household income through their daughters' wages. Diversifying one's income sources reduces the likelihood of a family depending entirely on one source.

#### **7.4. Parents' Interest in their Daughters in terms of Involving in Domestic Work**

As already shown in the literature, in the Haddiyya Zone, migration has become a social culture for men and women in both rural and urban areas (Ansebo, 2012). In addition, sending their sons to the Republic of South Africa and their daughters to the Gulf nations makes the family proud and adds dignity. This trend plays its role for the family wishing to send their daughters abroad by covering any cost as much as possible. According to Fekadu (2017), the Hadiyya community's migration abroad has grown common and acceptable for both men and women,

depending on their social standing and connections with smugglers. Therefore, pushing their children (sons and daughters) would not be novel for the parents or guardians, but it would open the door to greater respect and dignity for them in the community. Fekadu (2017) also emphasizes that brokers are individuals who make it easier for people to get to their final destination, such as the Arab world or the Republic of South Africa. The community regards them as chance builders or door openers. Parents are the future's prominent designers in generating and diversifying the family's income.

According to the household income diversification model, households may increase the number of their sources of income or the ratio between them to improve their well-being and reduce their vulnerability to shocks. Initiating their children into various money-generating activities, including housework, petty trading, and others that cost nothing to start, is one of the strategies of income diversification. It can aid rural households in risk management, overcoming poverty, and enhancing the security of their sources of livelihood.

Compared to other responses related to encouraging parents to be involved in domestic work, very few are seen in Figure 12 below who rejected the idea of domestic work in the towns. A few respondents, in particular, experienced no familial pressure and disapproved of domestic work to make money. However, most surveyed claimed their families had counseled and pushed them to engage in domestic labor so they could travel to the Middle East like other neighborhood girls. Girls desire to deposit money by moving from the rural areas to the town.

In the case of this finding, the community in the study area takes pride and honor in sending their children (both male and female) overseas. The basic reason is to collect remittance from their family member overseas, and it is intended to look good in the community in terms of income. According to researchers' observations, in the rural community, it is believed that females at least should be engaged in domestic work in the town to be a source of income for the family left behind. This may be a significant influence in encouraging parents to preferably slightly support their children's involvement in domestic labor in the town, in addition to the actors' wishes for.

Parents who were interviewed corroborated the story of neighboring women who, five years ago, were employed as domestic workers in the town. And, they are currently caring for their families by sending money from the Middle East. As a result, these sorts of stories are prevalent in the community where they are located.

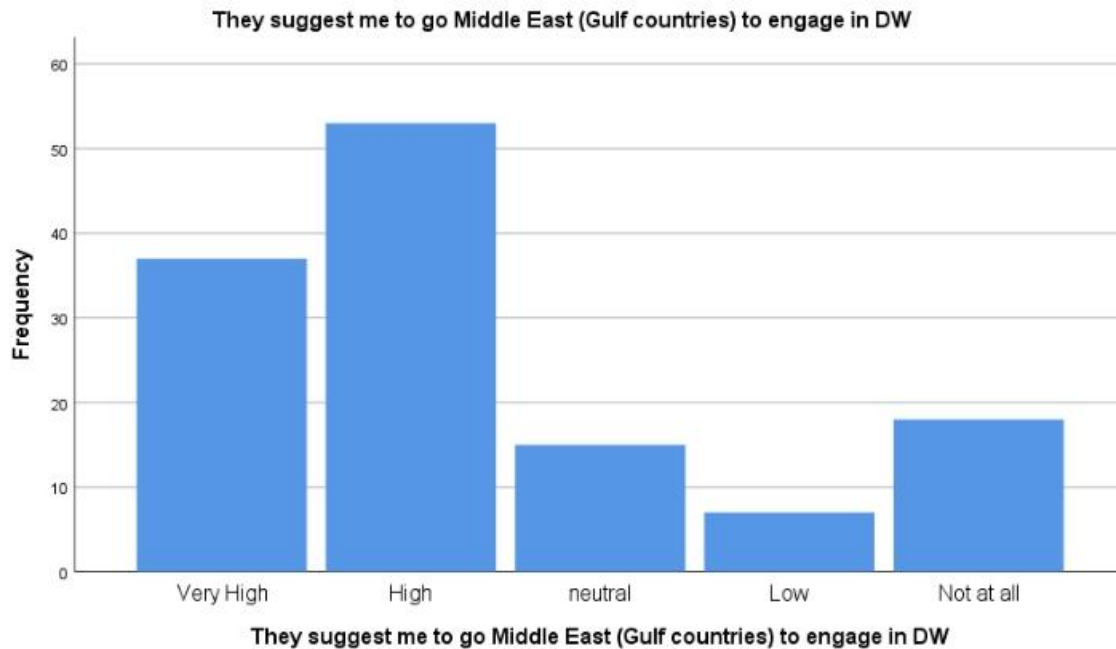


Figure 12: Distribution of parents' suggestion to go the Middle East

The 23-year-old domestic worker replied that she was first encouraged by her parents. She said

*"My mother heard a story at the church about a woman who had donated money to the church, and the church pastor had asked her parents to stand in front of the congregation so they could get blessings. The church members with sons or daughters who donate to the church highly delight in this. Despite being unable to afford it, my mother felt moved to send her daughter to the Middle East. My inspiration to think about it came from this period in my life. Finally, with my mother's encouragement, I decided to move to a nearby town and begin domestic work with the help of the brokers, who were well-liked by the church members (23-year-old domestic worker, Dec 2021)."*

The story shows how societal pressure shapes people's decisions, individually and as a family. The daughter was sent to the Middle East, but the choice was affected by a story heard at church. Within the church community, there is social pressure and expectation when a woman is mentioned as getting blessings for her financial contributions. The emotional power of these stories makes people act in ways that conform to social norms even when they cannot afford to, which is where the vulnerability resides. In addition, economic constraints often make individuals susceptible to decisions that may not be in their long-term interest but are perceived as necessary for economic survival. When cultural expectations and demands are considered, this

susceptibility is even worse. One of the main concerns the studies raises is the effect of social networks. The statement that brokers are well-liked by believers highlights how social networks can impact decisions that are susceptible to vulnerability. People may rely on these networks even while making decisions that might significantly impact their well-being, as seen by the community's faith in brokers. Finally, emotional instability is highlighted by the decision-making process, which is impacted by emotional elements like the narrator's mother's motivation and support. Emotional appeals can influence people to make judgments that deviate from their logical evaluation of the pros and cons, especially in close-knit communities like churches.

On the other hand, one of the parents interviewed during the data collection reflected as follows:

*"After completing their degree, female unemployment is common in the society, I can mention their names if necessary. I am not against female education. Additionally, the rural girl who has completed her college education finds it easier to find employment if she gets favor from a Woreda officials. Therefore, sending daughters to the Middle East to transform themselves and their families would be preferable, as other girls in our community did. Women have constructed homes, supported their families, and helped their siblings enroll in school while working in Arab nations. Since a passport cannot be obtained without education, they should attend primary school. They may find a decent employer and transform the families left behind. As a result, I am in the position of sending my daughter to the Middle East.(Parent, father, interviewed in Dec 2021).*

The above narration reported that parents are more interested in sending their kids abroad to earn remittances than in encouraging and pushing them to attend school and finish their education.

She was arguing that completing education would have no positive contribution in their life that much relative to engaging in business and/or working in the Arab countries. The choice to send daughters to the Middle East in search of work is the decision of parents rather than themselves. This decision is a practical approach for women to provide financial assistance for their families. Mentioning other local females following this route alludes to a societal standard or pattern. The story highlights the benefits of female migration to Arab countries. Women who labored in these nations are said to have built homes, provided for their families, and helped their siblings pursue their studies. International migration is shown in this story as a way for people to become more economically empowered and improve their family's financial situation. It also reflects how their parents take the power of decision over their daughters.

On the far-reaching rejection of the family's not to participate in domestic work, 25.4% and 26.2% of the respondents answered "low" and "very low", respectively. Instead of rejecting the idea of domestic work for their daughters, the family paved the way for their entry. The desire to send their daughter overseas is not influenced by whether the parents are living together or are single. Instead, the community in the study area takes pleasure in sending its male children to South Africa and its female youngsters to the Middle East.

The push-pull theory of diversification is grounded on neoclassical economic principles, including factor pricing, rational choice, utility maximization, and others (BIGNEBAT, 2017). Push factors are adverse conditions that might compel farming households to seek other sources of income, whether within or outside agriculture. Tilahun (2023) noted that additional determinants encompass risk factors, fragmented land ownership, and land constraints resulting from population pressure. Key drivers also entail the lack of development or absence of factor markets (such as land, capital, and labor), challenges related to market accessibility due to inadequate infrastructure and high transaction expenses, asset management tactics, and coping strategies. These features often prevail in agricultural contexts with high risk and limited potential.

Table 13. Parents Interest for their Daughters' Future Life

<b>Item</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
They push you to involve in domestic work to earn income via you	Very High	29	22.3
	High	53	40.8
	Neutral	30	23.1
	Low	11	8.5
	Not at all	7	5.4
	Total	130	100.0
The state of utter rejection of the idea of involvement in domestic work	Very High	9	6.9
	High	22	16.9
	Neutral	32	24.6
	Low	33	25.4
	Not at all	34	26.2

	Total	130	100.0
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SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

### 7.5. Parents Contact to Employers and Brokers

This part relates to the status of parents and communication with employers and/or brokers in order to facilitate employment to their daughters; and/or to know employers of their daughters in the town. Parent's engagement in these encounters might result in a situation where the boundaries and preferences of the workers are not given enough thought. And a possible change in the balance of power throughout the hiring process. Parental participation raises concerns about parents' power and influence over their daughters' experiences and decisions, even though it might be viewed as a protective measure. Furthermore, the negotiating ability of female domestic workers may be impacted by this relationship. A complex network of links is suggested by the community's close ties to brokers and their accessibility, either directly or through unregistered brokers. Designing treatments and policies to improve the agency and well-being of female domestic workers requires an understanding of these relationships.

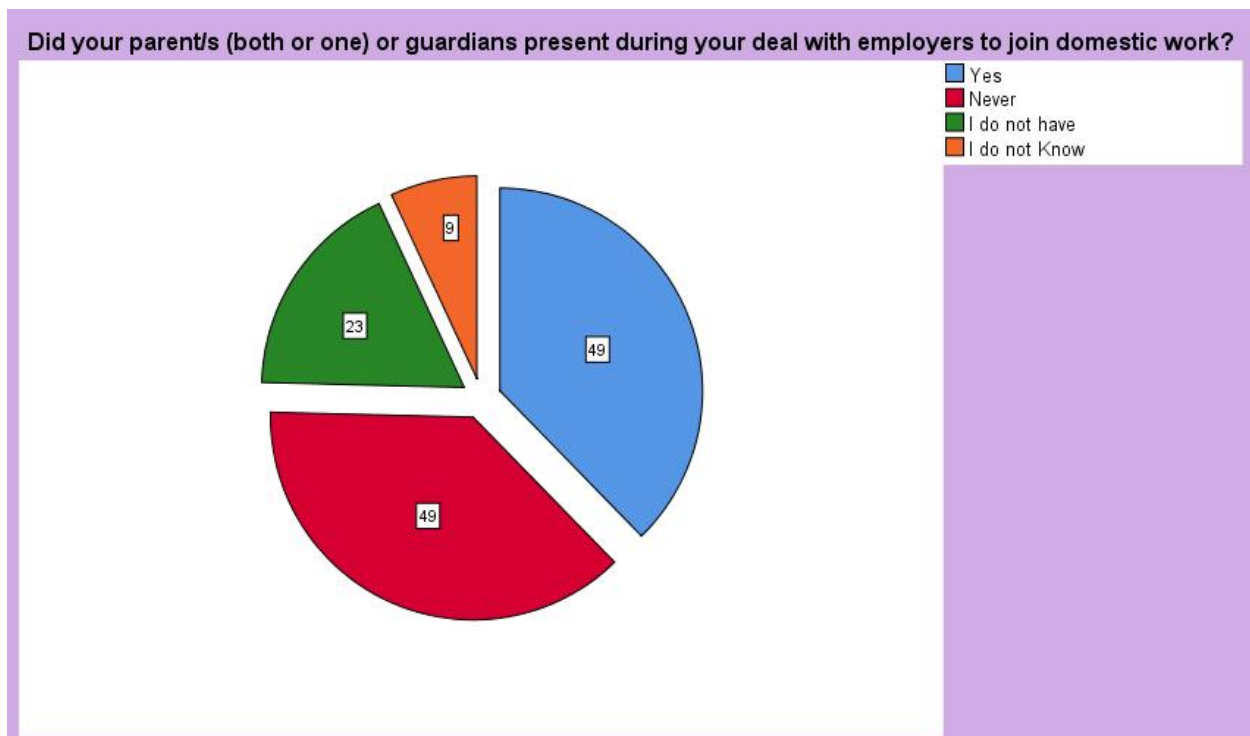


Figure 13. Parents or Guardians Intermediary Role in Employment Process

## **7.6. The Role of Parents to Facilitate Employment for Siblings**

Moving from rural to urban settings typically results in impacted worldviews, elevated aspirations, and new life perspectives, considerably expanding one's horizons in addition to economic rewards. Through a variety of channels of parent-child contact and interaction, the migrant family members, neighbors, relatives, and other people they know frequently share new information and ideas with the children left behind. The likelihood of following a similar path is particularly high for prospective migrants whose family members or sisters are employed as domestic workers with in the country or abroad (Wen and Lin 2012, p 120).

Particularly those migrants who were "successful" in their careers had the ability to persuade their sisters who stayed behind to migrate in order to take up domestic work. It is common in the study area for brothers who have worked abroad (the Republic of South Africa) to call their brothers left behind in the origin country. The same is true for female domestic employees, whom they refer to as their sisters, whether they are employed in cities or Arab nations. This makes it possible for potential migrants to organize and concentrate their daily lives within the framework of migration. Their interest in and commitment to education are impacted by this. As a result, adolescent girls might move to urban regions and work as domestic workers with the help of their siblings. As evidenced, (Annex A4) 49.2% of all respondents who have siblings report that their sisters also work as domestic workers in cities. This shows that employment of rural girls in domestic work is becoming a culture in the study area by using their personal or family networks to be employed. In line with the networking for employment, 43.7% of the respondents illuminated that their parents facilitated their siblings joining domestic work. This implies that parents are actively involved in the brokerage process for their daughters; this might initiate them to be fully involved in the brokerage and pave the way to create links with illegal brokers. Of the respondents who have siblings working as domestic workers, 21.5% replied that their parents/guardians' role was crucial in the facilitation process.

## **7.7. Salary of Domestic Workers Taken by Somebody Else**

Sometimes half of the wages of female domestic workers are controlled and managed by the other party, whether by the goodwill of the workers or by power. As a result, a significant number of respondents (56.2%) were in part or in full of their salaries taken by someone else

(Anexx A5). The type of parents depends on their level of involvement and communication with employers and the facilitation process of the employment. But there are scenarios in which parents collected their daughter's salary to content their own alcoholic interests.

Of those who took part of the salary of a domestic worker, parents/guardians were in the majority, but 23.2% were brokers. Regarding wage collection, 53.4% answered that their wages were taken without the consent of the subjects, while 46.6% were given voluntarily. This indicates that female domestic workers share all or part of their salary with their family, this may be because their family members were left to be supported by their daughters. As framed by household economic theory, one of the core issues is the parents' choice to diversify the household's income. The parents' intent in this situation is to diversify their family's income by sending their daughters to urban areas to work as housewives. And they collect their monthly salary paid by the employers for the employees as compensation for their wages.

On the other hand, some parents/guardians forcibly took the salaries of domestic workers (without the subject's consent). This can be seen as part of the exploitation that occurred by their parents and guardians. On the other extreme, brokers facilitate the hiring of employees and they demand a fee from both employers and employees for the brokerage service. During this time, the domestic worker may not have money to pay, and they agrees with the broker to collect the fee from the monthly salary via employers until it is over. This type of charge may be a premeditated charge. However, at times, domestic workers would stay for a few days with home brokers to wait for their employers and were required to aggressively pay their days of stay out of their salaries. The employees would pay for those days they would stay with brokers and the fee would be managed via employers from their monthly income until it is finished. Of the total respondents, 30.8% of admitted that their parents regularly get monthly stipends from their siblings; and 20% of the respondents said their parents or guardians consume alcohol excessively when asked about their parents' or guardians' drinking habits. It is feasible to comprehend the parents' engagement in the complete process of their daughter's employment and how they collect their pay from their daughters.

Whether or not the subjects approve, it is common for parents to regularly and/or even in advance collect their daughters' monthly stipends. The ideal scenario is for the parents to get

their daughters' monthly stipends is not only to meet the expenses of their left-behind family. However, in this instance, some parents confiscated their daughters' salaries in order to satisfy their alcohol intake. Some parents even collected their employers to get their monthly salaries in advance for the same reason. One of the respondents from interviewed employers disclosed that there are parents who are addicted by alcohol. To satisfy their addiction, they required employers to pay wages up front and even deal with employers to increase employee wages. This is currently one of the major challenges faced by employers and the trend is prevalent in many employee families. Some parents' characters affect female domestic workers because the subjects remain without any deposit for their usage and/or for the plan they will achieve.

The confiscation of pay as a sign of exploitation highlights the susceptibility of domestic workers to mistreatment by individuals who ought to be safeguarding their welfare. Taking earnings might put female domestic workers in a precarious financial situation, making it harder to save money or plan for the future. The details also reveal an unsettling trend in which some parents use their daughters' incomes as cover for excessive alcohol use. This type of family exploitation raises serious ethical issues and is firmly based on the vulnerability of domestic workers. The workers' ability to satisfy their fundamental necessities is compromised when the funds meant for their families and themselves are misappropriated for personal vices. The data's description of exploitation has serious repercussions for female domestic workers. The workers' monthly stipends, intended to support their families and general well-being, are misappropriated for non-work-related uses. This keeps the workers vulnerable by jeopardizing their financial security and undermining their agency and autonomy. The structural weaknesses experienced by female domestic workers lead to unstable finances, diminished independence, and an increased likelihood of being taken advantage of in both personal and professional settings.

### **7.8. Societal Perception on Female Rights, Education and Subordination**

The outlook of the community and society towards domestic workers varies depending on the cultural practice and patriarchal position of the nations. In comparison to urban regions, rural areas have a lower level of female educational attainment (Basnet et al., 2023). As shown in Table 13, of the total respondents, 46.2% of respondents disagree with society's support for female schooling. The percentage of 26.9% is following society's encouragement of female education. Because of the deteriorating and unwelcoming views about female education in the

community, girls are less likely to be encouraged to go to school. This suggests that society still has a decrement mindset toward female education. This might be the result of the negative effects of a patriarchal culture. Concerning women's rights, about 21.5% of respondents said that their Community supports and encourages them. However, 28.5% of the respondents oppose the benevolent attitude of society towards the observance of women's rights.

Table 14. The attitude of the Community Towards Female Rights, Education and Independence

<b>Item</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
The community you come from has a positive attitude towards female education	Strongly Agree	2	1.5
	Agree	35	26.9
	Neutral	28	21.5
	Disagree	60	46.2
	Strongly Disagree	5	3.8
	Total	130	100.0
The attitude of your local society towards the rights of females is substantial.	Strongly Agree	21	16.2
	Agree	28	21.5
	Neutral	30	23.1
	Disagree	37	28.5
	Strongly Disagree	14	10.8
	Total	130	100.0
They believe that women are independent (not “subordinate” to men)	Strongly Agree	20	15.4
	Agree	31	23.8
	Neutral	34	26.2
	Disagree	37	28.5
	Strongly disagree	8	6.2
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The findings suggest a prevailing opposition among respondents to the idea that their society perceives women as independent entities rather than subordinate to men. This sentiment reflects deeply ingrained societal norms, particularly within the context of the patriarchy. The connection

to female domestic workers becomes apparent as the narrative suggests that these workers cannot break free from the community's mindset as long as they come from it. Being perceived as subordinate aligns with the patriarchal structure where societal norms dictate that women are not considered independent but subservient to men (Amadiume, 2015). The notion of this mindset being internalized by women highlights the sociological perspective that an individual's beliefs are influenced by the social framework to which they belong. This sociological concept, articulated by Zerubavel (1999), underscores the impact of societal beliefs on individuals' perceptions, shaping their understanding of gender roles and their place within the community. In the case of female domestic workers, this internalization may create a sense of limited rights, reinforcing the idea that they do not have equal standing within the community due to their gender.

### 7.9. Apprehension of Attitude of the Community Towards Female Domestic Workers

Specific to female domestic workers' rights, it is important to study and address the rights of domestic workers in the communities in which they work. As a result, the questions posed to the respondents were about welcoming the community toward the rights of domestic workers, with 36.2% standing against the positive perception of the community. Meanwhile, the employer's and family's treatment of domestic workers was shifted to respondents, with 39% opposed to the employer's substantial treatment.

Table 15. Response on the Community welcoming Regarding Rights of Domestic Workers

Item		Frequency	Percent
The community's, they are living, a favorable attitude towards the rights of female domestic workers	Strongly Agree	17	13.1
	Agree	18	13.8
	Neutral	21	16.2
	Disagree	47	36.2
	Strongly Disagree	27	20.8
	Total	130	100.0
Domestics feel that the community is	Strongly Agree	10	7.7

there for them whenever they face any life challenges from employers, brokers and/or others.	Agree	16	12.3
	Neutral	22	16.9
	Disagree	48	36.9
	Strongly Disagree	34	26.2
	Total	130	100.0

The data explores the complicated relationships of how the community views and treats migrant domestic workers, exposing differing levels of discrimination and support. According to the findings, a significant percentage of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the idea that the community supports employees in a kind and caring manner (36.2% and 20.8%, respectively). An interviewee's experience, which shows a lack of respect and positive treatment from the community where she worked as a domestic helper, supports this pessimism. The story discusses how the community reacts when workers face problems with their employers or others.

Many respondents (36.9% and 26.2%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that the community provided support in these situations. The interviewee's story illustrates the difficulties experienced by domestic workers, such as prejudice, unfair treatment, and a lack of trust in the community. Nevertheless, there is community cooperation and support despite these obstacles.

In line with this, one of the employees with four years of domestic work experience interviewed in the broker's office replied that it totally matches the concept mentioned earlier.

She responded that

*"Many community members where we work do not treat their domestic employees respectfully and passionately. Rather, the Community labeled many employees as thieves, criticizing us for neatness and calling us derogatory names; they laughed at domestic workers in the language they were trying to speak. Even when we made contact with the Community outside of work, we frequently encountered discrimination that ranged from overlooking us to hitting us if we responded to our employers. As a result, we lack confidence in the Community where we work as domestic servants."*

As a result, there are differences in how the Community views migrant domestic workers. Others don't treat domestic employees with the same humility and kindness as those who are enthusiastic and kind to them. However, there are still responses who appreciate communities'

collaborations when migrant domestic workers face problems from some employers. One of the interviewed victim of her employers replied as follows:

*"While I was employed by my current employers, I confronted all of these problems; nobody else knew about them. I was confined to a single room and tortured by electricity, so I had no one to report. However, one day when Shoeshine Boy got home I yelled in my bed, "Help, help, help!" He sprinted and attempted to enter the room right away, but it was locked. He then left the compound and went to the neighborhood outside to report what had happened. A few persons made an attempt to enter the compound, but the owners prevented them and closed the entrance. The people informed the police department right away. I become safe and alive today, and I am grateful to the Community for that. As a result, I am worried about social harmony."*

In this case, the nearby community was very collaborative to save the life of the employee who faced such serious awkwardness in her work.

The story highlights the complex connection between migrant domestic workers and the community, exposing examples of cooperative assistance and discriminating attitudes and actions. The variety in responses implies a difficult social dynamic that impacts domestic workers' experiences within the community.

### **7.10. Employers' Treatment of Female Domestic Workers**

The data underscores the persistent challenges domestic workers face regarding their employers' treatment. Despite potential improvements, many respondents still do not fully agree with the employers' welcoming treatment and willingness to allow domestic workers to attend evening classes. This points to an enduring vulnerability in the employer-employee relationship, where certain aspects of fair and supportive treatment are not consistently met. Furthermore, domestic workers experience overlapping and interconnected discrimination and disadvantage from employers and the large community. In this case, the vulnerability of domestic workers is influenced by various intersecting factors, including their status, social status, employers' treatment, and the community's maltreatment. The finding resonates with Kidst's (2012) research, reinforcing that domestic workers often encounter challenges in securing fair and respectful treatment from the community and employers as well.

Table 16. Response on the treatment of Employers Regarding Rights of Domestic Workers

Item		Frequency	Percent
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The treatment of employers and family members to domestics is support.	Strongly Agree	3	2.3
	Strongly	21	16.2
	Neutral	32	24.6
	Disagree	51	39.2
	Strongly Disagree	23	17.7
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

### 7.11. Parents and Sociocultural Factors Predicting Vulnerability

Regarding parents and sociocultural issues, the results of the binary regression model suggest that community attitudes towards women's education, women's independence, community support when domestics faced with difficulties, and employers' support for their employees to continue their education are important indicators of the vulnerability of female domestic workers. To be specific, it depicted that belief of the community about the independence of women; instead, they are not subordinate to men, is a negative result (-0.762) and statistically significant (0.016). The negative association suggests that domestic workers who came from communities that promote women's independence are less at risk than those with the opposite attitude. In this instance, the community is the group of persons from whom the female domestic workers come from.

Table 13: Predictors of Vulnerability in Sociocultural Concerns

		Variables in the Equation					
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	They believe that women are independent (not "subordinate" for men)	-.762	.316	5.820	1	.016	.467
	The community I come from has a positive attitude towards female education	-1.280	.390	10.779	1	.001	.278

	I feel that my community is there for me whenever I face any life challenges from my employers, brokers and/or others	-.629	.310	4.116	1	.042	.533
	Employers are supportive for their employees to attend education (evening class)	-.736	.315	5.464	1	.019	.479
	Constant	11.413	2.786	16.777	1	.000	90451.507
Step 2	Parents support to complete education instead of involving in domestic work	-.367	.175	4.393	1	.036	.693
	Parents encourage to involve in petty trade rather than in DW	-.718	.218	10.865	1	.001	.488
	They push me to involve in DW to earn income via me	.733	.216	11.520	1	.001	2.082
	Constant	1.116	1.145	.950	1	.330	3.052

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: The attitude of your local society towards the rights of females is substantial. , They believe that women are independent (not “subordinate” for men), The community I come from has a positive attitude towards female education , The community I live in has a favorable attitude towards the rights of FDWs, The treatment of employers and family members to you is very interesting , I feel that my community is there for me whenever I face any life challenges from my employers, brokers and/or others , Employers are supportive for their employees to attend education (evening class) .

b. Variable(s) entered on step 2: They support to complete education instead of domestic worker, They encourage me to involve in petty trade rather than in DW , The state of utter rejection of the idea of involvement in domestic work , They push me to involve in DW to earn income via me

Regarding the positive attitude of the community towards female education; the coefficient is negative (-1.280) and statistically significant (0.001). The negative example shows that employees in communities that support women's education are less at risk of being vulnerable than those in communities that do not provide support. For domestic workers who feel that the community is there to support them when they face challenges from different perpetrators, the

coefficient is negative (-.629) and statistically significant (0.042). It was found that domestic workers who receive support from the community when difficulties arise are less vulnerable. Finally, the coefficient of employers' support for participation in education (evening courses) by their employees when they are employed within the household is negative (-0.736) and statistically significant (.019). This indicating that domestic workers whom their employers rejected evening classes and/or did not have access to education are at greater risk of becoming vulnerable than those who had access to education.

These findings may be due to the fact that the community from which domestic workers come has the ability to adapt and shape the community's beliefs regarding gender equality in general, sexuality and gender equality within the family in particular. According to Mead (MEAD, 1972), the mind is not a property of the individual but the product of social interaction and communication.

In this case, in a community where women are treated poorly, a job designated by the community as reserved for women is also likely to be treated less favorably. In this case, the domestic work is not considered another decent, worthy and legalized activity. Instead, it is characterized by the fact that it is disadvantaged by less educated and low-income families. Conscious of this narrative, **two critical speculations come to mind**: housework (undervalued and misunderstood) and **womanhood** (from a low-income family and a less educated social group). Due to dual and complex problems, domestic workers are vulnerable to exploitation and enjoy less community reorganization for their role in the family stability and functioning of the employers. All these leads female domestic workers to be more vulnerable while they are working in the household, and while they face trouble from employers.

As for employers, not wanting to send their employees to school means a lot for domestic workers. For example, prohibiting them from exercising their fundamental rights, and their constitutional rights, and not being able to assert their interests vis-à-vis others are paved ways for exploitation. According to Willems & Vernimmen (2018), education is a fundamental tool to exercise all other rights, and to defend their fundamental rights. This mean those people with better education background are more aware of their rights than those who do not access their educational rights. Therefore, there is a high possibilities of being at risk unless the community supports women's education on the one hand and the employers denies education to its employees on the other.

On the other hand, the result of the binary logistic regression model depicted that parental intervention and support to prevent their daughters from completing their education rather than being involved in domestic work is a significant predictor of vulnerability among female domestic workers. Specifically, the coefficient for the support to complete education instead of being involved in domestic work is negative (-.367) and statistically significant (.036). This negative association indicates that female domestic workers whom parents push to be involved in household work rather than attending education are associated with being more vulnerable than vice-versa. In addition, the result of the binary logistic regression model depicted that parents who push their daughters to be involved in domestic work to earn income via them are also significant predictors of vulnerability among female domestic workers. The coefficient for the parents' encouragement and push their daughters to be involved in household work to earn income via them is positive (.733) and has statistical significance (.001). This positive association indicates that female domestics whose parents push to engage in domestic work to earn income are more vulnerable than their encounters.

This might be related to the parents' power to control, guide and push their daughters to their interest in their upbringing rather than giving freedom, to some extent, to decide on their concerns. In the study area, migration of both males and females is becoming a social culture and a source of pride in the community. The reason is to get remittance if they are overseas and/or salary if they are employed in the country to the household. In that case, parents send their daughters to towns to collect money monthly, with or without their consent. This means that female domestic workers would be controlled by their parents and take their freedom to request their monthly income, and they kept silent because their monthly income supports their families. In addition, supporting families left behind is the most persuasive reason for female domestic workers, as stated in the previous chapters. Due to these reasons, in whatever unpleasant situation they are found, as long as their monthly income supports their families, they would stay in the household.

On the other extreme point, most of the female domestic workers are aged below 18, and they are controlled and dweller by their parents' command; the decision would take place by their parents. Therefore, what matters to stay in a household might be the interest of the parents rather than their personal decisions. In this case, even if the female domestic worker are found in a

hazardous situation, they dwell on it. This paved the way to be more vulnerable than those female domestic workers who decided their own decisions.

Household income diversification model refers a strategy that many poor families in developing countries use to increase their income and reduce their vulnerability to economic shocks (BIGNEBAT, 2017). According to this model, parents used their children in general and daughters in particular to involve in various income generating activities including domestic work and other activities. The reason for this is to increase income of the family by using different income diversification strategies, and maintain regular income like monthly salary of their daughters who are involved in domestic work. According to the UN Women report (UN Women, 2018), it is not uncommon for parents to force their children into domestic work to earn income. This practice can make female domestics vulnerable to exploitation and abuse relative to other groups because of lack of decision making power.

#### **7.12. Discussion**

As indicated in the findings, the attitude of parents about the involvement in the facilitation of their daughters in domestic work was welcoming, and even so, it is becoming a community culture to collect the daughter's monthly salaries. In line with this, Kifle (2002) depicted that parents were involved in the facilitation process by bringing them to towns as they matured physically to engage in domestic work. Consistent with Aboye and Alambo (2019), the involvement of parents in facilitation revealed that parents and relatives play a role in their family members' employment process by contacting employers and brokers. In this study, parents communicate with employers and unlicensed brokers and, sometimes, collect the monthly salary in advance and take materials like flour, clothes, oil, *enjera*, and other used resources home. Due to this favor, even if the situation is miserable for the employees, they cannot leave their employers' homes. On the other hand, if these advantages are not given, parents may lobby their daughters to abscond their employment to find another employer with better salaries, whether collaborating with brokers and/or alone. This scene of parents upset employers and degraded the humbleness and kindness towards their employees. Finally, dissatisfaction with employers by parents paved the way for the vulnerability of domestic workers, such as when they maltreat their employers with sympathy, humility, and exclusive constant control, sometimes commit physical violence, and work beneath a veil of maltreatment by their employers. As a result, female domestic workers are the objects of extreme exploitation

in terms of toiling, such as loss of decision-making power on their issues, starting from involvement, salary control, and being powerless to defend themselves.

The results highlight the complex dynamics of power and exploitation in the employer-employee relationship of female domestic workers when seen through the lens of vulnerability theory. The depiction of parents' active participation in the facilitation process is initially welcoming, indicative of the community's cultural norm. But when parents start doing things like retrieving necessary supplies from their employers' houses and collecting their daughters' wages in advance each month, this engagement starts to become troublesome. The act of parents influencing their daughters' job choices—including giving them the freedom to quit if certain benefits are not offered—reveals a power dynamic that undermines the agency of the domestic worker. Economic dependencies force female domestic workers to put up with abuse and exploitation because they rely on these benefits, even in the face of unfavorable circumstances. It is said that parents' resentment with their employment causes the vulnerability of domestic workers. The ensuing power disparity takes many forms, ranging from physical abuse to employers controlling domestic workers all the time. The study draws attention to a cycle of disempowerment in which domestic workers lose authority over decision-making procedures, wage negotiations, and the general working environment. As a result, this keeps women who work as domestic workers in a position where they are subjected to extensive exploitation, denied agency, and exposed to many types of abuse.

In addition, the finding elucidates the complex interplay of social factors that shape the experiences of female domestic workers. The decision to send daughters to the Middle East for employment is not merely an individual choice but is embedded in broader societal norms and patterns. It reflects a broader narrative of economic empowerment and the pursuit of financial stability for families, positioning international migration as a pragmatic strategy for women to contribute to their households. The finding viewed through the lens of the household income diversification model which states that households may increase the number of their sources of income or the ratio between them to improve their well-being and reduce their vulnerability to shocks (Bignebat, 2017; Kassie et al., 2017). Initiating their children into various money-generating activities, including domestic work, petty trading, and others that cost nothing to start, is one of the strategies of income diversification.

The finding also reveals a concerning aspect of susceptibility and exploitation. The fact that parents withhold money for non-work-related reasons or personal vices like excessive drinking highlights how vulnerable domestic workers are by nature. The misappropriation of funds compromises the workers' ability to meet their basic needs and places them in a precarious financial situation, diminishing their independence and agency. Moreover, the narrative unveils the ethical concerns surrounding the misuse of domestic workers' earnings, intended to support their families and enhance their overall well-being. This economic exploitation perpetuates a cycle of financial instability and dis-empowerment. The structural weaknesses in the employment of female domestic workers contribute to an environment where their financial security is compromised, leading to a heightened susceptibility to exploitation, both within their families and in their work lives. This dual impact underscores the intersectional vulnerabilities that female domestic workers face, necessitating comprehensive policy interventions to address these systemic issues.

As already stated, this chapter aimed to address the socio-cultural factors that impacted the study population's vulnerability. Cognizant of this, the data reveals a concerning pattern regarding societal appreciation toward female education. A significant 46.2% of respondents express disagreement with society's support for girls' schooling, indicating a prevalent lack of encouragement for female education. The comparatively low percentage of 26.9% suggests that societal endorsement of female education is not widely prevalent. This data underscores the persistence of unsupported views on female education within the community, possibly rooted in a deteriorating and unwelcoming cultural mindset, which is indicative of a broader issue related to gender and education. The mention of a patriarchal culture adds another layer to vulnerability, indicating that entrenched gender norms and biases may be influencing these attitudes, contributing to the decrement mindset (Vukoičić, 2017). As argued by Abdullah et al. (2022), society's cultural mindset becomes a source of vulnerability, limiting the opportunities available to women and girls within the community specially the access for education for girls.

Regarding women's rights, the contradictory opinion draws attention to the weaknesses in gender equality. There is low a supportive social climate for women, as seen by the low number of respondents (21.5%) who felt supported in safeguarding women's rights. On the other hand, a significant percentage of the community opposes or undermines attempts toward gender equality,

as seen by the substantial resistance (28.5%) to society's benevolence toward women's rights. This contradiction reflects ongoing challenges and conflicts in societal perceptions of gender roles and equality. It suggests a divided sentiment within the community regarding support for women's rights and highlights the persistent obstacles in their practical implementation. The theory of vulnerability examines this situation through the lens of cultural norms and societal structures that generate and sustain vulnerabilities for women and girls in advocacy and education.

The opposition expressed by many respondents to the perception of women as independent rather than subordinate within their society reflects a complex interplay of factors, particularly when viewed through the lens of internationalist theory. This narrative extends to female domestic workers, who find themselves unable to break free from the prevailing community mindset as long as they reside within it. The concept of subordination contradicts the ideals of independence, highlighting the intricate intersections of gender and societal structures. Within the context of patriarchy, the findings align with the subordinate status assigned to women. According to Ernst (2019), the internationalist lens emphasizes that these women, especially female domestic workers, face compounded challenges arising from the intersection of gender and socio-economic factors. The outlook of women being internalized as having no rightful membership in the community due to their gender reflects the internationalist of gender and societal norms. Moreover, Zerubavel (1999) articulated that the sociological concept that an individual's beliefs are shaped by their social context, gains depth when viewed through an intersectional perspective. The narrative suggests that the mindset prevailing in the community has a distinct impact on the experiences and perceptions of female domestic workers, emphasizing the need for an intersectional understanding of how gender intersects with other dimensions of identity and social structures. These all made the female domestics keep shay, take women's subordination as usual, and not claim their rights even if violence was committed against them while they were working in the new work environment. The data explores the complicated relationships of how the community views and treats migrant domestic workers, exposing differing levels of discrimination and support.

The finding also discusses how the community, where they are working as domestics, reacts when workers face problems with their employers or others. The findings also disclosed that

there is reluctance in the community to show compassion and affection toward female domestic workers facing problems with their employers or others. The substantial percentage of respondents (36.2% and 20.8%, respectively) expressing disagreement or strong disagreement suggests that the community shows compassion and affection for its employees. The interviewee's specific experience, reflecting a lack of respect and favorable treatment in the neighborhood, aligns with the quantitative findings. This may stem from deep-rooted societal biases, stereotypes, or prejudices against domestic workers, contributing to a dismissive attitude. Furthermore, possible reasons for this community response include socioeconomic disparities, where domestic workers are often from marginalized backgrounds, leading to discrimination. Additionally, cultural norms and stereotypes may perpetuate a devaluation of domestic work, influencing how the community perceives and treats these workers. Lack of awareness and education on the rights and dignity of domestic workers may also contribute to the community's unsupported stance. Overall, the findings revealed that in communities where domestics are working, they are not in alignment with female domestics to foster a compassionate and supportive environment for female domestic workers. The finding of Kifle (2002) is also in line with this, which states that the community where domestic workers were found was not collaborative; rather, domestics were labeled as marginalized, poor, thieves and inhumane. The interviewee's story illustrates the difficulties experienced by domestic workers, such as prejudice, unfair treatment, and a lack of trust in the community. In line with this, one of the employees with four years of domestic work experience interviewed in the broker's office replied that it totally matches the concept mentioned earlier. Nevertheless, there is community cooperation and support despite these obstacles.

These negative perceptions and treatment of domestic workers within the community can have far-reaching consequences for both the domestic workers and the community. For Domestic Workers, being labeled as marginalized, poor, and thieves contributes to the stigmatization of domestic workers, which affects their self-esteem and limits their social integration and upward mobility opportunities. In addition, unfair treatment was experienced by the respondents, possibly leading to a hostile work environment, which could result in increased stress, mental health issues, and a decline in overall well-being for domestic workers. Finally, the lack of trust in the community creates a challenging social environment for domestic workers that may hinder their ability to seek help or support when facing difficulties, making them more vulnerable to

exploitation. As indicated in UN Women, mental health is the consequences from unfair treatment and lack of trust (UN Women, 2018).

This negative perception may not only be limited to affect the domestic workers but also the larger Community. For the Community, labeling domestic workers as thieves and devalued reflects a dehumanizing perspective that erodes empathy and compassion within the Community that can contribute to a broader culture of mistreatment for them. The association of domestic workers with poverty may perpetuate socioeconomic disparities within the Community. It reinforces stereotypes that hinder collective efforts to address broader issues of economic inequality. The lack of collaboration and support for domestic workers may lead to a breakdown in community harmony. A community divided by such biases may struggle to foster a sense of solidarity and shared responsibility. Ultimately, these circumstances lead female domestic workers to harbor resentment and develop hostility towards both their employers and the broader society. Consequently, they may lead to actions such as theft from both employers and the community, desire revenge against their employers, and participate in sabotage. The data emphasizes the persistent challenges domestic workers face in how their employers treat them. Despite potential improvements, a considerable number of respondents still do not completely agree with the welcoming treatment they receive from employers. This highlights an enduring vulnerability in the relationship between employers and employees, where certain aspects of fair and supportive treatment remain inconsistent. Additionally, domestic workers contend with intersecting forms of discrimination and disadvantage from both employers and the broader community. In this scenario, the vulnerability of domestic workers is influenced by a combination of factors, including their status, social standing, treatment by employers, and maltreatment by the community. This finding aligns with Kidst's (2012) research, reinforcing the notion that domestic workers often face difficulties securing fair and respectful treatment from the community and employers.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### 8. INTERPERSONAL INTERACTION BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND FEMALE DOMESTICS

#### 8.1. Introduction

Employers and employees have an intricate relationship that has developed over time. The legal connection that occurs when someone provides piece of work or services under particular conditions in exchange for payment is known as an employment relationship. A harmonious relationship between the two parties is facilitated by several factors, including mutual trust, safe working conditions, prompt payment of wages or salaries, employee contentment and high self-esteem, employer welfare services, etc. (Rani, 2018). Misconceptions may arise in a dysfunctional relationship, leading to fights, complaints, aggression, and exploitation (Ahonen et al., 2019).

The employer-employee relationship ought to be founded on mutual dependence. The employer relies on the employee to carry out household tasks and maintain the smooth functioning of the family and home. In turn, employees depend on their employer for compensation, which allows them to support themselves and their families, if applicable, financially. With the acknowledgment and protection of their mutual interests, the sustainability of their relationship is maintained, hindering their ability to benefit from one another's contributions mutually.

The relationship between employers and domestic servants in Hossana town has yet to be the subject of comprehensive research by scholars. Under this chapter, the finding tried to fill a knowledge gap in the full scope of this relationship, which includes the essentials of hiring domestic workers, employers' perceptions towards domestic workers, the actual contractual arrangements, and the reason for termination of work; the cause of disagreements between the employers and employees; the way they resolved the disputes; and the consequences of the disputes if they are not appropriately managed. It may result if it is not to be adequately managed. Undoubtedly, the availability of information in this area could be better and properly emphasized, despite the attention given to the consequences that occurred against one another.

#### 8.2. Demand/Reason of Hiring Domestic Workers

The justifications for hiring domestic workers differ based on the context of the employer and their living circumstances. However, the size of the house, the need to assist the wife with chores

at home, and the fact that both parents had jobs were cited as the firsthand reasons for hiring domestic workers. In the case of the study area, the reason for hiring domestic workers varies based on the interest, purposes, and goals of the employers as well as their socioeconomic status. Employers interviewed cited multiple reasons for hiring domestic workers at home. Some of them were mentioned as follows.

### **8.2.1. Employment Access of Women out of their Homes**

Employment of women out of their home compound is considered one of the reasons to employ domestic workers because home responsibilities are huge to manage side by side. Basic responsibilities are taking care of their children, doing household chores such as the house, preparing food, cleaning the house, maintaining the house, taking care of the elderly and children in the home, doing laundry for the children and family, and fetching water from the town water points. In specific terms, the participation of women in outside jobs and their employees was cited a primary reason for hiring employees. On the other hand, global work dynamics particularly involvement of women out side home have also played a role in the demand for domestic employees. Even women without an office and/or other job have a heavy burden of housework on their shoulders and social responsibility to perform, prompting employers to hire another woman at home.

The interviewed employer (woman) narrated that her reason for hiring a domestic worker is the lack of time to manage homework because she is a government employee in one of the offices in Hossana town. Her work nature is time demanding, which does not allow her to manage her home, and her children are enrolled in school. Preparing food for the family in general and school children in particular is very time intensive. Therefore, to her, employment in a government office is the major reason to hire domestic workers.

Related to this scenario, one of the 39 years old interviewed employers stated as follows:

*"In my case, I believe that having a domestic worker is essential because both my husband and I work in government offices, leaving my children alone in the house until I return. I have nobody to look after my kids. In order to take care of my home and my children, I must thus engage a female domestic worker. Because of this, my family's sort of home needs domestic workers." (A 39-year-old Employer in Hossana town, Dec 2021)*

As narrated above, the absence or presence of the madam in the home determines the hiring of domestic workers to look after their family members (children) left behind. This means the wife's

employment status is a determining factor in looking for domestic work to employ. Therefore, hiring domestic workers in their homes results from employers, particularly women, engaging in out of home works including government work. However, other interviewed employers disproved that unless the wife is employed in government and/or private employment, there is no need to employ domestic workers because employing domestic workers has lot of miseries on the family like excessive wage, their character and even sometimes theft. In essence, the finding captures a debate within the community regarding the role of the wife's employment status in influencing the decision to hire domestic workers. While some view it as a crucial determinant, others challenge its significance, emphasizing additional considerations and potential drawbacks associated with employing domestic workers beyond the employment status of the wife.

### **8.2.2. Family Size**

As stated by the interviewed respondents, there needs to be a consistent response in the study area about the importance and necessity of hiring domestic workers. In particular, as the interviews showed, the likelihood of hiring live-in domestic servants for single men and women is lower because of the low stress on their houses and the small size of their families. However, the respondents frequently refuted these statements by stating that after marriage or having children, they would likewise look to hire a domestic worker because the possibility of increment of size of the family would be increased which is additional burden to the couples. Therefore, the necessity of hiring domestic workers is based on the respondents' situation and family circumstances.

In line with this, another employer underlined the importance of domestic workers:

*"The reason to hire domestic worker is because of the nature of my family i.e., I have no one in my home during office time (morning and afternoon) to look after my grandfather, who was found in my home, and to prepare a dish for the family as well." (A 35-year-old Employer in Hossana town, Dec 2021)*

Employers' main motivations for hiring domestic employees were the size of the home, the need to care for the elderly and young people, the desire to help the wife with household duties, and the existence of two working parents.

### **8.3. Intermediaries as Relationship Determinants Between Employers and Employees**

Employers can contact domestic workers through various channels including friends, relatives, intermediaries and someone else. The trust employers build in intermediaries (these channels) may determine the relationship between employers and employees while they are living together after employment process is over. As mentioned above, the contact with the intermediaries led to various experiences for all respondents. According to the perception of employers and employees, their preference to intermediaries are vary based on their experience. Employees preferences for the employment is determined based on their relationship and/or the recommendation for their relatives or friends; and the same is true for the employers.

### **8.3.1. Parent's Intermediary Role in Building Relationship between two Parties**

There are interviewed employers preferred the employees' parents over other intermediaries like licensed brokers and friends, owing to their own "convincing" reasoning. The major driving underscored reason by the employers behind decision of preferring parents as intermediaries is their safety issue. As they narrated, sometimes domestic workers are suspected of stealing from their employers, and sabotaging materials of employers when conflict occurred and/or when they want to leave their work. It would be possible to trace the path their parents had previously known and left behind, even if employees committed a heist.

In line with this page, one of the interviewed employers' explanations concerning the ways of contacting domestic workers is narrated as follows:

*"I have experience contacting female domestic workers via different agencies such as brokers in the town, relatives, friends, and even community leaders. All these experiences taught me lessons. Finally, I concluded that using their parents as facilitators to hire female domestic workers is desirable for a couple of reasons. First, knowing the family of the employees is crucial if some troubles happen like serious sickness, disputes between employee and my family, theft happening at home, and other unmentioned reasons, it would be easy to contact them. Contacting and solving problems passed off (from my previous experiences) may be challenging if the employees are contacted via brokers (licensed). The second advantage is that when violence is committed against female domestic workers by employers against their employees, it would be easier to follow and report to the concerned government organizations. Therefore, employees and employers would be safe, protected, and secure from any*

*trouble between them, which is observed in the town nowadays."* (Interviewee from Hossana, WuhaLimat Dec, 2021)

Interviewed female domestic workers agree with the notion that their parents go-between. In fact, there were interviewed domestics who disagreed with involvement of facilitation process of their daughters because when some of the parents are collecting the monthly salary of their daughters even in advance and at the end of the day, the subjects are left empty. Despite this against stand of female domestics, majority of domestics promote involvement of the parents in facilitation. In particular, the relationship with employers may be favorable if parents facilitate employment rather than through brokers since the two parties are familiar and can safeguard employees from violence. Getting to know one another benefits female domestic workers since it shields domestics from mistreatment in one hand, and helps employers avoid employee theft on the other. Because of this, even if their parents controlled their monthly salary and other factors that the employers had brought up, some female domestic workers felt at ease utilizing their parents as a means of employment.

There is no consensus among employers to utilize parents as their first choice as a trustworthy intermediary for their daughter's employment. Still, some employers stand against the intermediary role of parents to contact employees, whether their own daughters and/or other relatives. They argued that there are circumstances that some parents push/lobby female domestic workers to leave and shift to other employers with better salaries even if the employees are "comfortable "with their employers.

In line with this discourse, one of the interviewed employers reported as follows:

*"Starting with recruiting, parents now serve as mediators and enable domestic employment, and at least come together with brokers accompanying their daughters. Without the permission of both employers and employees, they even withdraw their daughters from one employer's house to another. Some parents call us, claiming there are social issues with the family left behind, the family program, or they are in mourning (which is a typical lie), and other excuses for why they should send their daughter, who is*

*already here. Instead of asking us to raise their pay, they take her and hire her from other employers. Still circumstances where parents want us to pay their daughter's wages in advance for four months and her compensation. (Interviewed from Hossana town, Dec, 2021”*

Moreover, other employed agreed with the mentioned idea by elaborating. Parents become the main problem for the employers in some case. They called employees to leave employment for some reasons. But they did all these pretexts not for the safety of the employees but for the seek of their interests such as if they could not find extra advantages (having food, clothes, oil, enjera) from employers; if employers refused to increase the monthly salary of their employees by the request of parents; if they communicated with other employers with additional payments and others. Ultimately, parents made workers quit their jobs. All of these insights suggest that parents are either directly or indirectly involved in their daughters' job searches. However, the main factor that motivated parents to participate completely in the process was the employer's friendly attitude toward them serving as facilitators.

Majority of the employers, however, prefer the parents over other brokers as facilitators since they are concerned about their safety. Consequently, in terms of the working relationship that exists between employers and workers, employees who acted as intermediaries through their parents enjoyed more favorable and positive relationships with their employers than those who did not. This was also works for the female domestic workers with the intention to be safe from different forms of violence committed from some employers and their families.

### **8.3.2. Impact of Type of Brokers on Employer-Employee Relationship**

Employers can contact domestic workers through various channels including friends, relatives, intermediaries and someone else. The trust employers build in intermediaries (these channels) may determine the relationship between employers and employees while they are living together after employment process is over. As mentioned above, the contact with the intermediaries led to various experiences for all respondents. According to the perception of employers and employees, their preference to intermediaries varies based on their experiences. Employees' preferences for the employment is determined based on their relationship and/or the recommendation for their relatives or friends; and the same is true for the employers.

As stated earlier, brokers are categorized as licensed and unlicensed each having different characteristics. In this case, the facilitation role of brokers determines the relationship between employers and employees. As the data presented below, most female domestic workers consent that using unlicensed brokers to get employment is preferable to using licensed brokers. As a result, the kind of brokers and facilitators used influences whether the relationship between employers and employees, is "good" or "no good."

There are consensuses among the interviewed employers regarding the preference of unlicensed brokers. In specific to employers, they prefer unlicensed brokers over licensed ones for some basic reasons. These are:

- Unlicensed brokers do not fix exaggerated salary amount.
- Service charges requested by the licensed brokers for the employers are excessive and do not adequately compensate employers for the employees' skills or level of service. Unlike licensed brokers, unlicensed ones request a commission for their facilitation process of contacting both parties, which is also reasonable and affordable by the employers
- One of the remarkable issues was the lobbying condition of unlicensed brokers to employees i.e. unlike licensed brokers, unlicensed brokers do not lobby female domestics to leave their jobs to hire for a higher salary, in contrast to licensed brokers who do. This is might be because of their intimation with the employers and families or relatives of the employees.
- Most of the time, employees contacted by licensed brokers might not know about their background. In the case of unlicensed brokers, the probability of knowing the employee's background will be high because the brokers have information about her family, friends, the place where she came from and how he can trace if trouble happened.

This made employers build confidence in unlicensed brokers, and those employees employed via unlicensed brokers have the possibility of creating a good relationship with their employers. Consequently, a good relationship between employers and their employees makes favorable treatment for both parties; it helps to be confident, build trust, serve wholeheartedly, and feel she is one of the family members in the home.

Regarding the preference of brokers, one of the 25 years old female domestic workers who was interviewed in Alemu WoldeHana school replied as follows:

*Compared to licensed brokers with offices in cities, unlicensed brokers are much better for us because we know them, they know us, and they do not mistreat us. Even if*

*they abuse us, we will call the family and/or friends who contacted us because they are known by my friend and her family as well. In the case of licensed brokers, those found in the office in the town, it does not work because, in the first place, we do not have strong attachments like those who are not licensed. Second, they favor employers over employees, and they do not trust domestic workers, but rather take the employers' accusation as it is." (Age of 25 years female domestic worker, Dec 2021)*

The data states that the distrust of licensed brokers stems from perceived biases and favoritism toward employers rather than employees. The worker believes that licensed brokers prioritize employers' interests and are more inclined to believe accusations made by employers. The lack of strong attachments with licensed brokers further diminishes their perceived reliability. Overall, the paragraph highlights the significance of personal relationships, trust, and a sense of community in finding domestic work, and it underscores the worker's preference for informal, unlicensed brokers due to these perceived advantages. Therefore, the status of the brokers can be the determining factor on the relationship between two parties.

Furthermore, as for the workers, they are hopeful that unlicensed brokers will help them get employment rather than licensed brokers. Female domestic addressed that the aggressive behavior of licensed brokers toward female domestic workers during the disputes happened between employers and employees, and their biased judgement. From this vantage point, they believed that, even in cases where employers mistreated them, licensed brokers consistently hardcover employers. It makes sense that the connection between the two parties would suffer, and the other party's welcoming view would be diminished when one party is suppressed by the other for the advantage of a third party. Because of the third party, a lack of trust in licensed brokers to facilitate employment will thus generate a mismatch in the two parties' relationship.

An employer interviewed in the field stated about the role of brokers to the relationship between employees and employers that

*Employees that I hired through unregistered brokers and relatives got along well with my family. This was my experience recruiting female domestic workers because they are obedient, innocent, and from a rural upbringing. However, the domestic workers hired through licensed intermediaries are extremely intransigent, untrustworthy, and disrespectful. When there was a dispute between my family and/or me, the workers*

*immediately decided to step down. The connection would be stacked as a result (Interviewed from Hossana town, Dec, 2021).*

Employers, therefore, believed that the status of the facilitator of the hiring process determines the relationship between employees and employers. Logically, employers prioritize their safety and security, which may sometimes fail due to misbehaved employees. Therefore, the possibility of a smooth relationship between employers and employees would be high when employees are contacted via unlicensed brokers. This shows that to make a good relationship between employers and employees, contacting unlicensed brokers to hire domestic workers is essential.

This suggests that, compared to those employed by licensed brokers, female domestic workers who obtained their jobs through unlicensed brokers are more likely to have amicable working relationships with their employers. On the other hand, employers who reached out to workers through unregistered brokers would be more likely to establish a positive working connection than those who did so through licensed ones.

#### **8.4. Working Condition of Domestic Workers and Decent Work Deficit Interrelated to Interpersonal Interaction**

The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines decent work as “productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and human dignity” (Aper & Smith, 2012), (Zekić, 2020). Decent work is typically characterized by fair compensation, job security, and safe working environments. Moreover, it encompasses employment that upholds the fundamental rights of individuals, including employees' rights concerning working conditions, safety, and fair pay, while also ensuring the preservation of workers' physical and mental well-being during their employment tenure (Tomei, 2011).

##### **8.4.1. Working Hours**

Depending on the circumstances of the family and employers, different households may need to recruit domestic workers. Intermediaries, employees, and employers all bring up various issues during the hiring process, including the nature of the employment, the hourly wage, and the day off. However, there are still some rights and obligations that the parties have not agreed upon, such as rest time, holidays off, working hours per day, overtime compensation, and workload. All of the employers who were contacted concurred that their employees' workloads are within their capabilities and that they would be idle during the day. Simply watching TV because no

one would be at home and there would be nothing to do in the afternoon. Instead, because everyone is prepared to leave for work and school in the morning, the workload only happens in the morning and at night. So it is necessary to prepare breakfast and lunch for both the kids' school and the employers. They are tasked with cleaning the equipment and making food during the night. As a result, working from home is not as taxing because it only takes up to eight hours every day.

The female domestic employees who were interviewed during the data collection period claimed that they are completely overburdened by the family's labor throughout the day, the week, and the month, with no end in sight to taking a break. The following narration has been stated by one of the female domestic workers interviewed.

*“In many respects, having a day of rest is inconceivable. First, the assignment is so enormous and I'm so busy that I need to work constantly to finish it. Normally, I make breakfast for everyone in the family around 5:30 p.m., and then, after making sure everyone has dinner, I am the one always ready to wake up when they need anything, whether associated with me or not. Finally, I go to my sleeping quarter at a minimum of 11:30, i.e., after everyone goes to bed. In many respects, having a day of rest is inconceivable. Even if I do it, the madam will assign my new work to finish. She appears opposed to my taking a break. ( a 25 years old female domestic worker, Dec 2021 ”*

Practically speaking, domestic workers work lengthy shifts (more than 14 hours per day) and don't have regular schedules. All the domestic employees interviewed reported having extremely long workdays. This finding is consistent with Erlukar's (2022) in which the hour that domestic workers spent daily is 14 hours. However, still there were female domestic workers work longer than 16 hours per day. Despite these facts, several survey participants reported that even certain employers, especially madams, are surprised when they see us watching TV when they enter the house after work, even if we completed our tasks on time. As a result of their conflicts and arguments, the two parties' relationship will deteriorate and turn into one of authority over servitude, which will upset their interaction.

#### **8.4.2. Days off**

Another practice that strengthens employer power and control over their employees is the perception that it is up to the employer to decide whether to grant leave/day off, or not rather it is not the right of domestic workers to claim the rest days. In addition, if leave is allowed, it's up to

employers whether domestic workers can spend their time outside or at home.

Some domestic employees admitted that they are aware of the need to take a day off from work and relax once a month. In actuality, though, it falls short. The employee is expected to continue with their regular responsibilities if someone else is present in the home to visit.

In line with this narration, one of the interviewed female domestic workers replied as follows

*“In many respects, having a day of rest/day off is unsound. First, the assignment is so enormous and I'm so busy that I need to work constantly to finish. Even if I do it, the madam will assign me a new duty. She doesn't seem to want me to take a break, and I can't recall the last time I did. This condition continues the entire month, and I am unable to get a day off. ” (Interviewed in Dec 2021).*

The above narration depicted that some employers are not usually happy to let employees walk outside, even in their rest day. Furthermore, employers look for pretexts to avoid giving their employees the day off and not letting them leave their homes.

The perception of some interviewed employer is that domestic workers do not have the right to request them; rather, they have the authority and control to give a day off, contrary to the domestic worker's right to one. The technique of defending the home against criminal activity is stated as the reason for this connotation.

According to ILO, the concept of a day off can occasionally rely on the awareness of domestic workers because sometimes employees not aware of it. In line with this, there are domestic workers have not requested time off from their employers due to lack of awareness of their right to do so and/or shay to request it.

The employers argued that not allowing them to leave their homes is not only for the security of the house of the employers but also for the security of the employees because when they left their homes without someone accompanying them, they might face different forms of violence including sexual violence which leads to other types of trouble in their life. Therefore, it is not problematic to keep them in the workplace for both parties.

However, the view of the employees is totally different from their employers regarding allowing days off, and even if it is allowed the reason to keep them in the house is not what is mentioned by the employers. In fact, the day off depends on the goodwill of the employers, not on the employee's interest. There are employers who allow their employees a monthly day off from their work. Some domestic workers mentioned that they agree to a day off during their time of

employment and have a day in a month to rest. However, they have no freedom to go out alone or allowed with limited areas to go. Most of the time if they are ever allowed to go out of the house compound, they are accompanied by someone from the family. The employees considered it as a way of controlling themselves and the mechanism to control their freedom.

There are scene that employees argued with their employers, particularly with women employers, about their workload and lack of rest time. But, most of the request rejected by employers and even they became nervous. Due to this, request to days off has become a source of conflict between employers and employees. This perception damaged domestic workers' relation with employers and opened up the possibility of dissatisfaction, disappointment, upset, and even criminalizing them.

The CEDAW's Article 11 Subsection 1(e) stipulates that states grant paid leave to women workers. Findings revealed that the vast majority of domestic employees, in violation of this right, are required to work excessive hours and are denied the right to leisure time. The ILO Domestic Employees Convention No. 189, which mandates paid leave and daily, weekly, and annual breaks for domestic employees, also violates this section of the law. Even though Article 10 of the ILO Domestic Workers Convention No. 189 mandates at least 24 continuous hours of rest each week, many domestic workers view this as an unrealistic expectation. In addition, employers have required employees to put in lengthy hours notwithstanding their complaints. In the case of this study, this controversies might be the one of the manifestations of the absence of a national law for this social group.

#### **8.4.3. Type of Work (Job Description)**

The type of work varies from one household to another depending on the family size, economic situation, location of the house in the town, and other conditions. The employers argued that the type of work is uniform and familiar to domestic workers. From the beginning, the type of work is described in the contract agreement if it has been signed and/or they are told verbally during the employment process. Furthermore, they argued that not all work is performed by the employees because sometimes they do not know how to operate machines and stoves; they are not familiar with washing machines, or they do not know the names of and about different kinds of food and its preparation. Therefore, there are other responsible bodies to complete the homework alone.

From the perspective of employees, they are not in the same chapter as employers, i.e., the work is mentioned and/or told as general homework without specification, giving room for domestic workers' exploitation. They stated that types of work are different, which made them exhausted, such as preparing food at least three times a day, washing chores, cleaning the home, washing clothes (very exhaustive), and looking after children and elders.

Moreover, in the study area, water is one of the primary problems observed in the town, and it is the duty to fetch water from a source far away from the home and carry it to the home. This is one of the burdens that are not manageable by the age and capacity of the employees because some are less than 16 years old. On the other hand, going to the market with employers and carrying the shopping materials to home. Not only this, but also going to the mill house is another big burden left on the shoulders of the employees.

Plus, in the study area, as argued by the employees, the number of households/family sizes is very "large" (at least 7) and has its burden because the food prepared is based on the number of households. In addition, in many households washing machines are not found, and even if there is a washing machine, electric power is not found and/or not stable. Therefore, washing all the clothes of the entire family and fetching water for washing the clothes and other home purposes is the burden laid on the hands of the employees. This indicates the extent of the workload and variety of the types of work that employees are required to perform for an employer.

According to one of the brokers, the nature of the work varies between restaurants and hotels because it is simpler to describe the job title in a hotel. Along with the contract agreement, it also plainly states their duties and the kinds of work they are expected to perform, such as waiter, kitchen "*injera* preparation," making "*wot*" (Ethiopian traditional food like sup) washing dishes, etc. As a result, before beginning employment, both employers and employees are aware of it. However, it would be challenging to regulate the types of work in the case of private household work, particularly for the full-time domestic workers. This kind of household job is described throughout their agreement as "general" work. Therefore, failing to mention the type of work opened the door for employers and other parties to abuse and exploit domestic workers. Each of these circumstances allowed for the growth of mistrust on both sides as their relationship declined.

#### **8.4.4. Amount of Remuneration**

The monthly salary of the respondents varies based on their age, work experience, negotiation power, educational level, and employers' kindness. During the data collection period, the average amount of salary was 850 Birr (16USD) per month. At its face value, as long as the employers cover the food and other accommodations of the workers, this wage might not be considered lower income. However, the time they spend at work is 14 hours per day, which is extremely low considering the long work hours. Specifically, when their income breaks down per hour, even a worker who worked for 14 hours on average, the maximum payment per hour will be 1.2 Birr per hour (0.02 USD per hour). This payment is the lowest of any worker in the country, including civil servants who must work 8 hours per day for five days. Also, some employers would prefer to pay the employee's salary as per their agreement, whether verbal or written agreements. During the data collection, many of the interviewed domestic workers showed they had experienced dismissal without any salary after working for months.

One of the interviewed respondents disclosed as follows:

*"I worked in one of the employers' homes for around 14 months, earning 2000 birr a month. They advised me to put money in the bank and made a guarantee to deliver it to me in case of emergency, and I agreed with them. However, I did not understand how to open a bank account before depositing in the bank. Finally, I requested the deposited wage to spend the holiday with my family in the rural area. They did not accept my request to let me visit; rather, they were disappointed. But I insisted on them because it is customary to visit family during the "Meskel" holiday and to give gifts to family, friends, and neighbors in honor of the celebration. Finally, they began to deduct for damaged materials while I was working. They searched for an additional pretext to do so, including the fact that flour, oil, and money had been stolen from the house, considering me as theft, and even that they had claimed that gold jewelry that had been stolen from the madam somewhere else also counted on me. Finally, I was told to be paid 10,000 Birr out of 28,000 Birr. The worst thing was that they instructed me to pay after the holiday but only gave me 1,000 out of 10,000 Birr for transportation, which made me miserable for the rest of my life. I wept in front of my employer's spiritual counselor in their religious practising place. He rebuked them, but their false accusations of theft against me caused him to change his mind. However, if I returned to them after the "meskel" holiday, they agreed to pay me the remaining sum. My employer told me this tale a long*

*time ago. After that, I never again let my money to an employer to deposit on my behalf; instead, I saved up every month with the threat of leaving simultaneously. And I am not okay to stay in a given household for more than five months. This is my personal decision (a 23 years old female domestic workers, Dec 2021)."*

This story illustrates how vulnerable domestic workers are to abuse and exploitation in the context of the employer-domestic worker relationship, according to vulnerability theory. The employer's possible abuse of the domestic worker's lack of financial literacy is demonstrated by the first recommendation to deposit money in a bank and the lack of knowledge about opening a bank account. The employer's subsequent refusal to permit the domestic worker to see her family on a cultural holiday highlights even more the power and control the employer has over the domestic worker's private life and choices. The vulnerability of the domestic worker is exacerbated by the employer's attempt to withhold income for purported damages and unfounded allegations of theft.

This scenario emphasizes how unstable domestic labor may be and how employers might take advantage of their position of authority to create baseless charges and arbitrary deductions. The emotional toll and vulnerability suffered by domestic workers are highlighted by the emotional discomfort shown by the worker, who also sought support from the employer's spiritual counselor. From the standpoint of labor theory, it is evident that exploitation occurs when wages are withheld and deducted for theft, other pretexts, or alleged damages. A second indication of the employer's disdain for the worth of the domestic worker's effort is the choice just to pay a portion of the outstanding salary and postpone the remaining balance until after the holiday. The lack of transparency and fairness in the wage negotiation and payment process places the domestic worker in a vulnerable position where the employer's actions jeopardize her economic well-being.

#### **8.4.5. Provision of Food**

In fact, some employers allow their employees to have their meals on time while their family members are having them. However, there are discriminatory and degrading practices committed by employers against employees were frequently reported by the respondents. Providing separate cuisine to domestic employees is not a problem by itself, but the type of food given to domestic

workers is not the same as other family members, the frequency of having food, content, and amount of food given were the most mentioned challenges in terms of meal.

An interviewed female domestic worker narrated the food accommodation she faced while employed by one of the employers.

*"Madam locked food while she left home to work and I left hungry until she came back because the work given for the day is too much, but the food given to me is minimal."*

Another common challenge for the employees was food reserving leftovers from other households for domestic workers to eat. It is not allowed to have fresh food as other family members do rather than wait until other family members finish having food and they will have the leftovers, whatever the amount of food is. This is confirmed by some employers who were interviewed during the data collection.

An interviewed employer in Hossana town underscored that

*"I have had more than five employees so far. I learned that employees, by nature, never be satisfied with whatever the employers do for their good. Rather, they are always complaints from employers. I always treat them as my "family members" because as long as they are in my home, I am her mother. As a Christian, the Bible (Ephesians 6:9) is not teaching me to mistreat employees working in my house; rather, it teaches me to treat them by fear of the heavenly Father, God. Therefore, I gave them food in the home that was not different from my family, and the food was also "sufficient" for her. However, some employers may violate their rights and even abuse them. But there are still employees interested in shifting from one employer to another within a short period, not because of the mistreatment or shortage of food but rather because of deceit from their friends, families, and relatives. That is their weakness."*

However, this particular case has yet to be witnessed by the many female domestic workers who do not work in many employers' homes. A 23-year-old female domestic worker brought evidence from her experience while she was working as an employee in the town. She witnessed as follows how their employers (madam) forced her not to eat:

*"She regularly counts the amount of food (injer) and drinks that are in the house (refrigerator). She did this solely to control me and warn me against eating without her consent, even when it was time. She makes me do household duties like washing dishes at lunch or dinner time; she did this intentionally to stop me from eating at the same time as*

*them. She handed me any leftovers once they finished eating. I had no right to claim add food to the amount she has provided. Not only this but also, while having my meal she has to sit by me until I finish eating to observe me and insulting me say things like, "You are eating like a beast; your way of eating looks like a Hyena," which has a terrible negative impact on my mentality. She continued doing this till I departed from her home. Regarding eating accommodations, this was one of the most heartbreaking and devastating moments in my employment history." (In the middle of the interview, while responding, she was crying and regretting.)*

Additionally, many respondents agreed that reserving food left from other households for domestic workers to eat was the most prevalent challenge encountered in many of the employers' homes. They have to wait till the rest of the family has eaten since they are supposed to consume the leftovers because sharing different or similar foods with others was unthinkable. In terms of food provision within the social environment, it is unacceptable. It shows a lack of respect for the person who has leftover food from other people. According to the ILO convention 189, employers were supposed to ensure that their employees—the domestic workers—received appropriate food in both quality and quantity. However, the terrible situation observed in providing food to domestic workers seems to reflect human rights violations against the subjects. One of the prevalent dehumanizing character against domestic workers in the research area is trouble related to food. In line with this, Kidist (2012, p.21-22) stated that hunger is the most challenging problem for many domestic workers since they must work long hours without proper food. However, for most of the respondents in this study relative to other troubles, hunger is not the most critical problem. As stated by Getachew (2006), one of the major problems of domestic workers concerning food provision was the time they had their meals. In line with this finding, in the current study area, delayed food from the regular eating time was one of the challenges that affected the employees' appetite.

#### **8.4.6. Sleeping Situation**

One of the basics for female domestic workers is sleeping in the employer's home. From the respondents, the majority disclosed that they sleep in one corner of the salon, and others sleep in the kitchen or corridor of the home. Some respondents reported sleeping on the floor using mattresses, blankets, cartons, thrown clothes, and inadequate sleeping quarters. They disclosed that it is impossible to claim a personal bedroom, and even in some employers' homes, sleeping

in the salon looks luxurious. This is because in one hand, the employers perception toward their domestic workers who dwell in their homes is not appreciating; and on the other, the community's attitude towards domestic work is not welcoming and appreciable; rather, it is considered marginalized, and underestimated. Due to these reasons, employers thought that giving their employees private rooms or a safe sleeping environment in the home was not considered an issue; instead, living in the home without charging any fee was a luxury.

However, insignificant number of employers arrange a private room for their employees to rest after their exhaustive work, and they even have their facilities in their rooms like showers, restrooms, and others. Therefore, different sleeping arrangements are available to female domestic workers depending on the employers' financial capabilities, the nature of the work, and the housing arrangements.

Majority of the employers employers argued that they do not have "enough" rooms in their homes, even for their children. On the other hand, interviewed employees commonly agreed that female domestic workers lack separate rooms and sleeping arrangements for various reasons. First, most employers do not have private rooms available in their homes to provide for employees. Second, even if there are rooms, some employers consider giving private rooms to their domestic employees a luxury, and they do not deserve it. Due to these, they would often be sleeping in a dark corner of the house, even if they occasionally slept in the same room as other family members. As a result of these situations, female domestic workers are more susceptible to sexual harassment by their male counterparts.

According to the UN Women Report (2018), a lack of privacy and security and poor sleep quality are some of the hazards and obstacles that domestic workers may experience when it comes to their sleeping arrangements. Female domestic employees who live in their employers' homes may not have a separate room or a lockable door, which is a severe problem for some of them. They would have to sleep in common areas like living rooms, kitchens, or hallways. They were exposed to sexual abuse by offenders due to the situation of the employees. Also, poor sleep quality is a lack of access to proper bedding, lighting, or temperature control in their sleeping spaces. This circumstance could result from health issues, noise, insects, and other environmental concerns interrupting sleep.

#### **8.4.7. Contested family Status of Domestic Workers**

The phrase "contested family status of domestic workers" refers to a circumstance where there is discussion, controversy, or uncertainty about domestic workers' roles or positions in their families. It suggests that there may be different points of view, contradicting beliefs, or doubts about how these workers are viewed or handled in family relations. The idea might include conversations on whether or not domestic workers are seen as members of the employer's family, about their commitments to their families at home, or about acknowledging their obligations to their families outside of the workplace. Cultural, societal, or economic issues that affect how domestic workers are treated and expected in the context of family structures might cause this ambiguity or argument. Understanding the contested family status of domestic workers is crucial for addressing issues related to their rights, treatment, and integration within the households where they are employed.

#### **The Myth and Reality of Being 'Part of the Family'**

Consideration of female domestic workers as family members entails calling them by name, showing respect, taking the time to listen to and consider their ideas, treating them kindly, and being aware of their situation, feelings, and other hardships, as well as their family background and other circumstances (Kim & Marler, 2020). This consideration benefits both parties, including assisting with stress management, encouraging better behaviors, boosting self-esteem, improving well-being and mental health, and fostering trust between individuals and others (Ibid).

In this study, migrant female domestic workers agreed that their employees have not often witnessed this kind of consideration on the part of their employers. Instead, they have been ignored, unwilling to understand how they are feeling, unwilling to treat them with kindness and respect, and unwilling to accept their difficult circumstances as the norm.

As responded by interviewed female domestics,

*“Some employers view their domestic workers as commodities to be purchased off the market rather than considering them as valuable family members. Such mistreatment is committed primarily by female employers than that of males. It is inconceivable to conceive domestic workers as family members; treating them like people is sufficient.”*

This testimony illustrates the disjuncture between the idealized notion of inclusion as "family" and the actual treatment that domestic workers receive in many households.

### **Gendered Power Dynamics and Employer-Employee Conflict**

The increased likelihood of conflicts between female domestic workers and their female employers (madams) compared to male employers can be attributed to several factors. Given , madams (women employers) spend most of their time interacting with their employees and more involve in household administration, their tendency to get in conflict with domestic workers might be higher than men employers. According to interviewed employers, madams who have no employment outside the household spend more time directly engaging with domestic workers, fostering an environment where conflicts are prone to emerge. The active participation of madams in household administration leads to higher expectations whereby they give specific directives to domestic workers, increasing the potential for conflicts when expectations are not communicated or aligned with the workers' perceptions of their responsibilities. Byron and Thomas (2007) argued that madams, actively involved in household administration, ongoing interaction contribute to emotional involvement between madams and domestic workers, heightening sensitivities and susceptibility to conflicts, mainly when unmet emotional needs. The unique communication preferences of female employers, such as madams, may differ from their male counterparts, contributing to misunderstandings and conflicts. The power and influence wielded by madams in household administration may further lead to conflicts, especially if there is a perceived imbalance in decision-making or if domestic workers feel dis-empowered to express their opinions.

On the side of the employers, there was no uniform response regarding considering employees as their family members. While some employers views are aligned with the connotation mentioned earlier, other employers disagree with the idea mentioned above due to their own differently stated justifications.

A 41-year-old woman employer depicted her stand regarding employees working in her home and stated as follows:

*"To be frank, I do not think it would be easy to consider a female domestic worker as one of the family members in the household because she is from a different family; our relationship with her is not like other family members who do not need any payment to do*

*chores in the home. Still, female domestics are here to give service and to collect their monthly salary as compensation from the family (relationship based on benefit). So, how could it be possible to consider them as family members? In addition, domestic workers act in their best interests; if they find a household that pays them more, they will quit at any time. Consequently, I wish to draw a line between our family and domestic workers without using any violent restraint. This is it."* (Interview from Hossan Town, Dec 2021).

The aforementioned account highlighted that the relationship between employers and employees cannot be compared to a family relationship; rather, it is a give-and-take relationship (based on personal interests) distinct from a family relationship. In a specific sense, the remuneration made to employees by their employers acts as a leverage point, preventing their connection from being family-like.

### **Bonds That Transcend Employment**

Despite many accounts of exclusion and conflict, there are also cases where employer-employee relationships evolve into something closer to familial bonds. Evidence from the field indicates that some employers do extend genuine care and inclusiveness toward their domestic workers. For example, one employer stated that domestic workers in their household receive the same treatment as the children during holidays, including gifts and involvement in family matters.

Another powerful story shared by a male employer highlights how a rural domestic worker was allowed to attend evening school, eventually completing her education and securing a government job. The employer remains close to her and her family even today, describing her as akin to a family member.

Of course, there is evidence that reveals the relationship between female domestic workers and employers could be intimate without any discrimination and outlook shown by the employers' family as their employee and/or outsider. The evidence from one of the interviewed employers revealed that female domestics are their family members as long as they live with the other family in the home. During holidays, for example, they bought clothes for the children in the home, and they bought for the female domestic workers as well. They considered their employees in necessary issues that allowed them to be involved in their perspectives.

Furthermore, pieces of evidence mentioned by the man's employer interviewed during the data collection is articulated as follows:

*"Around ten years ago, I knew a man (primary school teacher) who hired a rural female domestic worker in his home to give domestic service to the family. Sometimes, he permitted her to attend the adjacent school's evening session for schooling. She went to school, finished grade 10, and began taking four years of technical and vocational classes in the town's surveying department. After graduation, she got employed at a government agency, started her private life, and married. She is now considered a close friend or family member of the teacher, and even her child and husband pay frequent visits to the former employer. Employer-employee connections are permissible up to a point." (Interview from Hossan Town, Dec 2021).*

According to this story, the employer-employee relationship can get so intense that it is as if both parties are being sacrificed for the other. In addition to this, an employee gave a testimony about her sister who is found in UAE and worked for about six years. She articulated that

*My sister's employer in Ethiopia became an extended family during her six-year tenure. They treated her as a valued family member, showcasing their generosity during holidays by purchasing clothes for their children and including her without any discrimination. Remarkably, they diligently deposited her salary over six years and even took the initiative to construct a house for our family in a rural area. They also demonstrated a strong commitment to her education by sending her to school, where she progressed to grade 10. As an extraordinary gesture, they covered the expenses for her passport and travel costs, ensuring her journey to the Middle East. This support was provided voluntarily, and not a single coin was solicited from my family, emphasizing the employer's genuine kindness. The impetus for facilitating her journey to the Middle East was linked to their travel plans to the USA as a family.*

The story describes a highly positive and benevolent relationship between the sister and her employer in Ethiopia, transcending the conventional boundaries of employer-employee interactions. The employer's actions during holidays underscore the employer's generosity and the inclusive nature of their relationship. The paragraph further highlights the employer's exceptional commitment to diligently facilitating help to her family. These actions go beyond typical employment benefits, illustrating a genuine concern for the well-being and stability of the

sister's family. The strong commitment to education reflects a dedication to personal development and a recognition of the importance of education. The extraordinary gesture of covering expenses for travel signifies a level of support that goes beyond the norm, and it emphasizes the employer's authentic kindness. The narration conveys a profound story of generosity, care, and familial support in the employer-employee relationship. In general, the lack of compatibility between employers and employees and parental interference affects their relationship not to be "pleasant."

## **8.5. The Nature of Interaction Between Employers and Employees**

### **8.5.1. Master-Slave Relationship**

A relationship between a master and the person who serves them is called a "master/slave relationship" in the pre-modern era. This kind of relationship can exist, for example, between a king and his knight, a master and a maid, a queen and her follower, a boss and a subordinate, and so on (Hezser & Hezser, 2005). The servants should swear his unshakable loyalty and extreme obedience to their master in whatever situation. Further, their relations include being governed by exploitation and command and submission under the master's authority and intimacy. One of the components of the master-slave relationship is characterized by a mutual dependency: the master is dependent on the slave's loyalty and the slave is dependent on the master's maintenance and humane treatment of him. At the same time, enslaved people had to bow to their master's wishes under the constant threat of punishment due to the power dynamics (Snelgrove, 2021).

The employer-employee relationship and interaction in this study can be categorized under the master-slave kind of relationship. Specifically, employees' connection with employers was centered on the label "master," and they also had a limited form of communication that mainly consisted of following orders from superiors and refraining from speaking unless those superiors expressly permitted it. As employees underscored, if they reacted/replied to the command and/or anything from their employers ("masters"), their reaction is not considered correct; rather, it leads to some punishment such as physical punishment, beating, insulting (psychological aggression), and salary punishment (economic abuse) as well. But, the truth is that because of a wide range of factors out of their control, employees are more susceptible to being exploited by their employers and others. Due to this circumstance, their relationship was no longer one of mutual dependence but rather that of master and slave, operations and suppression.

One example about this situation is narrated by a female domestic worker who had to say:

*Four years ago, I worked as a domestic worker in the Hossana slum. I was about 17, and it was my second home. I did not know anyone and was new to homework. One day, I asked my employer, madam, to pay me the last deposited monthly salary to send to my family living in a rural area because it was summer and I wanted to buy agricultural equipment. She reacted very aggressively and insulted me. She thought that if I collected my monthly salary deposited with her, I would leave employment. Due to this, while I was preparing dinner for the family in the kitchen, she beat me and threw me into boiling water and I was burned. I cried loudly. Her husband gave me medication from home, and I stayed at home for a whole week without treatment for my burns until I ran away to tell the police what had happened and was taken to the hospital. However, nothing was done to them as a punishment; rather, they pressured me. Come and look at my hands; this is a scare of the boiled water. Thanks to God, I regained my strength a few months later with frightened hands and a frightened body.*

According to this story, the employer-employee relationship benefits from reciprocal dependency since employers have payments to make but little free time to relax because of their workload, schedule, health, and other factors. Employees have labor and time that employers need, and they lack resources that employers do have (money). Thus, mutual dependence should be the foundation of their connection. However, employees are alienated from the services they provide to their employers. They are not free to feed the food they prepared to the household; it is a luxury to sleep on the sheet they washed, it might be unthinkable to sit on the sofa they cleaned, it is not easy to access their monthly salary and sometimes it is not easy to use dishes they washed for the household. All this situation affects the relationship between employers and employees to be suspecting one another. Therefore, their relationship look like master slave type of interaction (Handbook, 2014; Anderson et al., 2016; Nayak, 2020).

### **8.5.2. Authority vs. Servility**

Another challenge for domestic workers is their authority-servility relationships with their employer's within a home, there are many centers of command. Specifically, multiple actors of authority and command influence the domestic workers in a single family. Evident to this, the narration of an employee revealed that within a home at a given time frame, commands may be more than two, such as a command from the madam, a command from the husband, and their elder son and/or daughter to perform an activity.

*"I once worked for an employer who gave all the family members (madam, husband, son, or daughter) one day to do tasks like laundry, shoe cleaning, and lunch preparation. Upon their turn, they all command me as they leave the house early in the morning. The fact that each command is different, just like each person's individual interests, can add to my daily workload and make certain tasks more challenging to complete quickly; instead, they must occasionally be completed one at a time. If it is not completed per their time without considering my workload, they criticize me rather than recognize my predicament. They have even physically abused and/or insulted me on occasion for failing to fulfill their interests.*

As indicated in the interview, the most usual authorized body in the household is the wife, husband, son, daughter, mother-in-law, and sister-in-law. Sometimes, due to their diverse interests and power dynamics within a home, they engage in conflict with one another, vent their resentment at her, and even beat her. Due to this power struggle, the work of domestic employees is precarious. This is why the relationship between employers and employees looks like an authority-servility type of relationship rather than based on mutual benefits. The authority-servility relationship may contribute to situations of abuse, harassment, or mistreatment, as domestic workers may fear retaliation or job loss if they speak out against unfair treatment. Domestic workers, especially live-in workers, may experience a lack of privacy due to their proximity to their employers. This can contribute to a sense of intrusion and limit their ability to establish personal boundaries. The constant power imbalance can lead to emotional and psychological stress for domestic workers. Fear of losing their job, constant surveillance, and mistreatment can take a toll on their mental well-being.

The authority-servility relationship between employers and domestic workers involves a complex interaction of power structures, cultural norms, and economic variables, resulting in the authority-servility dynamic. Being the ones that provide jobs, pay, and housing, employers are usually in a position of dominance in this relationship. The employer's view of their role in the home environment is affected by historical precedents and cultural expectations, which frequently serve to strengthen this authority.

On the other hand, domestic employees are placed in a subservient position and are accountable to their employers. This tension is exacerbated by the nature of domestic employment, which frequently entails private and intimate chores within the employer's home. The inherent power

imbalance can influence how tasks are assigned, wages are negotiated, and boundaries are established within the employer-domestic worker relationship. This was evident in the response from the interviewed female domestic workers stated as follows:

*“She (Madam) does not like to see when I change my clothes at home because she suspects that when I dress elegantly as a mechanism to deceive her husband, that is why my clothes are always closed in the closet, especially the husband and her stayed at home and/or he is at home. Therefore, the use of my own clothing is dependent on the goodwill of my employers, especially my madam.”*

This paragraph describes a situation where the respondent feels that their employer, referred to as "Madam," has suspicions and control over their behavior, particularly regarding their choice of clothing. The interviewee explains that Madam does not like it when they change clothes at home, as she believes it might be a way to attract or deceive her husband. She also indicates that their clothes are always kept in the closet, especially when Madam and her husband are at home or when he is present. This suggests suspicion or scrutiny regarding the speaker's attire, particularly in the husband's presence. Furthermore, the respondent mentions that their ability to use their clothing is contingent upon the goodwill of their employers, particularly Madam. This implies that the respondent may feel restricted or controlled in their personal choices, including what they wear, due to the dynamics of their employment relationship and the perceived suspicions of Madam. Overall, the response conveys a sense of surveillance, suspicion, and control within the domestic environment, particularly regarding the speaker's clothing choices and interactions with Madam and her husband.

Complain of the employers was as follows:

*"I do not allow my employee to use her mobile phone because if I allow her to do so, it will be a threat to my house and the possibility of theft will be very high. Not only that, but when employers allow mobile phone use, they spend time talking to someone outside the home and she will not do her homework. In addition, she made calls and communicated with friends of strangers in the middle of the night, disturbing my family. To communicate with my family, I have a non-mobile phone to take any message from her family and me when I go to work. Before beginning employment, all these preconditions were confirmed and I agreed not to use them. "*

The authority-servility dynamic's economic component is most noticeable in the interaction between employers and domestic workers (Boris & Fish, 2014). Employers that set the terms of employment have the power to impose restrictions on pay, work schedules, and job security. However, because they rely on their jobs, lack of other options for employment, and sometimes unstable immigration status, domestic workers may find themselves in a hazardous situation. This economic power dynamics may further sustain the authority-servility connection, since domestic workers may be forced to put up with harsh working circumstances. The fear of job loss or deportation can limit the ability of domestic workers to negotiate for fair treatment, contributing to the entrenchment of the authority-servility dynamic within the employment relationship.

Cultural and societal norms also play a crucial role in shaping the authority-servility relationship between employers and domestic workers. Gender roles, racial stereotypes, and class distinctions may intersect to reinforce traditional power structures. Employers may unconsciously draw on these societal expectations to justify their authority, while domestic workers may internalize these norms, affecting their perception of their place within the household. Breaking free from these entrenched patterns requires a nuanced understanding of how authority and servility are socially constructed, challenging stereotypes and fostering more equitable and respectful employer-domestic worker relationships. Addressing this dynamic necessitates not only legal and policy changes but also shifts in cultural attitudes and a commitment to recognizing domestic workers' inherent dignity and rights.

#### **8.6. Prerequisites and Criteria for Hiring Female Domestic Workers**

Employers' choices for domestic employees are not uniform; rather, they vary depending on their interests, income level, family type, number of members, and other aspects.

The majority of employers, however, agreed on the following concepts while hiring employees:

Table 17. Preference of Employers to Employee Female Domestic Workers by Employers

	Item	Freq	%		Freq	%
1	Less years of domestic work experience (working in different households) (Why)	4	66.6	Have better experience in domestic work (Why)	2	33.3
2	Unfamiliar with urban i.e. rural background (Why)	5	83.3	No problem to familiarity of urban (Why)	1	16.7
3	Primary school Attendee (Why)	3	50	More than primary attendance (Why)	3	50
4	Having no interest in pursuing education (Why)	6	100	Eager to continue their education (Why)	0	0
5	Younger than eighteen (Why)	5	83.3	Age is above 18 years (Why)	1	16.7

The majority of employers, however, agreed on the following issues:

#### **8.6.1. Preference for Less Experienced Domestic Work (working in different households):**

As depicted in the Table 6, more than half of the respondents were in line with preferring domestic workers who have less years of work experience in different households as domestic workers. As their aggregated reasons for this selection was related to employers' safety. Their main defense for requiring inexperienced domestic workers was that she would bring home numerous "unnecessary" experiences from her work for other employers. Additionally, they believe that DWS are molded by the households in which they previously worked, making it challenging to match their interests with those of the new employers. Therefore, hiring female domestic workers with "less" experience would be preferable. The employers interviewed did not share the same opinions or reactions. Since employees have experience in managing their responsibilities with the three Cs (caring, cooking, and cleaning) to the employers, it stands to reason that the work experience of the employees working in various families appears to be good.

#### **8.6.2. Newcomers (unfamiliar to urban i.e. rural background):**

The employers participated in the interviews revealed that the recently arrived females are unfamiliar with the town's surroundings. The majority brought up the benefits of recruiting immigrant females, including their low pay, ease of management, obedience, readiness to learn, and lack of interaction with outsiders. Nonetheless, a few employers did remember to mention how much money and effort they had to invest in training their employees on hygienic practices,

kitchen management, urban living, and personal cleanliness. Additionally, if they were not given training and demonstrations on handling electric equipment in the house, newly hired domestic workers occasionally set fire to it and damaged things. It would be preferable to hire domestic workers with prior job experience because of these costs. However, respondents who prefer employees who are familiar with urban lives argued that employing such domestic worker has many disadvantages such as giving training about how to use kitchen materials, hygiene, communication, cooking and others. These all demands time to train and instruct. Therefore, it would be advantages to employee domestic worker who previously worked in other's household.

### **8.6.3. Primary school Attendee (Lower Grade School attendants):**

In terms of educational background, in most cases, employers feel uncomfortable hiring domestic workers who have completed secondary, preparatory, TVET or University education. The main argument against them was about their privacy and security. Specifically, they pointed out that domestic workers who have completed secondary or higher education create many problems against employers and in the household when working at home, such as disobedience, rude manner, impolite character, lack of disciplined manner behavior towards employers, claiming to leave home without other family members, and the mistreatment of children and even fighting with other family members (sons or daughters of the family). In addition, they interact with external agencies and are suspected of stealing household items. Therefore, as stated in the Table 6, out of concern for family safety, half of the respondents did not feel comfortable hiring domestic workers with a college degree.

### **8.6.4. Having No Interest in Pursuing Education**

Employers may reject female domestic workers who desire to pursue their education. Employers consider how their employees could manage family chores as effectively as feasible if they are interested in attending school. Also, female domestic employees may attend evening classes, are exposed to abuse, and have the potential to steal items by contacting acquaintances outside. Thus, employers do not want their employees to attend school. With rare exceptions, some employers have ultimately rejected this idea. If they are not permitted to enroll in school, whether for daytime or evening sessions, the future of this social group (domestic workers) may be jeopardized and in danger.

In line with this argument, one of the interviewed employers stated:

*"After all, the domestic worker is employed to do the homework (household works), but not to send them to school. I am not obliged to send her to school. Besides, I don't want to take the risk of evening classes, including the risk of safety and possible troubles against herself (sexual relations with classmates) which has serious consequences to me as an employer. Besides, I hired them to do the homework my daughters cannot do because of school. For this reason, I am not responsible for sending them to school, and from the very beginning I do not hire a domestic worker who wants to go to school."*

In this corner, some employers refuse to recruit domestic workers who want to attend school. The results of this study indicate that their employers denied a significant number of female domestic workers in the studied area access to education. This clearly violates their human rights, as education is a fundamental right for all individuals, regardless of their occupation or social status. Studies have shown that access to education is crucial for empowering women, protecting them from exploitation and abuse, and promoting human rights and democracy (Willems & Vernimmen, 2018). However, the lack of support from employers has resulted in a significant number of these workers being denied this right.

#### **8.6.5. Age less than 18:**

All respondents (employers) agreed upon this point. Of course, it is related to the above-stated points. Employers often set age as a precondition for hiring domestic workers, i.e., younger domestic workers (age under 18) are often preferred by employers to hire. Hiring female domestic workers below the age of 18 has many advantages for the employers, such as the fact that the wage is not expensive, they are totally obedient to the employers, there is no threat of privacy or insecurity, it is not challenging to let them have children, and they are ready to learn. But in the case of domestic workers who exceed the age of 18, employers are not comfortable hiring them because they have some awareness of their rights to claim, they are not easily manipulated and controlled by the employers, and they may not be "obedient" to the employers' orders to do what they have been told to do in the home. This indicates a tendency of child labor exploitation by employers whether deliberately or not. Most employers are aware of the minimum age for hiring domestic workers. Despite their knowledge of labor laws, they still prefer to hire underage employees to work as domestic workers in their homes. The findings of this study are consistent with those of Erulkar (2022), and Nazir, (2011) who revealed that young

people are more mobile than other social groups, and they prefer domestic work as a preferred form of employment to be involved and are not resistant to or react negatively to their employers.

### **8.7. Conflicts between Employers and Employees**

Depending on the nature of the relationship between the employer and employee, as well as the type of work, there are a variety of circumstances that can lead to conflict in the workplace between employers and workers. Regardless of how much the disagreement varies, conflict between employers and domestic workers is frequent and unavoidable. Some of the following conflict-generating elements were identified by both employers and employees in the research region. These include bullying and harassment, bad work atmosphere, poor communication, unjust treatment, and poor management. Every employee has wants and expectations at work, and when those needs and expectations are not satisfied or are being disregarded, conflict may occur. Moreover, bosses who establish unreasonable expectations or disregard workers' needs can create conflict at work. Generally, the source of conflict between the two parties and their perspective on the conflict are different.

#### **Employers' Perspectives**

- Absence of Skill and poor management
- Life skill, Kitchen management, food preparation and material handling, dissatisfaction in their performance
- Relation with brokers (some employees create contact with brokers to abscond their employment)
- Disobedience (failure to follow the order of the employer, inappropriate reaction and response, improper behavior, intentional sabotage of materials, long phone conversations with outsiders)
- Suspicion of physical seducing/entice, and dressing type, chat with husband
- Social interaction and relationship
- Phone usage/Mobile telephone
- Lack of interest for the work
- Personal hygiene and sanitation problem

#### **Employees' Perspectives**

- Workload (unable to finish work given per day; overload without any compensation)

- Salary control and unwillingness to pay on time
- Strictness and rigidity of the employers (considering employees as scapegoats for everything that happens in the home), not understanding that employees are tired of the workload
- Underestimating attitude and calling derogatory names
- Reaction of Children towards employees
- Privacy (personal issues)
- Dehumanizing, underestimating, overlooking, and disgracing attitude, intervention on personal and private issues
- laughing at their employees when their children beat/insult employees

### **8.8. The way of Conflict Handling Mechanism**

Conflict is common among people who live together, work together for the same goal, and so on. But, the way parties manage the conflict is the most despicable issue to be addressed. In this case, the way that employees would follow to resolve conflict between themselves and their employers (Irumba, 2020). Study participants reflected on different ways that they suppose it is a mechanism to resolve the problem. One of the female domestic workers interviewed reported as follows:

*"Conflict is a part of the lives of domestic workers while they are living with their employers. When a conflict arises, the only thing I can do is remain silent because if I react in the same tone as madam/others, they will beat me and fire me within an hour. Even sometimes they punished me by holding food in addition to physical abuse."*

On the other hand, other interviews were reported.

*"Conflict is caused between employers (most of the time with Madame) and employees due to their extreme interests. After the conflict, they punished me by keeping their silence, ignoring me, laughing at me, rejecting me, and in other ways. They do not give me a chance to discuss because they underestimate and undervalue me and even nagging towards me. I have no power to reply to their reaction because I am from a poor family and I have no one to tell on my behalf."*

The majority of the interviewed migrant female domestic workers underscored that sudden termination of employment without any precaution was the way that employers responded when conflict arose between employees and employers. This is the main challenge that female domestic workers face when conflict arises.

The aforementioned employees claim that employers are not willing to negotiate a resolution to the issue; instead, they prefer to abruptly terminate the employment contracts. Because of how they view domestic workers, it might not be suitable for them to address issues like positionality and authority-servility that have been raised here. These concepts are unquestionably essential and demanding for employers because employee cannot discuss with their employers due to their positional difference. Some employers might feel that sitting down and discussing a tough issue with one of their employees is unethical and dishonorable.

The points of view of the employers about conflict management were reported in several dimensions based on their readiness and the "manner" of the employees. Some of the interviewed employers claimed that they resolve disputes between workers and other family members, including themselves. They like to give advice to their employees not to bring up the same problem that brought them into disagreement. Other respondents, on the other hand, did not agree with this point (advising their employees), and instead, based on the seriousness of the conflict, they chose different methods. Interviewed women employer disclosed about conflict management as follows:

*"In essence, conflict will occur when employees choose to quit their employment, not over common issues. The most typical way for workers to leave is in this manner. She won't be ready to improve due to her intent and motive, even if I give her advice on how to prevent such issues in her environment. Personally, I don't let them stay at my house when a conflict breaks out because if I let them stay there after the dispute, they might attack the family, destroy dishes, steal things, and sabotage. As a result, I forbid them from staying in the house after a conflict (Interviewee in Hossana, Dec 2021)."*

This shows that conflict itself may have occurred because of the intent of employees i.e. employees use this as a mechanism to shift from one home to another and/or to terminate the work. Therefore, conflict management ways are not effective and efficient as long as they are in this motive.

On the other hand, other respondents replied that

*"People frequently face conflict for a variety of reasons. In the case of an employer-employee relationship, both parties may accentuate their own interests in respecting and occasionally imposing on one another. Conflict could arise when someone is unable to handle and manage his/her responsibilities. It's simple to resolve this kind of*

*argument and get the relationship back to how it was. However, the majority of the time, as an employer, we are not prepared to address the issue and instead choose to utilize coercive techniques (beating) and overburden them with tasks as a means of control. On the other hand, employees are also not willing to be advised, especially when their monthly salary has been deposited and the amount is increased. Therefore, letting them stay in the home may result in problems in the family (Interviewed employer in Hossan town, Dec 2021). "*

This also emphasizes that the relationship between both parties is based on their mutual interests, and when one party is not satisfied by the other, conflict occurs, which is the best way to terminate their relationship. Generally, the post-conflict management mechanism between employers and employees, as reported, was very poor. Further, both parties are not open to resolving the problem to keep their relationship as strong as before. Due to this, the reported ways of conflict mechanisms were physical attack, punishment, absconding, and sudden firing.

#### **8.10. Discussion**

The reasons for hiring domestic workers vary depending on the employer's context and living circumstances. Employers cited employment access for women, and family size as reasons for hiring domestic workers. Single men and women are less likely to hire live-in domestic servants. In essence, the finding captures a debate within the community regarding the role of the wife's employment status in influencing the decision to hire domestic workers. While some view it as a crucial determinant, others challenge its significance, emphasizing additional considerations and potential drawbacks associated with employing domestic workers beyond the employment status of the wife. Gloria (2020) asserts that, depending on their goal and desire, employers seek domestic servants for various reasons. First, make their lives easy by handling household duties, including cleaning, cooking, caring and other tasks. Second is the need for emotional support and companionship for the family as a whole and for those members who do not participate in much social engagement. However, in this study at hand, this was not a reason for hiring domestic workers. The third comes from the employee's viewpoint, i.e., employing domestic workers can assist in empowering women who might not have access to formal employment alternatives.

This study examines the impact of intermediaries on the employer-female domestic worker relationship. Employers have multiple means of contacting domestic workers, including friends, relatives, and intermediaries, resonate with the finding of other studies (Busza et al., 2017). The

trust established through these intermediaries greatly affects the dynamics of the post-employment relationship. Employer and employee preferences for intermediaries vary depending on their personal experiences. For some, parents serve as the preferred intermediaries due to safety considerations. The familiarity and traceability of workers through their parents offer a sense of security, particularly in situations involving conflicts or suspicions of theft. This aligns with the existing literature, which emphasizes the significance of trust and safety in domestic work arrangements (Busza & Zimmerman, 2022).

However, there is not a unanimous agreement among employers regarding the preference for parents to serve as intermediaries. Some argue that parents may exert pressure on domestic workers to switch employers in pursuit of higher salaries, which could potentially lead to conflicts of interest. Nonetheless, numerous female domestic workers express a desire for their parents' involvement, as they believe it nurtures positive relationships and safeguards them against mistreatment. The participation of parents is perceived as a means to ensure the safety and protection of both employers and employees.

The role of brokers, both licensed and unlicensed, is also examined in this study. It is found that a majority of female domestic workers prefer to work with unlicensed brokers. They cite reasons such as reasonable commission fees, transparency in providing background information, and the absence of pressure to switch jobs. Employers also share this preference, as they believe that working with unlicensed brokers leads to smoother relationships and better understanding between them and their employees. The involvement of unlicensed brokers is seen as a crucial factor in building trust, fostering confidence, and promoting positive working relationships. This is in contrast to the perceived negative impact of licensed brokers on the employer-employee dynamic. These findings align with the Joanna and Zewudhne (2022) which highlight the importance of selecting the right intermediaries in shaping the nature of relationships in the domestic labor market.

Regarding the work conditions, the findings highlight significant disparities in the employer-employee relationship within the context of female domestic workers. Employers believe that workloads are manageable. However, female domestic workers consistently express feeling overwhelmed. The contrasting perceptions of workload raise concerns regarding fairness and the well-being of employees. This is consistent with previous research, which states the difficulties posed by long working hours in the domestic work industry (Elsa, 2011; Felleke, 2007;

Getachewu, 2006; Mulugeta & Makonnen, 2017). Due to the power imbalance that exists, domestic workers find themselves in a vulnerable position, where their well-being is compromised in favor of their employers' convenience. This vulnerability originates from their economic dependence on employers and the lack of bargaining power they possess.

Employers exert significant control over the time off of domestic workers, which not only restricts their freedom but also highlights the absence of standardized rights and leave policies as outlined in the ILO Domestic Workers Convention No. 189. This control over domestic workers' time off underscores their vulnerability, as they heavily depend on their employers. Moreover, this unequal power dynamic can lead to exploitation. The lack of standardized rights further exacerbates the vulnerability of domestic workers, as they are subject to the arbitrary decisions of their employers. The absence of clear job descriptions exposes domestic workers to exploitation, as it allows for arbitrary task assignments and mistreatment. On the other hand, domestic workers face particular challenges with regards to remuneration, as wage manipulation and impulsive deductions put them in precarious financial situations and worsen their vulnerability. This aligns with the findings of Kidist (2012), which state that the remuneration of domestic workers is determined solely by the goodwill of employers, rather than being determined by the employees themselves. These concerns echo those raised by labor rights advocates who are fighting against the global economic exploitation of domestic workers.

The study also addressed discriminatory practices in providing food and sleeping conditions for domestic workers. It emphasized the potential consequences of inadequate food provision, such as hunger among domestic workers. Hunger is an essential and urgent human need, underscoring the severity of their challenges in obtaining necessities. The mention of discriminatory practices in food provision suggests unequal or biased treatment of domestic workers in terms of receiving proper sustenance. This raises ethical concerns and exposes female domestic workers to various vulnerabilities. The reference to instances of hunger serves as a reminder of the economic and social fragility domestic workers face. This situation goes beyond employment concerns; it is related to human rights violations and social injustice. Previous literature by Mekonnen and Kidist (2012; 2014) has highlighted the challenges of food provision and insufficient nutrition in domestic work. The sleeping conditions for domestic workers were a focal point in the discussion of working conditions, highlighting their lack of privacy and exposure to potential harassment. The mention of extreme conditions indicates an undesirable and potentially harmful environment.

These factors not only impact the physical well-being of the workers but also take a toll on their emotional well-being. The term "vulnerabilities" underscores the precarious nature of the situation, suggesting that domestic workers are at risk of harm or mistreatment due to inadequate sleeping conditions. The finding connects this concern to global discussions on improving living conditions and protecting the rights of domestic workers, suggesting that inadequate sleeping conditions are part of a larger pattern of challenges domestic workers face worldwide (ILO, 2013a).

The findings reveal that employers have differing opinions on whether domestic workers should be considered part of the family. This perception of domestic workers as either family members or commodities reflects deeper societal attitudes and norms towards domestic work and workers. As mentioned, society does not recognize domestic work as a profession, and domestic workers are not considered individuals with their own profession. Furthermore, it is seen as an undesirable form of employment, leading to derogatory names being given to this group. Recognizing the conflicts stemming from these divergent views on the employer-employee relationship suggests that this issue is not solely a matter of personal preference but extends to broader discussions on how domestic workers should be perceived and treated within the employment context. These differing perspectives also highlight power dynamics and cultural expectations within the employer-employee relationship. The significance of this vulnerability lies in the fact that when domestic workers are seen as commodities rather than individuals with rights, there is a greater risk of exploitation. This vulnerability is rooted in the lack of recognition of domestic workers' agency, dignity, and rights. This finding is consistent with other literature which states that the attitude of the society towards domestic workers are not desirable and they are less considered even by the policy (Dessiye, 2011; Gebremedhin, 2016).

The Finding also analyzes the employer-employee relationship, explicitly focusing on domestic workers. The central theme revolves around the vulnerability of domestic workers, highlighting a power dynamic reminiscent of an authority-servility relationship with minimal communication, rejection, and mistreatment. The comparison to a master-slave dynamic underscores the one-sided power structure in this situation. The Finding also depicted that the established prerequisites set by employers are portrayed as a contributing factor that increases the vulnerability of domestic workers. Vulnerability, particularly impacting specific socioeconomic groups in the labor market. The Finding indicates that the current conditions for domestic

workers do not align with the principles of fairness and equity which the ILO states. Understanding and addressing the structural issues leading to exploitation requires recognizing vulnerability as a crucial concept. Overall, the Finding reveals how critical it is to examine the power dynamics and structural inequalities within the employer-employee relationship, particularly in the context of domestic work.

## CHAPTER NINE

### 9. INDICATORS OF THE VULNERABILITY OF FEMALE DOMESTIC WORKERS

This theme highlights indicators of vulnerability of female domestic workers in the study area. Measuring vulnerability involves assessing various factors contributing to an individual or group's susceptibility to harm, exploitation, or adverse outcomes (Hass et al., 2000). While vulnerability can be subjective and multifaceted, several methods and indicators can help quantify and understand vulnerability levels such as Physical, psychological, social, economic and sexual violence (Cutter, 2011).

#### 9.1. Economic Abuse

Economic abuse is a tactic designed by the abuser to control or restrict common or personal property or to limit the victim's current or future income (Stylianou, 2018). In the case of domestic workers, the abusers may be employers, brokers, parents, and other individuals who have direct and/or indirect contact with domestic workers.

#### 9.3.1. Frequency of Salary Collection and Delay (Patterns of salary payments)

With the exception of one-third of those who got monthly payments, Table 18 shows that the majority of respondents did not get the payment by the conditions that were agreed upon. A few participants got a salary only after deciding to terminate their work. Unless employees want to deposit their salary with the employers, employers are required by written or verbal contract to pay monthly salaries.

Table 18. Distribution of response on frequency of salary payment.

Item		Frequency	Percent
Frequency of salary payment	Monthly	42	32.3
	Once in a year	2	1.5
	When I quit my job, or up on the termination of contract	26	20.0
	Occasionally/infrequently whenever I need it	23	17.7

	I do not know	37	28.5
	Total	130	100.0
Salary paid at the fixed regular time interval without any delay.	Yes	39	41.9
	No	54	58.1
	Total	93	100
If not, what was the main reason for delay?	Due to their refusal to pay on time	13	24.1
	To keep me stay as long as they wish as a controlling mechanism	25	42.3
	To prevent me spending the money on what they believe is “unnecessary” items (clothes)	9	16.6
	I do not know	7	12.9
	Total	54	100

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

From a labor theory perspective, the delayed payment of salaries to female domestic workers reflects a power dynamic that overwhelmingly favors employers and perpetuates economic exploitation. Although employers provide varying reasons for these delays, they collectively underscore the lack of control that female domestic workers have over their wages. The fact that 42.3% of respondents reported such delays as a means of exerting control over their employees suggests a coercive strategy employed by employers. This strategy aims to assert power over workers, rendering them more dependent on the employer's favor and less inclined to assert their rights or seek alternative employment. Within the framework of labor theory, this power dynamic aligns with the notion that employers who possess control over the wages means of production hold a significant advantage over workers.

The imbalance in the employer-employee relationship is exemplified by the 24.1% of respondents who believe that payment delays are due to employers refusing to follow a fixed payment schedule. When employers fail to pay on time, it reduces the bargaining power of

domestic workers and makes them vulnerable to economic exploitation. This situation aligns with labor theory, highlighting the inherent conflict between employers seeking to satisfy their interest and workers seeking fair compensation for their labor. Additionally, the argument made by 16.6% of respondents that payment delays are intentional and aimed at saving money for employers raises concerns about the voluntary nature of these arrangements. While some may perceive it as a benevolent act, the power dynamics within the employment relationship can limit workers' ability to manage their wages. From a labor theory perspective, this highlights the structural inequality in the distribution of economic power between the two parties, employer and employees.

### 9.3.2. Freedom to Deposit Salary and Use Personal Properties

The condition of the freedom of the female domestic workers to use their pay as an interest and the freedom to deposit their pay in the bank were the areas covered in this sub theme. Aware of that 37.7% and 20% of respondents were never or rarely free to use their payment for their interest and need respectively. On the other hand, the state of freedom to deposit their monthly salary, 3.8% and 18.5% of respondents were always and often free to deposit their salary respectively. This implies that female domestic workers were not free to pay their own wages for their interest; and they were not free to deposit their income as they wished unless their employers allowed them to do so.

Table 19. Distribution of response on freedom to use their salary

Item		Frequency	Percent
The state of freedom to salary as your need and/or interest	Never	49	37.7
	Rarely	26	20.0
	Undecided	4	3.1
	Often	26	20.0
	Always	25	19.2
	Total	130	100.0
The state of freedom to deposit monthly salary	Never	45	34.6
	Rarely	43	33.1

Undecided	13	10.0
Often	24	18.5
Always	5	3.8
Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

Economic abuse is not only about financial violence in controlling the money by employers but also the materials and properties owned by the employees. Unlike the above premises, one of the interviewed female domestic workers stated as follows:

*“She (Madam) does not like to see when I change my clothes at home because she suspects that when I dress elegantly as a mechanism to deceive her husband, that is why my clothes are always closed in the closet, especially when the husband and she stay at home . Therefore, the use of my own clothing depends on the goodwill of my employers, especially my madam (a 23 years old female domestic workers interviewed in Alemu W/Hana school, Dec 2021).”*

The text suggests a complex power dynamic and a lack of autonomy for the domestic worker. The statement indicates that the employer, particularly the madam, perceives the worker's attire as a potential threat to her marital fidelity. This suspicion reflects underlying trust issues and perhaps insecurity within the employer's relationship. The domestic worker's inability to freely choose their clothing due to the employer's suspicions underscores a lack of personal dignity in their role. It also underlined how the worker's actions and even personal choices are subject to the employer's approval and scrutiny, indicating an unequal power dynamic and potential exploitation within the household.

Restrictions of using mobile phones is another domestic workers' concern of lack of freedom to use their properties. Complaint of an employer was as follows:

*"I do not allow my employee to use her mobile phone because if I allow her to do so, it will threaten my household, increasing the possibility of theft. Furthermore, when employees are permitted to use mobile phones, they often spend time conversing with individuals outside the home rather than focusing on their responsibilities. Additionally,*

*she has been known to make calls and communicate with strangers or friends in the middle of the night, which disturbs my family. I have provided a landline telephone for messages from her family and to facilitate communication with my family and me when we are outside. Before entering into the employment contract, both parties discussed and agreed upon these conditions. "*

When examining the experiences of female domestic workers and their employers, labor theory helps to shed light on the power dynamics and limitations that impact the workers' personal lives. One example is the restriction on clothing use, which suggests that these workers have limited autonomy and control over their choices. Additionally, their reliance on the goodwill of their employers, specifically the madam of the house, highlights a power dynamic in which the employer holds authority over the workers' personal lives. This reflects a type of economic coercion. Viewing this situation through the lens of labor theory emphasizes the unequal power relations within the employer-employee relationship, extending the employer's control beyond just the workplace and into the workers' personal lives. The employers' complaints about mobile phone usage of domestic workers reveal the restrictive conditions imposed by employers. Specifically, the focus on the origin of domestic workers, particularly those from rural areas, shows a class-based bias that influences the employers' perceptions of elegance and style. This bias leads to employers' dissatisfaction and connects the workers' appearance to their role in food preparation for the family. While the prohibition of mobile phone use is necessary for maintaining security and discipline within the household, it also serves as a method of control that limits the personal freedoms of domestic workers. In terms of labor theory, these restrictions represent employers' broader control over workers' lives, extending beyond the workplace and into their personal affairs. The narrative indicates that domestic workers are bound and restricted, highlighting employers' control over their personal lives.

### **9.3.5. Deduction of Payment for Broken Materials**

Table 20 shows deductions from the wages paid by domestic workers for materials broken in the workplace. 30.8% of respondents said they never deducted for materials broken in the workplace. However, 12.3% and 25.4% were deducted for broken materials always and often respectively.

Table 20. Distribution of response on deduction of payment for broken materials and absent from work

Item		Frequency	Percent
Deduction of payment for material broken while working	Never	40	30.8
	Rarely	20	15.4
	Undecided	21	16.2
	Often	33	25.4
	Always	16	12.3
	Total	130	100.0
Absent from work is calculated to deduct payment	Never	20	15.4
	Rarely	25	19.2
	Undecided	49	37.7
	Often	24	18.5
	Always	12	9.2
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

As previously discussed in earlier chapters, certain employers contend that instances of material destruction, which they refer to as sabotage, signal an employee's desire to terminate their employment. Occasionally, employees may even damage costly materials belonging to the employer. Hence, it is neither logical nor economically viable for employers to allow such actions without repercussions. Consequently, employers may be obligated to deduct portions of their employees' monthly salaries.

## 9.2. Sexual Violence and Instances of Attempted Rape

The concept of sexual violence is any act perpetrated against a female domestic worker's will and is based on gender norms and unequal power relationships. Postmus (2020) argued that sexual harassment occurs when an offender initiates unwelcome sexual attempts, requests a sexual favor, or commits other inappropriate behavior of a sexual nature toward another person. Various forms of sexual violence, such as sexual assault, rape, and incest, are prevalent among the respondents. Table 21 reveals that attempted rape incidents frequently occur, as documented. Instances of sexual assault, which encompass threats of sexual intercourse and the use of vulgar and obscene language, are notably pervasive. Respondents frequently experience these forms of

sexual violence while they are employed in their employers' residences. Compounding the issue, victims often find themselves situated within the employer's home environment, rendering them uncertain about whom to report such acts of violence to.

Table 21. Distribution of Response to sexual violence of DW

Item		Frequency	Percent
Attempts of Rape	Never	35	26.9
	Rarely	33	25.4
	Undecided	20	15.4
	Often	39	30.0
	Always	3	2.3
	Total	130	100.0
Touches my private parts	Never	10	7.7
	Rarely	23	17.7
	Undecided	27	20.8
	Often	51	39.2
	Always	19	14.6
	Total	130	100.0
Threaten me of sexual intercourse	Never	10	7.7
	Rarely	23	17.7
	Undecided	27	20.8
	Often	51	39.2
	Always	19	14.6
	Total	130	100.0
Vulgar and obscene language	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	26	20.0
	Undecided	27	20.8

	Often	56	43.1
	Always	15	11.5
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

Rape is used interchangeably with sexual assault which is a form of sexual penetration of taking place against a person, who is incapable/ powerless to protect oneself, without that person's consent by using physical force, coercion, and abuse of authority (WHO Organization, 2019).

One of the interviewed female domestic workers revealed as follows:

*“I was the victim of attempted rape by an employer years ago. He (husband) would consistently pressure me to have sex with him whenever the madam was out of town. One day, he forcefully attempted to rape me in the house. Fortunately, someone knocked on the door and called out to him, allowing me to escape. It felt like a miracle from God, Saint Mary. Following the incident, he threatened me, warning me that if I told anyone, he would kill me. The next day, I left the house without any conditions (A female domestic worker interviewed at water point).”*

Other female domestic workers replied as follows:

*“In my experience working as a domestic worker, I have never experienced an attempted rape, but I am usually sexually assaulted on the job by someone who lives with employers and sometimes by employers themselves and children of employers as well. They used vulgar language that is uncomfortable to hear because it is a completely offensive insult that is not said in my rural community where I belong (a 19 years old female domestic worker interviewed at Hossan, Dec 2021).”*

The first text reveals a harrowing account of attempted rape and subsequent threats made by an employer against a domestic worker. It highlights the vulnerability of domestic workers, especially in situations where power dynamics are skewed in favor of the employer. The perpetrator not only attempted to violate the victim physically but also instilled fear through threats of violence, demonstrating a gross abuse of power and a lack of regard for the victim's well-being. The fact that she felt compelled to leave her employment without any conditions suggests the gravity of the situation and the absence of adequate support mechanisms for victims of sexual violence in the workplace.

The response from other female domestic workers sheds light on the prevalence of sexual harassment and assault within the domestic work sector. While they may not have experienced attempted rape, they are subjected to various forms of sexual misconduct, including vulgar language and unwanted advances, often perpetrated by individuals living with or related to their employers. The discomfort and offense caused by such behavior highlight the hostile work environments many domestic workers endure, further exacerbated by the cultural and social dynamics at play. Overall, these texts underscore that the absence of protection and support for domestic workers, as well as the system, is not favorable to addressing the root causes of sexual violence and harassment in the workplace. It also underscored the lack of empowering victims to speak out and seek justice without fear of reprisal or harm.

The experience of the domestic workers regarding rape was forward for the key informants because they could have access to know about it. Culturally taboo to disclose rape experience, even within a family, in the community and there is very little of a society that encourages this to be token. This was the rationale behind the questions pertaining to other key informants about this kind of violence.

In contrast to this, one of the interviewed employers (madam) responded as follows:

*“Sexual attempts against domestic workers may sometimes occur, but the possibility is rare because the physical appearance of domestic workers is not that attractive. For this reason, males may not want to rape them unless there is someone outside the house, such as shoe polishers, day laborers, and sometimes other school or hotel guards. In rare cases, some domestic workers begin to wear shorts and do other chores in front of their male employers or in front of someone with whom they are staying at home. This is a common type of scene for domestic workers while they are at home. Therefore, the generalization that employers are the perpetrators of sexual violence against domestic workers is not convincing but must be balanced (a Women employer interviewed in Hossan town, Dec 2021).”*

The above narrated text appears to downplay the prevalence of sexual violence against domestic workers based on their perceived physical appearance. It suggests that because domestic workers may not fit specific “standards” of attractiveness, the likelihood of them being targets of sexual assault is low. Additionally, it implies that perpetrators of sexual violence are more likely to be

individuals outside the household, such as shoe polishers or day laborers. Furthermore, it acknowledges that some domestic workers may be responsible for the sexual abuse due to their personal traits. The narration concludes by cautioning against generalizing employers as the primary perpetrators of sexual violence against domestic workers, suggesting that the issue must be approached with balance. However, this interpretation fails to recognize the gravity of the issue and the power dynamics at play within the employer-domestic worker relationship. It minimizes the experiences of domestic workers who have been victims of sexual violence and overlooks the broader systemic issues that contribute to their vulnerability in the workplace. It's essential to reject such narratives that normalize or justify sexual violence against any individual, regardless of their appearance or circumstances.

One of the brokers (women) who were interviewed during the data collection disclosed as follows:

*"From my understanding, reports of rape among domestic workers are uncommon, even if it has occurred. Being a woman, they confide in me about their experiences. There are isolated cases of rape perpetrated by employers, relatives, or other individuals within the household where they work. Many domestic workers come from rural backgrounds and are unfamiliar with city life. They often feel ashamed and hesitant to disclose any form of violence or identify the perpetrator. Moreover, perpetrators often threaten them with harm if they speak out, causing them to suffer in silence out of fear. This silence leads to depression and an inability to carry out their usual tasks, which in turn leads to dissatisfaction from their employers, who then dismiss them or send them back to brokers. Additionally, some domestic workers have become pregnant while employed and were subsequently fired by their employers. They were left to deal with pregnancy and childbirth alone. I have assisted numerous victims, covering their hospital expenses and providing treatment for three consecutive months. This support extended to more than six domestic workers, some of whose children now reside with me. In many cases, perpetrators refuse to provide support during the pregnancy, may even treat the victims harshly, and sometimes they hide themselves. Sometimes, the support from the government is not welcoming and supportive. Moreover, the victims lack knowledge about contraception methods to protect themselves from unwanted pregnancies. They are*

*in a vulnerable position and are unable to safeguard themselves adequately (a women Licensed broker interviewed in Hossan town, Dec, 2021 ."*

The text sheds light on the under-reported and complex issue of sexual violence against domestic workers, mainly focusing on the intersection of gender, power dynamics, and socioeconomic factors. Despite the prevalence of such violence, reports of rape among domestic workers are uncommon due to various barriers they face, including fear of retaliation, social stigma, and lack of awareness about available support services. The text highlights the vulnerability of domestic workers, many of whom come from rural backgrounds and lack familiarity with urban environments. Their reluctance to disclose incidents of violence stems from feelings of shame and fear of repercussions from perpetrators. Perpetrators often exploit this vulnerability by threatening victims with harm, further silencing them and perpetuating a cycle of abuse and silence.

Furthermore, the text underscores the lack of support and resources available to domestic workers, both from their employers and governmental agencies. Domestic workers who become pregnant while employed often face dismissal and abandonment, exacerbating their vulnerability and isolation. The absence of comprehensive reproductive health education leaves them ill-equipped to make informed decisions about contraception and reproductive health.

The above narration was supported by other key-informant from Hossana Town Police. The police officers disclosed that infants abandoned around the town are becoming more common. As their evidence, the source of the problem is different and the participants in this act are girls from several social settings like waiter, domestic workers, college and high school students. (Photos of children abandoned who dweller with women brokers at different age levels are annexed).

Another case was elucidated by the women broker communicated in her office regarding the rape and pregnancy committed against her customers, domestic workers narrated as follows:

*"I am aware of a case that occurred in this town two years ago. A girl from a rural area began working in a household where a family of five and two relatives resided in. I am not sure, but she stayed in household for about two years. The male employer repeatedly pressured her to have in sexual intercourse, which she consistently refused. One day, while he was home with a headache and the other household members were absent, he used this opportunity to coerce her, wielding his authority and threatening her with a gun.*

*Consequently, she was raped by her employer, who warned her against disclosing the incident to anyone, both inside and outside the house, under the threat of consequences. He also hinted at framing her for theft if she spoke out. Consequently, she found it increasingly difficult to perform her duties, leading the madam to threaten her violently. Eventually, she decided to leave the household after enduring a month of abuse. However, she became pregnant as a result of the assault. Subsequently, the employer sought her out through the broker after she had left the household, arranging for an abortion at no cost to her. The broker, involved in the scheme, promised to cover the financial expenses for the procedure but hinted at potential consequences if she refused to comply. Ultimately, she stayed with me for about ten days for psychological safety before relocating to another city. However, she chose not to disclose the identity of the employer and broker. Unfortunately, I am unaware of her current whereabouts and circumstances (Licensed broker interview in Hossan town, Dec 2021).”*

This distressing story demonstrates the challenges that female domestic workers face and highlights the significant power imbalance in the employer-employee relationship. The experience of the domestic worker exemplifies her vulnerability to sexual violence from her male employer, who abused his position by pressuring her for sex, using coercion, and threatening her with a gun. The perpetrator also employed tactics to silence her, offering incentives or threatening to frame her as a thief if she spoke out about the abuse. The victim's inability to carry out her duties resulted in warnings and, ultimately, her departure, shining a light on the economic insecurity that often forces domestic workers to endure exploitation. The subsequent pregnancy further emphasizes the multiple risks faced by these vulnerable workers, as the employer, with the help of intermediaries, attempted to control the situation by pressuring the victim to have an abortion. The victim's decision to escape for her psychological well-being underscores the broader impact of such traumatic experiences.

One government employee interviewed described a case of rape and pregnancy of domestic workers as follows:

*“Most of the time, sexual harassment is committed in the home of the employers, which may not be by employers but by someone living with employers. I know one story happened here (Hossana town). In one of our friend's homes, there was a brother of a madam living with them for about four years and unemployed. He has no business, only*

*supporting them by escorting students to and from school. He made a long period of adjustment for sexual harassment against female domestic workers in the home. One day, his employers went to a rural area to visit their parents, and he used this time to rape her and he did it. He warned her not to tell anyone in the house. But she told her employers when they got back. But something foreseeable happened in the house; namely, both employers got into a dispute. The male employer is standing next to her, the victim, but the wife is standing next to him, the rapist, but the assailant has left the house. This created the house as a very dangerous battlefield. The madam asked the victim to leave the home, but the husband told the victim to stay in their house until he ordered her to leave. Their house was in turmoil. Finally, without informing her employer, she decided to leave their home and suffered from the pregnancy. Since she came from a rural area, she had no idea about contraception. As a result, she even left the city and hid somewhere with her child. After long suffering, she fled to Addis Ababa and, on the main road, was engaged in begging people with her child. The family has been divorced (An employer interviewed in Hossan town.)”*

This narrative reveals instances of sexual harassment that occur within domestic spaces and sheds light on the vulnerability of female domestic workers. The initial stance of the employers changes, illustrating the complexity of power dynamics within the household. The case also revealed the lack of protection and support mechanisms available to victims of sexual violence, as evidenced by the victim's decision to leave the household without informing her employers. The subsequent decision to leave both the home and the city, coupled with an unplanned pregnancy, showcases the consequences of such abuse, driving the victim to desperation and ultimately resorting to begging on the streets with her child. Additionally, the narrative exposes broader societal issues, such as the lack of awareness about contraception and reproductive health services in rural areas, further complicating the challenges faced by victims. In conclusion, the story serves as a stark reminder of the urgent need for comprehensive legal protections, awareness campaigns, and support services to address the systemic issues contributing to the vulnerability of domestic workers. It underscores the importance of fostering safe and respectful working environments where individuals can exercise their rights and dignity free from fear and exploitation.

### 9.3. Psychological Aggression

Table 22 assured that there are a prevalence of psychological aggression among the respondents by different perpetrators. Specifically, all the respondents commonly agreed that this form of violence (verbal abuse, like insulting, yelling or shouting) is a very common kind of violence against domestic workers. Even in the previous studies, it was underscored that it is common for all types of violence (Busza et al., 2017; Elsa, 2011; Seblewongel, 2009). Findings of this study are similar with these studies; instead, the magnitude is raised. The female domestic employees indicated that nagging, humiliating them in front of family members and even guests, making jokes about them, and laughing at them all together were the most common forms of verbal abuse. Children of the employers, family members, and madam are the main ones who took the lion's share in verbally abusing the victim.

Table 22. Distribution of responses on insulting, sulking and yelling towards DW

<b>Items</b>	<b>Alternatives</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Insulted me	Never	3	2.3
	Rarely	32	24.6
	Undecided	10	7.7
	Often	58	44.6
	Always	27	20.8
	Total	130	100.0
Sulked or refused to talk about an issue	Never	12	9.2
	Rarely	21	16.2
	Undecided	20	15.4
	Often	43	33.1
	Always	34	26.2
	Total	130	100.0
Shouted or yelled at me	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	16	12.3

Undecided	22	16.9
Often	51	39.2
Always	35	26.9
Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

Regarding the response of the DW about the psychological hurts that happened against them, like accusing others of looking bad before the others, all of them were in the same chapter. Employees replied that they hear deliberate sayings against them to hurt, even in front of family members and friends as well.

Some of the most common sayings identified by female domestics were

"Advising you to accomplish something has no more impact than the killing of time, you are dull."

"You are mindless, stupidity is dwell in your mind/heart."

"It takes centuries to see a change in you."

"You never get clean even if you take a shower for a year."

"You donkey ....bila bila"

All these deliberate hurting verbal abuse and accusations committed against female domestic workers were indications of employers' underestimating attitudes toward their employees and the inferior position they gave to their employees.

Table 23. Distribution of response on Psychological Aggression of Employers

Items	Alternatives	Frequency	Percent
Deliberately said something to hurt me	Never	8	6.2
	Rarely	20	15.4
	Undecided	26	20.0
	Often	45	34.6
	Always	31	23.8
	Total	130	100.0

Accused me of being lazy, dumb	Never	2	1.5
	Rarely	22	16.9
	Undecided	21	16.2
	Often	51	39.2
	Always	34	26.2
	Total	130	100.0
Deliberately doing things to make you look bad or embarrass you in front of friends and others	Never	5	3.8
	Rarely	12	9.2
	Undecided	30	23.1
	Often	47	36.2
	Always	36	27.7
	Total	130	100.0
Telling lies about you to friends and family or trying to turn others against you	Never	16	12.3
	Rarely	42	32.3
	Undecided	30	23.1
	Often	30	23.1
	Always	12	9.2
	Total	130	100.0
Always criticize me	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	20	15.4
	Undecided	29	22.3
	Often	48	36.9
	Always	27	20.8
	Total	130	100.0

Treat me as a scapegoat for all kinds of problems	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	16	12.3
	Undecided	31	23.8
	Often	48	36.9
	Always	29	22.3
	Total	130	100.0
Do not think that I am tired	Never	15	11.5
	Rarely	30	23.1
	Undecided	21	16.2
	Often	45	34.6
	Always	19	14.6
	Total	130	100.0
Suddenly fired	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	23	17.7
	Undecided	26	20.0
	Often	54	41.5
	Always	21	16.2
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

There were trends about leaving employment due to the underestimating attitude of the employers towards their employees. One of the female domestic workers consolidating this reported as follows:

*"One of the madams who hired me last year was quite haughty and showed no regard for her employees, and she constantly criticized whatever I was instructed to do. She always refers to me disrespectfully and never call my name. She used me as a scapegoat for the incident, which had no connection with me like she had lost her phone*

*in the town and yelled at me. She criticizes me because her kids have broken down materials at home or school. I stayed in her house for four months, and then I left. For me, madams, or women employers, are typically the worst offenders, followed by their kids (a female domestic worker interview in Alemu W/Hana School.)"*

Some respondents, who underlined that madams are the biggest perpetrators against employees, concur with this. In fact, madam's strictness could be explained by the fact that she communicates with her employees more regularly than her male counterparts do. Some workers said that the primary perpetrators of domestic abuse against workers are the bosses' children. Female domestic workers' children may experience disrespect as a result of how their parents treat their servants.

However, employers argued in contrast to this. According to their argument, because of their typical rural and social upbringing, particularly recent immigrants, they lack knowledge of how to prepare meals, cook, or clean up after themselves. Therefore, it is the role of the employer to instruct and demonstrate everything, including how to handle the kitchen and outside, prepare meals, and operate equipment, stoves, machines in the household, electrical devices, and others. However, they need more time to be ready to learn accordingly. Instead, they focus on watching television, focusing on their mobile phone (if they have), and passively taking things as told and shown by their employers. Finally, employers become disappointed in their performance and conflict with their employees, and even some employers take action up to firing from their work. Nevertheless, sudden firing of the employees, most of the time, is not because of their inefficient performance in home, but rather their "misconduct or misbehaving" while they are in the home where they are working.

The psychological perspective of the data reveals the significant impact of interpersonal dynamics, particularly within the context of the employer-employee relationship in domestic work settings. The account of a haughty madam who consistently displayed disrespect and criticism towards the employee reflects a toxic and psychologically detrimental work environment. The use of derogatory language and the tendency to assign blame without justification contribute to a dehumanizing atmosphere, likely fostering feelings of humiliation and inadequacy in the domestic worker. The madam's behavior, such as using the employee as a scapegoat for unrelated incidents and criticizing for issues beyond the worker's control, points to potential narcissistic tendencies and an abuse of power within the psychological dynamics of the

relationship. The psychological toll on the employee is further underscored by the statement that madams or women employers are perceived as the worst offenders, emphasizing a gendered dimension to the mistreatment. The psychological impact of this mistreatment is likely to extend beyond the workplace, affecting the employee's overall well-being and self-esteem. The data illuminates the emotional and mental strain experienced by domestic workers due to disrespectful and critical treatment by employers, particularly female employers.

#### 9.4. Physical Abuse

Physical abuse refers to when someone intentionally uses physical force or aggression to hurt or harm another person. It can occur in various relationships, including those involving partners, friends, parents and kids, and strangers (Mulugeta and Makonnen 2017). Direct contact, such as striking, kicking, biting, choking, or indirect contact are all examples of physical abuse. It can result in emotional and psychological suffering, such as fear, worry, sadness, low self-esteem, post-traumatic stress disorder, and physical injuries, such as bruises, wounds, burns, fractures, or internal bleeding. Physically abused people frequently feel helpless and alone and are more likely to develop a variety of pathological ailments as a result, including depression, eating disorders, anxiety disorders, and substance misuse issues.

Table 24. Response on Physical Abuse against the Respondents

Items	Alternatives	Frequency	Percent
Throw something that could injure me	Never	17	13.1
	Rarely	33	25.4
	Undecided	25	19.2
	Often	39	30.0
	Always	16	12.3
	Total	130	100.0
Slapped me	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	23	17.7
	Undecided	39	30.0
	Often	41	31.5
	Always	21	16.2
	Total	130	100.0

Punched or hit me with something that could hurt?	Never	15	11.5
	Rarely	42	32.3
	Undecided	29	22.3
	Often	36	27.7
	Always	8	6.2
	Total	130	100.0
Kicked me	Never	4	3.1
	Rarely	26	20.0
	Undecided	46	35.4
	Often	43	33.1
	Always	11	8.5
	Total	130	100.0
Used a knife or related tools or poked a gun at me to threaten	Never	30	23.1
	Rarely	45	34.6
	Undecided	31	23.8
	Often	15	11.5
	Always	9	6.9
	Total	130	100.0
Hurt me	Never	9	6.9
	Rarely	25	19.2
	Undecided	34	26.2
	Often	45	33.8
	Always	17	13.1
	Total	130	99.2
Beat me up	Never	6	4.6
	Rarely	25	19.2
	Undecided	34	26.2
	Often	51	39.2
	Always	14	10.8
	Total	130	100.0

Chocked or strangled me	Never	30	23.1
	Rarely	35	26.9
	Undecided	37	28.5
	Often	22	16.9
	Always	6	4.6
	Total	130	100.0
Slammed me against a wall	Never	2	1.5
	Rarely	30	23.1
	Undecided	38	29.2
	Often	45	34.6
	Always	15	11.5
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

The severity of the physical abuse was amply represented in detail, as shown in Table 24. Particularly, the respondents admitted that employers sometimes throw things that could hurt their workers. Additionally, there have been instances of domestic employees being kicked, punched, and slapped by their employers. To boot, the most extreme kind of physical abuse involved by their employers to threatening female domestic employees with knives or guns. The respondents' lives are at grave risk as a result of this physical assault, which makes them sufferers of mental illness. It may, finally, leads to develop hatred against the community in general and employers in particular.

The data underscores a distressing reality of physical violence faced by female domestic workers within their employment settings. The instances of employers throwing objects that could cause harm, as well as cases where employees were subjected to kicking, punching, and slapping, reveal the pervasive nature and severity of physical abuse within the domestic work sector. The escalation to the most extreme forms of violence, such as threatening with knives or guns, highlights a dangerous and potentially life-threatening dimension to the abuse experienced by these workers. This kind of brutality not only inflicts immediate physical harm but also poses a significant risk to the mental well-being of the victims, as they live under constant fear for their safety.

The mention of the grave risk to respondents' lives due to physical assault sheds light on the profound impact on their mental health. The sustained exposure to violence can lead to mental health issues, causing trauma, anxiety, and, in severe cases, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The psychological toll extends beyond the workplace, as the victims may develop a deep-seated fear and hatred against the broader community and employers in particular. The cycle of abuse not only jeopardizes the physical safety of domestic workers but also inflicts lasting emotional scars that can persist long after the instances of violence.

### 9.5. Social Coercion (Abuse)

The pressure that one individual or group applies on another to comply to their norms, expectations, or demands is known as social coercion (Wild, 2005). Social compulsion can nonetheless lead to anger, resistance, or even insurrection by violating the rights, freedom, and dignity of the forced person. It can be seen in various contexts, such as family, school, work, religion, politics, or culture with different context like. In the case of this study, social coercion was revealed by the respondents like employers want to know everyone their employees have seen or are planning to see; employers stopping employees from seeing friends, family, or other people; confining employees outside your home, room, or accommodation facility; and not allowing their employees to participate in social and community activities. In addition, employees disclosed that their employers forbid them to leave their homes without their company and restricted meeting with outsiders and/or neighbors.

Table 25. Distribution of Responses on Employers' surveillance on Social Relation

Items	Alternatives	Frequency	Percent
They want to know everyone you have seen or are planning to see	Never	3	2.3
	Rarely	25	19.2
	Undecided	35	26.9
	Often	48	36.9
	Always	19	14.6
	Total	130	100.0
Stopping you from seeing friends, family, or	Never	4	3.1

other people	Rarely	18	13.8
	Undecided	41	31.5
	Often	56	43.1
	Always	11	8.5
	Total	130	100.0
Confining you outside your home, room, or accommodation facility	Never	14	10.8
	Rarely	23	17.7
	Undecided	21	16.2
	Often	35	26.9
	Always	37	28.5
	Total	130	100.0
Not allowing you to participate in social and community activities	Never	15	11.5
	Rarely	20	15.4
	Undecided	24	18.5
	Often	46	35.4
	Always	25	19.2
	Total	130	100.0
Forbidding to leaving the home of the employers without their accompany	Never	15	11.5
	Rarely	34	26.2
	Undecided	25	19.2
	Often	39	30.0
	Always	17	13.1
	Total	130	100.0
Not allowing to attend religious activities during congregations	Never	16	12.3
	Rarely	44	33.8
	Undecided	29	22.3

	Often	30	23.1
	Always	11	8.5
	Total	130	100.0
Restricting meeting with outsiders and/or neighbors	Never	10	7.7
	Rarely	13	10.0
	Undecided	24	18.5
	Often	52	40.0
	Always	31	23.8
	Total	130	100.0

SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

Social coercion was one of the issues and means by which the rights of female domestic workers were violated by their employers, despite the fact that the response rate varied and the degree was not consistently reported. Coercion in the workplace has the potential to alter the attitudes and beliefs of employers and foster an unfavorable work environment. Employees may experience demoralization as a result of workplace pressure, while employers may struggle to make the most use of their employees' skills. Employees could be required to labor in such challenging circumstances while also learning, which might result in ongoing distress and high turnover rates.

The data reveals a troubling pattern of social coercion experienced by female domestic workers within their employment settings. The various forms of social control reported, such as employers wanting to know about the employees' social connections, restricting interactions with friends, family, or others, and confining employees within their homes or accommodations, illustrate a pervasive infringement on the personal lives of these workers. The restriction on participating in social and community activities further emphasizes the extent to which employers seek to control the work and the social lives of domestic workers. The prohibition on leaving homes without the employer's company and limiting interactions with outsiders or neighbors adds layers to the coercive environment, reinforcing these workers' lack of autonomy and personal freedom. Social coercion emerges as a significant issue in the violation of the rights of female domestic workers, highlighting the power dynamics and control wielded by employers.

The coercive measures not only impact the employees' personal lives but also create an unfavorable work environment. The potential consequences include demoralization among employees due to the pressure and restrictions imposed, negatively impacting their overall well-being. Furthermore, rather than optimizing the skills of their workers, employers may inadvertently contribute to a challenging work environment, resulting in ongoing distress and high turnover rates.

### **9.6. Interconnected Nature of these Violence**

The various forms of violence such as psychological, physical, economic, sexual, and social - are profoundly interconnected and often reinforce each other within the context of mistreatment experienced by female domestic workers. The dynamics between these different types of violence create a complex web of oppression that significantly affects the well-being and livelihoods of the workers. Psychological violence, characterized by verbal abuse, disrespect, and constant criticism, can contribute to the heightened vulnerability of domestic workers and the possibility of impacting other forms of violence. Constant humiliation may lead to decreased self-esteem and confidence, making individuals more susceptible to other forms of mistreatment. Psychological abuse can escalate into physical violence. Constant degradation may create an environment where physical aggression is more likely. Workers who endure ongoing psychological abuse may eventually face physical harm as tensions escalate. Economic violence involves exploiting an individual's economic stability, i.e., effectively communicating that economic violence occurs when someone takes advantage of another person's financial instability or weakness for their gain. Psychological and physical violence can be tools for maintaining economic control. For instance, workers enduring psychological or physical abuse may be less likely to demand fair wages or better working conditions due to fear of retaliation. Sexual violence often involves an abuse of power and control. The power imbalances inherent in psychological, physical, and economic violence can spill over into sexual abuse. Perpetrators may use their dominant position to coerce or force victims into unwanted sexual acts.

Social coercion, such as restricting social interactions, isolation, control, and confining workers, complements other forms of violence. Isolating individuals from their social networks

exacerbates the impact of psychological violence, making them more dependent on the perpetrator and less likely to report or escape other forms of mistreatment. These various forms of violence do not exist in isolation; rather, they form a reinforcing cycle where one type of violence can contribute to or escalate another. The power dynamics established through psychological violence, economic exploitation, and social coercion create an environment where physical and sexual violence can occur with impunity.

## CHAPTER TEN

### 10. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY

The vulnerability of female domestic workers with regard to parents' and brokers' responsibilities in Haddiyya Zone Hossana town was discussed in earlier chapters. The chapter's discussion included demographic characteristics that contribute to the vulnerability of female domestic workers in the research region. In addition, institutional considerations, parental involvement in the hiring process, and the influence of licensed and unlicensed brokers put the subjects in a precarious position. Sociocultural issues can have an impact on the position of female domestic employees. Finally, the chapters above also covered the many types of violence against female domestic workers. Following the precise purpose and the research objectives described in the first chapter, this chapter provides an overview of the study's main findings. Finally, this chapter's main focus is the conclusion and inference.

#### 10.1. Conclusion

Conclusions entail knowledge generated on the four interrelated key components of the study, such as background characteristics of the female domestic workers; brokers' concerns related to the vulnerability of female domestics; institutional issues impacting the vulnerability of domestic workers; parents and sociocultural related factors; and employers-employees relationship. The collective outcomes of the conclusions contribute to narrowing the gaps noted in knowledge around the respective vulnerability of female domestic workers.

##### 10.1.1. Background of the Female Domestic Workers

In conclusion, the demographic analysis of the study sheds light on several key aspects influencing the vulnerability and exploitation of female domestic workers in the research area. It implies that these workers face exploitation due to employers' preferences for younger individuals who may be easier to control and less aware of their rights. The wide variation in educational attainment, predominantly low levels of education, and unmarried status of many workers from rural and diverse backgrounds further highlight their vulnerability with limited resources. The study reveals diverse motivations for engaging in domestic work, emphasizing economic factors as the primary driving force. This contradicts earlier research emphasizing unemployment, unhappy marriages, or urban attraction as primary drivers. While challenging existing research, it underscores the dynamic nature of the work environment, prompting

questions about job stability, working conditions, and the overall quality of the domestic work experience for these individuals. The finding provides valuable insights into the multifaceted challenges female domestic workers face, encompassing age-related vulnerabilities, educational differentials, marital status dynamics, and the complex interplay of socioeconomic factors influencing their involvement in domestic work. The binary logistic regression model identifies age, particularly younger age, as a significant factor influencing vulnerability due to a perceived lack of awareness and empowerment. Employers' preference for recruiting underage domestic workers may heighten vulnerability, driven by perceptions of control and reluctance to report mistreatment. In line with existing research, the study underscores the importance of international labor norms, like the Minimum Age Convention of the International Labour Organization, in safeguarding the rights of marginalized communities. Shifting the focus to another predictor, the study highlights that frequent changes in employers increase vulnerability for domestic workers, attributed to factors such as unfamiliarity, lack of participation, and difficulties in building trust. The study emphasizes the critical role of longer-term employment as a crucial measure to reduce the risk of exploitation in the domestic work sector.

The study's conclusion can be explained effectively by both Intersectionality Theory and Vulnerability Theory, with each offering distinct insights. Intersectionality Theory provides a comprehensive understanding by focusing on how overlapping social identities such as age, gender, education, marital status, and rural origins—interact to exacerbate the exploitation and marginalization of female domestic workers. For example, the text highlights how younger workers, especially women, face compounded vulnerabilities due to employers' perceptions of their lack of awareness and ease of control. Similarly, workers with low levels of education or from rural areas are less equipped to assert their rights, demonstrating how educational inequality and geographic disparities intersect with systemic inequities. As the primary motivator for domestic work, economic necessity further interacts with structural power imbalances to limit their choices. Additionally, frequent changes in employers and the lack of institutional safeguards amplify these risks, highlighting how societal and structural factors converge to perpetuate layered disadvantages for these workers.

Vulnerability Theory complements this perspective by emphasizing structural and institutional factors as key contributors to the marginalization of female domestic workers. It explains how younger workers, due to their dependency on employers and lack of autonomy, are inherently

more vulnerable to exploitation. The theory also sheds light on the precarious nature of informal employment, where frequent changes in employers heighten risks due to a lack of trust and familiarity. Moreover, the study's emphasis on international labor norms, such as the ILO's Minimum Age Convention, aligns with Vulnerability Theory's focus on the role of institutional protections in mitigating inherent vulnerabilities. While Vulnerability Theory underscores structural dependency and the need for systemic safeguards, it does not capture the nuanced interplay of identities and power dynamics as effectively as Intersectionality Theory, making the latter more suited to explain the multifaceted challenges highlighted in the study fully.

### **10.1.2. Broker Related Concerns**

Brokers play a crucial role in facilitating girls' entry into domestic work by ensuring smooth communication with prospective migrants and employers. They employ various strategies, such as making false promises and providing fake information, to convince domestic workers to migrate. The brokers often promise support for families left behind and facilitate opportunities to work in the Middle East, a dream for many entering domestic work. Regarding the choice of employees, respondents consistently express a preference for unlicensed brokers despite the legality of licensed brokers recognized by the government. They emphasize the significance of personal relationships and trust in decision-making. The study uncovers employer preferences for unlicensed brokers and attributes this to the perceived interference of licensed brokers in interpersonal relations. This reveals a darker side where financial interests may supersede the well-being of domestic workers. Contrary to assumptions, perceptions of unlicensed brokers indicate that female domestic workers feel "safest" and most "secure" when employed through them, while licensed brokers are seen as "unsafe" and "insecure" for finding employment. The evidence suggests a generalized lack of confidence in licensed brokers among domestic workers, challenging the efficacy of regulatory procedures and raising critical questions about the complexities of trust within the informal labor market.

A startling revelation from the study is the prevalence of violence against female domestic workers throughout the brokerage process. Some female domestics who utilize brokers to find employment have encountered various forms of violence, such as sexual assault and harassment. The findings show that licensed brokers and their assistants are more likely to harass female domestic workers in their workplaces compared to unregistered brokers. All the assistants in licensed brokers' offices are male, which creates an environment that paves the way for sexual

violence against domestic workers. The structure of licensed brokers greatly contributes to the vulnerability of the study population. Additionally, sexual harassment and solicitation of employees for sex work, with or without their consent, occur through licensed brokers. Continuous engagement of female domestics in sex work by employers leads to them turning into sex workers in the town. In the case of unlicensed brokers, these incidents are more rare due to their lack of permanent place (office), government registration, and assistants. Furthermore, unlicensed brokers may have close ties to the rural community, making it easier to track down any incidents involving female victims. Therefore, the possibility of violence against female domestic workers by unlicensed brokers is scarce. This narrative is interpreted through intersectionality theory and vulnerability theory, highlighting power imbalances, patriarchal structures, and institutional flaws that perpetuate gender-based violence and exploitation. The evidence points to a systemic failure in safeguarding this vulnerable population, exacerbated by power dynamics in the broker-worker relationship.

Raising awareness among government organizations could empower domestic workers to assert their rights, file complaints, and develop trust in these institutions. However, brokers' reluctance to inform them about government organizations for reporting problems leaves female domestic workers vulnerable. Limited awareness of these institutions may also result from rural backgrounds and a lack of knowledge about organizations working for women's rights. Brokers' emphasis on financial matters rather than workers' rights further contributes to the lack of information about these institutions. Additionally, there is a potential reluctance to disclose information that might expose illegal acts committed by perpetrators. Collectively, these factors heighten the vulnerability of the study population. The study challenges prevailing beliefs about the safety of licensed channels and calls for a comprehensive examination of regulatory procedures and structural problems that increase the susceptibility of female domestic workers to the labor market. On the contrary, employers express discontent with the services provided by licensed brokers as they demand exorbitant fees for their services. Additionally, these brokers actively advocate for employees to abandon their current employment in pursuit of opportunities with higher salaries, often misleading them into leaving even when content with their current employment conditions. This practice is contrary to the optimal interests of the employees, as the brokers' fees are contingent on successful placements rather than the well-being of the workforce. Consequently, this prevailing trend has led employers to adopt a stringent, unsympathetic,

unforgiving, abusive, dishonest, and disillusioned stance toward their employees, irrespective of their lack of involvement in this prevailing trend. Regrettably, due to the brokers' "unpleasant" involvement, the exploitation of this social group, female domestics, continues.

### **10.1.3. Institutional Factors**

The other theme of the study aimed to critically examine institutional factors contributing to the vulnerability of female domestic workers in Ethiopia. As mentioned in the earlier findings, the brokers' reluctance to inform domestic workers about government organizations, coupled with the rural backgrounds of female domestics and their lack of knowledge about organizations advocating for women's rights, renders these individuals vulnerable. In addition, the reluctance of government institutions to emphasize the subjects also paves the way for vulnerability. The lack of awareness about government organizations and their failure to engage with domestic workers amplifies the vulnerability of female domestics. The absence of standardized and legally binding contract agreement templates developed by government agents, containing details of rights and duties for both parties, serves as compelling evidence. Existing contract agreement templates with licensed brokers lack consistency and uniformity as they are prepared by the brokers themselves.

Basically, any employment contract irrespective their knowledge about it has legally binding power before the law. But in this case, contract agreement templates developed by the government not properly signed by the employee. The reason for this is the brokers' reluctance to formalize agreements due to financial burdens on licensed brokers, leaves female domestic workers in a precarious position. This lack of formalization not only violates international labor laws but also reinforces disproportionate power dynamics between employers and domestic workers, highlighting institutional shortcomings in providing legal safeguards.

The inadequacies within the contract agreement templates, omitting crucial details related to working conditions, further exacerbate the vulnerability of these workers. The lack of protection for educational rights, coupled with parental unwillingness to prioritize education over immediate financial gains, perpetuates a cycle of vulnerability for female domestic workers.

Moreover, the communication gap between government organizations and domestic workers signifies a significant shortcoming in the dissemination of information about rights and protections. The finding exposed that the absence of outreach initiatives, coupled with the

exclusion of domestic workers from specific labor laws (proclamation No. 1156/19), further compounds their vulnerability.

All of these show a missed opportunity to empower domestic workers with knowledge and call attention to the government's failure to implement laws designed to safeguard citizens' well-being. Additionally, the finding highlights the systemic failures, including the absence of a comprehensive database, legal gaps, lack of continuous follow-up to licensed brokers' work, and limitations in addressing vulnerabilities at various levels of government. This shows that government agents have no preventive programs to address vulnerabilities before abuse occurs.

In the framework of vulnerability theory, it posits that certain groups in society, due to structural, systemic, or institutional factors, are more susceptible to exploitation, mistreatment, and violation of their basic human rights. In this context, the vulnerability of female domestic workers is explored within the institutional framework of contract agreements, legal standing, and broader systemic challenges. In the broader context, the institutional and legal gaps identified in this study align with concerns raised by international labor organizations, supporting the vulnerability theory's assertion that systemic factors contribute to the exploitation of certain groups. The finding also clearly discloses the absence of comprehensive legal frameworks, proactive interventions, and improved communication between government institutions and domestic workers to address the systemic challenges and maltreatment faced by this disenfranchised labor force.

#### **10.1.4. Parents and Socio-cultural Related Factors**

The findings illuminate the intricate dynamics surrounding the vulnerability of female domestic workers, unveiling a complex interplay of parental intervention and sociocultural factors that shape their experiences. The active involvement of parents in the facilitation process of their daughters' employment, whether directly or indirectly, initially appears positive, reflecting a community culture where parents play a role in their daughters' employment process. However, as parents begin to retrieve supplies and collect their daughters' wages in advance, the dynamics shift. This parental influence on job choices and the potential lobbying for a change in employment reveals a power dynamic that compromises the agency of domestic workers. Their intervention is not limited to the described scenario; as previously mentioned, they also compel their daughters to refrain from attending school while engaged in domestic work. Even when employers permit educational activities during spare time with the option to compensate for

school fees, some parents are now unwilling to grant permission. Their rationale stems from the reluctance to forfeit their daughters' monthly income to cover educational expenses. On the other hand, the relationship that parents establish with employers determines the working conditions of the employees. Specifically, even if the employers treat employees “well”, they may be unwilling to advance the monthly salary of the employees. If parents cannot acquire additional resources such as clothes, enjera, and others, they may decide to encourage their daughters to seek employment with better pay. Brokers also employ such techniques. All these activities undertaken by the parents do not prioritize the well-being of their daughters; instead, they focus on satisfying their interests and gaining benefits. Aware of this dynamic, parents contribute to making the employees vulnerable. Economic dependencies force them to endure abuse and exploitation, even in unfavourable circumstances, creating a cycle of dis-empowerment. The financial control exerted by parents, coupled with economic dependencies, leaves domestic workers susceptible to abuse and exploitation, undermining their decision-making power.

In the context of labor law, the undue influence of parents on job choices and potential lobbying for a change in employment can be seen as compromising the agency of domestic workers. Labor laws typically emphasize the importance of free and informed consent in employment relationships, ensuring that employees have the autonomy to make decisions regarding their work. The study highlights how economic dependencies force domestic workers to endure unfavorable conditions, potentially infringing on their rights under labor laws to a safe and non-exploitative work environment. The financial control exerted by parents over domestic workers may also raise legal questions. Labor laws often require transparent and fair wage practices, with employees having the right to control their earnings. The study suggests that economic dependencies may lead to a situation where domestic workers are vulnerable to financial exploitation, potentially violating labor laws.

Moreover, the study underscores societal perception toward female education and women's rights, revealing significant disparities and conflicting opinions within the community. The study exposes significant disparities and conflicting opinions surrounding female education and women's rights, underscoring the intersection of deeply ingrained gender biases and cultural norms. The persistence of unsupported views on female education and contradictory sentiments about women's independence suggests a vulnerability rooted in societal attitudes. These attitudes contribute to a challenging social environment for domestic workers, leading to their

stigmatization and limited social integration. The impact extends beyond individual well-being, affecting the mental health of domestic workers and influencing broader community dynamics. The negative perceptions and treatment of domestic workers within the community further exacerbate their vulnerability. The association of domestic workers with negative stereotypes, such as theft, not only perpetuates socioeconomic disparities but also hinders collective efforts to address overarching issues of economic inequality. This highlights the systemic nature of vulnerability, rooted in societal beliefs and norms.

According to the sociocultural vulnerability theory context, societal perceptions frequently stigmatize domestic labor, diminishing its importance and making female domestic workers more vulnerable. This prejudice against their culture may lower their self-esteem and impede their ability to advance professionally. Importantly, the vulnerability theory lens emphasizes the influence of these community perceptions on the employer-employee relationship. The finding points out inconsistencies in the fair and supportive treatment of domestic workers by employers, indicating a persistent vulnerability in this dynamic. The intersecting forms of discrimination and disadvantage faced by domestic workers from both employers and the broader community underline the multifaceted nature of vulnerability within the context of labor relations.

#### **10.1.5. Employers-Employees Interaction**

The other profound conclusion was addressed concerning the working conditions and the working relationship between female domestic workers and employers while living together. The analysis of the working conditions of female domestic workers reveals a concerning pattern of exploitation and power imbalances within the employer-domestic worker relationship. The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines decent work as "productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and human dignity." The issue of working hours demonstrates a significant power differential, with domestic workers reporting excessively long workdays, often exceeding 14 to 16 hours, leading to vulnerability and potential exploitation. The power dynamics become apparent when employers are surprised and dissatisfied when domestic workers engage in leisure activities, perpetuating an expectation imbalance that further reinforces the authority-servitude dynamic. From a labor theory perspective, this exemplifies a clear case of exploitation, where the value of the domestic worker's time and effort is undermined. Days off, a crucial aspect of decent work, also reflect a power struggle, as employers retain the authority to decide whether to grant leave and control

domestic workers' activities even during their free time. This lack of autonomy contributes to a sense of control and dominance within the relationship. The burden of work varies widely, encompassing household chores, child and elder care, fetching water, and market trips, creating an exhaustive workload for domestic workers. This diversity in tasks, coupled with the absence of clear work specifications, opens the door for exploitation and mistrust. From the perspective of labor theory, the lack of autonomy, coupled with an undefined scope of work, perpetuates an environment where domestic workers are vulnerable to exploitation, emphasizing the need for clear guidelines and the recognition of their labor rights. Remuneration emerges as a critical issue, with disproportionately low salaries, arbitrary deductions, and withholding practices showcasing the economic vulnerability of domestic workers. Discriminatory food provision and inadequate sleeping conditions contribute to dehumanizing treatment and compromise personal safety. These challenges underscore the systemic exploitation and power imbalances within the employer-domestic worker relationship, demanding structural reforms to protect the rights and well-being of domestic workers. The existing deficit in decent work, as outlined by the ILO is further exacerbated by the absence of regulations addressing these issues. Addressing these structural deficiencies is essential for rectifying the profound challenges faced by female domestic workers, ensuring fair treatment, and safeguarding their rights. Regarding the relationship between domestic workers and employers, it reveals a pronounced power imbalance. This power dynamic is a defining feature of the master-slave framework, where one party - the employer, in this context - wields authoritative control over the other - the female domestic worker. The requirements employers establish before recruiting domestic workers when viewed through the master-slave model expose a systemic vulnerability and exploitation present in the domestic labor market. Specifically, the need for workers with less school attendance, unfamiliarity with urban areas, and who are under eighteen years old depicts a conscious preference for those who might be more vulnerable to exploitation. As a result, there is a situation where some social groups - like immigrants and those with low levels of education - become more open to exploitation because of their perceived obedience, compliance, and readiness to accept cheap pay. This can be evidence that the employer's authority extends beyond work tasks, encompassing the determination of working conditions and even influencing aspects of the domestic worker's personal life. The prerequisites set by employers that favor them serve as indicators of the heightened vulnerability experienced by domestic workers, and this

authoritative control establishes a substantial power differential, echoing historical master-slave relationships. Furthermore, complete control is evident in the employer's dominance over the domestic worker's actions, decisions, and, at times, personal life. Analogous to the master's comprehensive authority over the slave, employers exercise significant control over various facets of the domestic worker's daily existence. This includes dictating not only their work-related activities but also the intricacies of their personal life, such as living arrangements, clothing choices, and interpersonal interactions within the household. Their labor is inherently insecure due to the power dynamics inside the home, which are characterized by various centers of authority and command. The implications of this power imbalance and complete control are far-reaching. The employer's authority to dictate professional tasks and personal aspects creates vulnerability for the domestic worker. This vulnerability is exacerbated by the limited agency and autonomy afforded to the domestic worker, echoing the subjugation observed in historical master-slave dynamics.

## **10.2. Recommendations**

Based on the conclusions drawn from the study population and their associated with vulnerabilities, several recommendations have been drawn.

### **1. Institutional Concerns and Policy Recommendations**

- **Formulating Policy and Legal Frameworks:** The FDRE government should formulate a comprehensive policy and enact legal frameworks aimed at protecting the rights of domestic workers. The Ministry of Labor and Skill, and the Ministry of Women and Social Affairs should collaborate in leading formulation of the regulatory frameworks.
- **Enacting Legislation Addressing Domestic workers:** One of the indispensable challenges was the prohibition of this group from the decrees, the lack of regulations, and the absence of commitment from relevant government institutions to recognize them. These situations perpetuate their marginalization and deny them equal treatment as citizens. Therefore, the government should emphasize domestic workers' rights to work, and the Council of Ministers, on the issue of personal service workers, should enact and pass legislation.
- **Develop Standardized and Legally Binding Contract Agreement Templates.** The absence of robust regulations and laws governing domestic workers exacerbated by the deficiency of standardized and legally binding contract agreement templates administered by government institutions. Therefore, the government should develop standardized and legally

binding contract agreement templates ensuring clarity on rights, duties, and working conditions for employers and domestic workers.

- **Adopt and Ratify the ILO Convention No 189:** Ethiopia has not been endorsed the ILO Domestic Workers' Convention No. 189. Due to this, the country can not safeguard and protect these group from multidimensional troubles. So, the government should adopt, ratify and implement the standardized ILO Convention No 189. And should be steadfast to leave policies consistent with international labor standards outlined in the ILO Domestic Workers Convention No. 189 to protect the rights and well-being of domestic workers.
- **Structural Reforms and Decent work aligned with outline by the ILO should be done:** the Ethiopian government should enact comprehensive reforms to safeguard the rights and well-being of female domestic workers. And measures should be implemented to rectify the systemic exploitation inherent in the employer-domestic worker relationship, aligning with the principles of decent work outlined by the ILO.

## **2. Regulating Brokers**

Structural violence perpetuated by brokers and their assistants complicated the vulnerability of the domestics. Licensed brokers often demand excessive monthly salary requests for employees to increase their commission, and they are unwilling to prohibit transparent and legally safeguarding written agreement between the employers and female domestic workers. Addressing these systemic inequities requires concerted efforts to empower employees, hold employers accountable for their actions, and implement robust regulatory frameworks that prioritize the rights of female domestics. Cognizant of these, the following recommendations are forwarded.

**Strengthening Oversight in Licensed Brokers:** The licensed brokers lobby employers to abscond their work, harass the domestics and make them engage in sex work, refuse them information about government institution, do not collaborate with employees to prevent violence, do not report violence against domestic workers and/or do not guide them to report the violence to the concerned bodies. Furthermore, some brokers and their assistance commit sexual violence against the subjects. In addition, they complicate the relationship between employers and employees by setting not-affordable amount of monthly salary of the employees, and they are unwilling to facilitate contract agreement between both parties. Therefore, concerned government body should implement stringent and strict regulations governing the activities of

licensed intermediaries involved in facilitating domestic work placements. And, strengthen oversight mechanisms to ensure compliance, monitor and enforce compliance with legal standards, ethical practices, particularly concerning licensed brokers' conduct, recruitment, treatment of domestic workers and adherence to labor laws.

**Regulating unregistered brokers:** Employers and workers mostly choose unregistered brokers. In order for those unregistered brokers to operate legally and legitimately, the government should make it easier for them to do so.

### **3. Parents and Sociocultural Aspects**

**Advocate for Social and Cultural Shifts:** We found that parents' inclination to prioritize immediate financial gains over their daughters' education that perpetuates a cycle of economic dependency and exploitation, relegating domestic work as a primary income source for families. Such tendency of parents exposes the employees to heightened vulnerability. Moreover, the pervasive societal stigma and negative stereotypes associated with domestic work perpetuate a hostile environment where female domestic workers are unjustly marginalized, labeled as thieves, and considered as brutal against employers' children. Therefore, start public awareness initiatives to refute the way society views domestic employment and to lessen the stigma attached to the industry. A cultural transformation that acknowledges domestic workers' worth justice and dignity are acknowledged. More specifically, the government should be committed to do the following indispensable actions.

- Empower parents with information and resources to prioritize their daughters' education and well-being over immediate financial gains, reducing economic dependencies. Promoting education, and empowering parents with alternative livelihood options to minimize dependency on their daughters income. Challenging societal prejudices through targeted awareness campaigns, the Ethiopian government can foster a more inclusive and supportive environment that upholds the dignity and rights of all domestic workers, mitigating vulnerabilities and promoting equitable labor practices.
- Promote societal recognition and valuation of domestic work as a legitimate and essential form of labor, challenging stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes that undermine the dignity and rights of domestic workers. As well as the government should conduct community-based education and awareness programs to challenge societal perceptions and

stereotypes surrounding domestic work, promoting the value of education and women's rights.

#### **4. Employers**

Pattern of exploitation and power imbalances such as lack of rest time, violence, discrimination, troubling working condition and unsafe sleeping conditions are identified. Cognizant of this, the following measures should be taken by the government to address the trouble.

- **Engage Employers in Sensitization Programs:** organize employer sensitization campaigns to increase knowledge of the needs and rights of domestic workers. Encourage reasonable living circumstances in the employer's home, fair employment procedures, and respect for personal space. Promote dialogue and awareness among employers about their responsibilities and obligations towards domestic workers, fostering a workplace culture of respect, dignity, and equity.
- **Promotion of Ethical Employment Practices:** Promote ethical employment practices among employers, including fair treatment, respect for the dignity and autonomy of domestic workers, and recognition of their contributions to household and family well-being. Encourage employers to recognize domestic workers as valued members of their households, fostering positive relationships based on mutual respect, trust, and shared responsibilities.
- **Implement Proactive Outreach Initiatives:** targeting domestic workers to raise awareness about their rights, available resources, and avenues for seeking redress in case of exploitation or mistreatment. Strengthen collaboration between government and civil society organizations to address institutional gaps, improve regulatory procedures, and enhance protections for domestic workers at all levels.
- **Enhanced Awareness and Advocacy:** one of the major factors that paved the way for the vulnerability of female domestic workers was the lack of education and awareness about their rights while living with employers. Therefore, the government and concerned stakeholders (NGOs) should launch educational campaigns targeting employers, domestic workers, and intermediaries to raise awareness about labor rights, fair employment practices, and trust and safety in domestic work arrangements. They should foster advocacy initiatives aimed at empowering domestic workers to assert their rights, advocate for improved working conditions, seek assistance when faced with exploitation or mistreatment, file complaints, and develop trust in government institutions that safeguard labor rights.

## 5. Working on Domestic Workers

The Ministry of Labor and Skills, Ministry of Social and Women Affairs with other stakeholders should dedicate itself to enacting and implement the subsequent measures aimed at mitigating and alleviating challenges linked to domestic workers.

- **Develop Transversal Skill Training (TST) for Domestic Workers:** Transversal skill training focuses on enhancing abilities that are valuable in a wide range of personal settings communication, problem-solving, teamwork, adaptability, financial management, and time management. Therefore, TST training should be given for female domestic workers by concerned government and other stakeholders.
- **International Cooperation and Standardization:** Collaborate with international organizations to establish standardized practices and regulations for the employment of domestic workers. Collaboration with advocacy organizations and NGOs, among other stakeholders, may also be beneficial in identifying and resolving weaknesses in the home labor market. Additionally, efforts should be made to promote awareness among brokers, employers, domestic workers, and the larger community regarding their rights, including provisions outlined in international labor norms like the Minimum Age Convention of the International Labour Organization.
- **Establish Support Systems and Empowering Domestic Workers:** The absence of proper follow-up mechanisms, and lack of supportive system leaves domestic workers susceptible to exploitation and mistreatment. Moreover, the inadequate support from governmental bodies for violated female domestic workers underscores systemic failures in addressing gender-based violence and safeguarding the rights of marginalized social groups. Therefore, create support systems, such as counseling services and helplines, media coverage, to assist domestic workers facing mistreatment, exploitation, or abuse should be accessible to the domestics. Provide a safe and confidential space for them to seek guidance and report violations without fear of retaliation.

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## ANNEXS

### ANNEX A: TABLES OF THE DATA

#### Annex A1: Predicting Demographic Variables

		<b>Variables in the Equation</b>					
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 <sup>a</sup>	Age	-1.671	.588	8.065	1	.005	.188
	Education	.234	.484	.234	1	.629	1.264
	Marital status	-1.127	.839	1.806	1	.179	.324
	Work experience	-.568	.417	1.851	1	.174	.567
	Number of Households worked so far	1.265	.294	18.471	1	.000	3.543
	Constant	5.146	3.507	2.153	1	.142	171.820

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: How old are you? , What is your level of education? , What is your marital status?, How long have you been working as a domestic worker? , How many households have you worked for so far?.

#### Annex A2 Distribution of Responses on “Convincing” Promise way of Intermediaries

Item		Frequency	Percent
“Convince Promises” given by the intermediary.	Promise of employment in town	33	25.4
	The promise of supporting parents left behind	49	37.7
	Promise to facilitate conditions which helps to work abroad (Arab Countries)	47	36.2
	Other	1	.8
	Total	130	100.0

#### Annex A3: Response on Legal Status of Brokers

If the person was a broker, how was his/her legal Status?	Frequency	Percent
Unlicensed broker	33	70.2
Licensed broker	7	14.9
I don't know	7	14.9
Total	47	100

#### Anex A4. Information provided by the Intermediaries to Domestic

Information told by the intermediate (Multiple Response)	Frequency	Percent
Told me only the interesting opportunities	59	45
There are problems faced in the work	27	20.7
Informed me about my responsibility	49	37.7

Advised me on how to live harmoniously with my employers	57	43.8
Advised me to live with them even if there is a problem	35	26.9
Directed to leave when trouble happened against me by employers	31	23.8
Nothing has been told to me except the type of work	22	16.9
Nothing informed me about the government authorities to contact in case anything adverse happened to me.	83	63.8
Other	17	13

Annex A5. Responses on the situation of Siblings and their Involvement in Domestic Work

Item		Frequency	Percent
Do you have siblings, sisters?	Yes	113	86.9
	No	17	13.1
	Total	130	100.0
Among your female siblings, is there anyone who engaged in DW?	Yes	64	49.2
	No	49	37.7
	Total	113	86.9
Is there any facilitation role played by your family (parents, brothers, sister)?	Yes	28	21.5
	No	21	16.2
	I do not know	19	14.6
	Total	68	52.3

Annex A6. Distribution of response in terms of complete salary control

Item		Frequency	Percent
Do you give/take part or all of your salary to anyone?	Yes	73	56.2
	No	57	43.8
	Total	130	100.0
If your answer is "Yes" for the above question, who is this person?	Parents/guardians	47	64.4
	Brokers	17	23.2
	Friends	5	6.8
	Others	4	5.5
	Total	73	100
How did they take your salary?	Forcefully	39	53.4
	Freely(personal will)	34	46.6
	Total	73	100

Annex A 7. Responses on Sickness of the Domestic Workers

Item		Frequency	Percent
Have you ever get sick while you are in domestic work (in job)	Yes	97	74.6
	No	33	25.4
	Total	130	100.0
Did you visit physicians?	Yes	23	23.7
	No	74	76.3
	Total	97	100
If you did not visit physicians, What happened?	They gave me previously used medicine given for any sickness in the home	32	24.6
	They gave traditional medicine	11	14.8
	They ignored me	21	28.7
	They fired me/kicked me	10	13.5
	Total	74	100
If your have been got sick, what was the reason for your health problem?	Physical Attacks (from my employers or family members)	11	11.3
	Sexual harassment in the working environment	6	6.2
	Workload beyond my capacity	42	43.3
	Lack of rest time	31	31.9
	Other	7	7.2
	Total	97	100

Annex A8 Awareness of Respondents about the Government Agents (visiting to DW)

Item		Frequency	Percent
Awareness about government agents (institutions) like the labor and social affairs office, police and women affairs office in the town.	Yes	43	33.1
	No	87	66.9
	Total	130	100.0
Government organization awareness creation to Female Domestic workers on their rights	Yes	17	13.1
	No	113	86.9

	Total	130	100.0
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SOURCE: Sample survey, Nov 2021, N=130

**ANNEX B1: SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

**Questionnaire**

**Letter of Introduction and Informed Consent**

**Study Title:** .....

**Researcher Name:** ..... Before giving your consent to participate in this research, I strongly encourage you to pay attention when I read the following explanation of this study.

**Introducing the Subject and Purpose of the Study**

In different parts of the country, women and girls those who engaged in domestic work are facing various problems like involuntary servitude, physical and psychological abuse, sexual violence, murder and suicide. Though the government played role in order to avoid the pathology, the problems they are facing are not yet abated. The purpose of this study is to find the answer for the objectives underlined such as factors for the vulnerability, relation between employers and employees, and the consequences that happened against them.

**Explanation of Procedures**

Participation in the study involves conducting a face-to-face interview, which will last for approximately one hour. The interviews will be conducted by the researcher and/or enumerators assigned by the researcher; for the purpose of data analysis. The interview will be held at your place or brokers house or elsewhere based on your convenience.

**Risks and Discomforts**

There are no external risks or discomforts that are anticipated from your participation in the study because the anonymity of informants will be kept.

**Benefits** The anticipated benefit of participation is the opportunity to discuss feelings, perceptions, and concerns related to the experience of bridging a contract between employer and employee, dealing with problems of the domestic workers and other important issues.

**Confidentiality**, the information gathered during this study will remain confidential. Only the researcher will have access to the study data and information. There will not be any identifying names on the surveys or interview transcripts. Your names and any other identifying details will never be revealed in any publication of the results of this study. The tapes will be destroyed at the completion of the study. The results of the research will be published in the form of a research paper. The knowledge obtained from this study will be of great value in contributing its part for the effort of overcoming the problems the study dealing with.

**Withdrawal without Prejudice**

Participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to withdraw and discontinue participation in this project at any time without prejudice. You are also free to refuse to answer any question that you are not comfortable.

**Further Questions and Follow-Up**

You are welcome to ask the researchers any questions that occur to you during the interview. If you have further questions once the interview is completed, or if you have other questions or concerns about the study, you are encouraged to contact the researcher using the contact information given below.

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (respondent), have read the above information. I freely agree to participate in this study. I understand that I am free to refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from the study at any time. I understand that my responses will be kept anonymous.

Participant Signature Date

**If:** (a) you would like a copy of your interview transcript once it is available

(b) you are interested in information about the study results as a whole and/or (c) if you would be willing to be contacted again in the future for a possible follow-up interview, please provide contact information below:

Check those that apply:

I would like a copy of my interview transcript

I would like information about the study results

I would be willing to be contacted in the future for a possible follow-up interview Write your address clearly below. Please also provide an email address if you have one. Mailing address: Email address: Researcher contact information:

Name: .....

Institution: .....

E-mail: .....

Tel. ....

### Part I

#### A. Socio-Demographic Backgrounds

A1. How old are you? <14 15-18 19-24 25 and above

A2. What is your level of education?

no school attendance Grade 1-4 Grade 5-8 Grade 9-12

College certificate and above

A3. To which ethnic group of Ethiopia do you belong to?

Hadiyya Kembata Silte Wolaita other (specify).....

A4. Where is your place of origin/birth? Rural Urban

A5. What is your religion? Orthodox Muslim Protestant Catholic Other (specify)

A6. What is your marital status? Married Divorced

Separated Single (never married) Widowed

A7. Are you currently working as domestic worker for pay? Yes No

A8. How long have you been working as a domestic worker? Less than 1 year 1-2 Years

3-5 years 6-8 Years 5 and above

A9. How many households have you worked for so far? 1 2 3. 4 . 5 and above

A10. If you have ever been employed or if you are currently employed, how much are you paid or were you paid at your last paid job, monthly? Less than Birr 500 Birr 501 – 1000 Birr 1001 – 1500 More than Birr 1500

A11. What was the shortest duration of time you spent with an employer?

Less than a month 1-5 month 6-12 months More than 1 year

A12. The longest duration of time you spent with an employer?

Less than one year 1-2 year 3-5 years 5 and above years

A13 For the first time, where did you hear about migration and domestic work?

Friends Family Neighbour Broker Other

A14. What was your reason to become a domestic worker? (Multiple response)

Item	Yes	No
Escape from unhappy marriage		
Escape from family violence		
Poverty of family		
Parental death		
Escape form arranged and/or early marriage		
Attraction of city		
To collect money to fly to Gulf countries		
To attending education in the town		
Other		

**B. Arrangement of Employment (Intermediary/Brokers)**

B1. Was there anybody who helped you decide to become a domestic worker?(in the beginning)

Yes No, it was my own personal decision

B2. If your answer is “yes” for question number B1, who was this person? Or what was your relation to you? Broker Friend Parent Relative Others, specify...

B3. If your answer is “Yes” for question number B1, how did the person convince you to become a domestic worker?

Promise of employment Promise of education Promise of supporting parents

Promise to arrange work in abroad (Gulf countries) Other (specify) .....

B4. If your answer is A (broker) for question number B2, how is his/her legal status?

Licensed broker Unlicensed broker I don't know

B5. In terms of intermediates, which of the following do you think unsafe for you in joining domestic work? Relatives Parents Licensed PEA Unlicensed brokers friends

B6. In terms of intermediates, which of the following do you prefer more to help you in joining domestic work? Relatives Parents Licensed brokers unlicensed brokers friends

B7. From the listed below, which one of the following is told by your intermediate? (Multiple Response)

Told me only the interesting opportunities

Informed me about my responsibility

Advised me how to live harmoniously with my employers

Advised me to live with them even if there is a problem

Nothing has been told me

Directed to leave when trouble happened against me by employers

There are problems faced in the work

B8. Did your intermediate inform you about the relevant government agent to approach whenever you face problem as a domestic worker? Yes No

B9. Have you ever experienced any sorts of trouble (violence) while looking for work via brokers? Yes No I did not face any problem

B10. If your answer is “Yes” for question number B9, in which one?

Licensed brokers

Unlicensed brokers

One who work with him

Person looking for work

unknown person

**C. Presence of Social Protection (Informal) from Parents and Relatives (Socio-Cultural Concerns Factors)**

C11. How you categorize the general attitude of the community and your employers in terms of the items mentioned below.

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The attitude of your local society towards the rights of females is substantial.					
They believe that women are independent (not “subordinate” for men)					
The community I come from has a positive attitude towards female education					
The community I live in has a favorable attitude towards the rights of FDWs					
The treatment of employers and family					

members towards me is very interesting					
I feel that my community is there for me whenever I face any life challenges from my employers, brokers and/or others					
Employers are supportive for their employees to attend education (evening class)					

**C. Presence of Legal Protection (formal) from Government Agents**

**(Awareness and perception FDWs on their Human and Civil rights and access to Legal Protection)**

D12. Did/Do you have a legally binding written contract in your employment as a domestic worker? (Current or last employment process). . Yes . No

D13. Please check on those mentioned in the contract agreement whether oral or written. (Unless check the oral agreement box).

Item	Written Agreement		Oral Agreement	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Type of work				
Working hour and Holidays off				
Amount of salary and Payment Interval				
Food accommodation and Sleeping quarter				
Days off (Weekly and/or monthly break)				
Health Access				
Education Support				
Family Visits time				
Number of employers (home) you are going to work				

D14. Do you know government agents (institutions) like labor and social affairs office and women affairs office those working on rights of domestic workers? Yes No

D15. Have you ever received information/awareness from government institutions about your rights as a domestic worker? Yes No

D16. Have you ever experienced any sorts of trouble, violence (such as sexual, physical, psychological and others) while looking for work via brokers?

Yes No I did not face any problem

D17. If your answer is “Yes” for question number B16, in which one?

Licensed brokers Unlicensed brokers other

D18. Do you have someone to call (emergency) if violation happens against you from somebody else in the work place and/or other? Yes No

D19. Have you ever visited a government office to file a complaint about abuses (like refusal to pay, hiding away your materials, clothes) happened against you? Yes No

D20. If your answer is “Yes” for question number B17, which of the following office/s? (Multiple answers).

Police station Women affairs department Labor and social affairs office other

D21. If your answer is ‘Yes’ for question number 17, how was their response/treatment (did you get positive response) Very good Good Moderate Bad Very bad

**D. Parent Related Roles**

E22. How is the situation of your parents?

Both parents live together Single father (mother passed away)

Single mother (father passed away) Divorced parent

Orphans I do not know

E23. Check your answer for each

<b>Wishes of your parents/guardians/close family to be come</b>	<b>Very high</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>Not at all</b>
They support to complete education instead of DW					
They suggested me to be religious servant instead of DW					
They encourage me to involve in petty trade rather than in DW					
They suggest me to go Middle East (Gulf countries) to engage in DW					
They push me to involve in DW to earn income via me					
The state of communication of your family with brokers and employers to involve in DW in town/city					
The state of utter rejection of the idea of involvement in domestic work					

E24. Did your parent/s (both or one) or guardians deal with employers to employ you without your consent? Yes No I do not have

E25. Did your parent/s (both or one) or guardians present during your deal with employers to join domestic work? Yes No

E26. Do you have siblings? Yes No

E27. If you say “Yes” for B26, is there anyone who engaged in DW? Yes (Proceed) No

E28. Is there any role that your family played for your siblings (in terms of intermediation process?) to facilitate employment and/or communicate with brokers? Yes No

E29. Are your family members, parents, guardians or close relatives collecting your sibling’s monthly income regularly? Yes No I do not know

E30. Do your parents or guardians who collected your siblings’ salary has drinking problem(excessive alcoholic consumption)? Yes No

E31. If your answer is “Yes” for question number B30, do you think that they collect their salary to content their addiction? Yes No I don’t know

**Part II. Concerning Related to Vulnerability**

**i. Political Isolation/Passiveness**

1. Have you ever been registered in the local, regional or federal government while you are in domestic work? Yes (proceed) No (go to item 3) I don’t know

2. If you have been registered, for what purpose was?

National census Obtain oil and sugar from *kebele*

*kebele* statistics I don’t know Other, specify

3. Do you have the Residence Identification Card from the *Kebele* where you are working?

Yes (go to item 6) No (proceed)

4. Do you have the election card to allow you participate in the 2013 E.C. national election?

Yes (go to item 8) No (proceed)

5. If your answer is “No” for question number C4, what is the reason?

No information about the national election Not allowed by my employers

Do not have an identity card from the *kebele* Not interested Others, specify

**ii. Sexual Violence**

6. Have you ever get sick while you are in domestic work (in job) Yes No

7. If your answer is “Yes” for question number C6, did you visit physicians (health centers) to treat?

Yes No (proceed)

8. If your answer is “No” for the question number C7, what happened next?  
 They gave me previously used medicine given for any sickness in the home  
 They gave traditional medicine  
 They ignored me  
 They fired/kicked me
9. If your answer is “Yes” for question number C8, what was the reason to health problem?  
 Physical Attack (from my employers or family members)  
 Sexual harassment in the working environment  
 Workload beyond my capacity  
 Lack of rest time  
 other
10. Have you ever seen domestic worker who has raped while working as a domestic worker in employer’s home? and or looking for work in brokers’ house?  
 Yes (proceed)    No (go to item 8)
11. If your answer is “Yes” for C10, who was the person  
 Madam    male employer    Relative of the employer living with    son of the employer  
 I do not know
12. Have you ever seen domestic worker who has raped while looking for domestic work via brokers? working as a domestic worker in employer’s home? and or looking for work in brokers’ house?  
 Yes (proceed)    No
13. If your answer is “Yes” for question number C12, who was the person?  
 Licensed broker    Unlicensed broker    One who is working with brokers    One looking for employment  
 I do not know
11. Have you ever seen domestic worker who has raped and/or, anyway, gotten pregnant while working as a domestic worker?    Yes (proceed)    No (go to item 8)
12. If your answer is “Yes” for C11, what happened to her as a consequence of her pregnancy?  
 kicked her out from the household  
 She quit her job by herself and went to her family or her boyfriend  
 Led to abortion  
 Committed a suicide  
 She gave birth and killed the infant  
 Gave birth and lead a miserable life

### iii. Economic Violence

13. How frequently your employers fixed to pay your salary?  
 Weekly    Monthly    Once in a year  
 When I quit my job, or up on the termination of contract  
 Occasionally/infrequently whenever I need it  
 I never collected salary
14. If your answer is all except “I never collected salary” for C13, do you get your salary at regular time interval as you agreed to be paid without any delay/delinquency?    Yes    No
15. If your answer is “No” for question C14, what are the reasons?  
 By personal will  
 Due to their refusal to pay on time  
 to keep me stay as long as they wish, as a controlling mechanism.  
 to prevent me spending the money on what they believe is “unnecessary” items (clothes)  
 I do not know
16. Do you give/taken part or all of your salary to anyone?    Yes    No
17. If your answer is “Yes” for question number C16, who is this person?  
 Employers    Parents. Guardians or close relatives  
 Brokers    Friends    Others

18. If you answer is “Yes” for question number C16, how?

Forcefully      Freely (personal will)

**IV. Frequency of Happening of Violence against FDW**

Hereunder lists of items that might relevant to you while you are in work under the employers. I requested you to frankly check under the list that you have faced by anyone in the employers’ home and whatever the case.

Mentioned number expresses the level i.e.

1= Never 2= Rarely 3= undecided 4= Often 5= Always

NB: You are free to withdraw and discontinue participation in this project at any time without prejudice.

You are also free to refuse to answer any question that you are not comfortable.

**1. Economic/Financial Abuse**

Item	1	2	3	4	5
Free to use your money (monthly salary) at any time					
You can use your property (clothes and others)					
Free to deposit your salary					
Deduction of payment for material broken while working					
Absent from work is calculated to deduct payment					

**2. Sexual Violence Against FDW**

Item	1	2	3	4	5
Attempt of rape on me					
Touch my private parts					
Threaten me for sexual intercourse					
Vulgar and obscene language					

**3. Psychological Aggression Abuse**

Item	1	2	3	4	5
Insulted me					
Sulked or refused to talk about an issue					
Shouted or yelled at me					
Deliberately said something to hurt me					
Accused me of being lazy, dumb					
Deliberately doing things to make me look bad or embarrass me in front of friends and others					
Telling lies about you to friends and family or trying to turn others against you					
Always criticize me					

Treat me as a scapegoat for all kinds of problems					
Do not think that I am tired					
Suddenly fired					

**4. Physical Assault (Violence)**

Item	1	2	3	4	5
Throw something that could injury me					
Slapped me					
Punched or hit me with something that could hurt					
Kicked me					
Used a knife or related tools or poked a gun at me to threaten					
Beat me up					
Chocked or strangled me					
Slammed me against wall					

**5. Social Coercion (Abuse)**

Items	1	2	3	4	5
They want to know everyone you have seen or are planning to see					
Stopping you from seeing friends, family or other people					
Confining you outside your home, room or accommodation facility					
Not allowing you to participate in social and community activities					
Checking or interfering with your mail, phone, email or Social Media					
Needing to know everywhere you have been or are going					
Preventing from answering the phone or the door					
State of prohibiting to meeting with outsiders and/or neighbors					
Forbidding to leaving the home of the employers without their accompany					
Allowed to attend in religious activities during congregations					

**ANNEX B2: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR EMPLOYERS**

**Letter of Introduction and Informed Consent**

**Study Title:** Vulnerability of Female Domestic Workers in Hosanna Town: The feminist intersectional Theory

**Researcher Name:** ..... Before giving your consent to participate in this research, I strongly encourage you to pay attention when I read the following explanation of this study.

**Introducing the Subject and Purpose of the Study**

In different parts of the country, women and girls those who engaged in domestic work are facing various problems like involuntary servitude, physical and psychological abuse, sexual violence, murder and suicide. Though the government played role in order to avoid the pathology, the problems they are facing are not yet abated. The purpose of this study is to find the answer for the objectives underlined such as factors for the vulnerability, relation between employers and employees, and the consequences that happened against them.

**Explanation of Procedures**

Participation in the study involves conducting a face-to-face interview, which will last for approximately one hour. The interviews will be conducted by the researcher and/or enumerators assigned by the researcher; for the purpose of data analysis. The interview will be held at your place or brokers house or elsewhere based on your convenience.

**Risks and Discomforts**

There are no external risks or discomforts that are anticipated from your participation in the study because the anonymity of informants will be kept.

**Benefits** The anticipated benefit of participation is the opportunity to discuss feelings, perceptions, and concerns related to the experience of bridging a contract between employer and employee, dealing with problems of the domestic workers and other important issues.

**Confidentiality**, the information gathered during this study will remain confidential. Only the researcher will have access to the study data and information. There will not be any identifying names on the surveys or interview transcripts. Your names and any other identifying details will never be revealed in any publication of the results of this study. The tapes will be destroyed at the completion of the study. The results of the research will be published in the form of a research paper. The knowledge obtained from this study will be of great value in contributing its part for the effort of overcoming the problems the study dealing with.

**Withdrawal without Prejudice**

Participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to withdraw and discontinue participation in this project at any time without prejudice. You are also free to refuse to answer any question that you are not comfortable.

**Further Questions and Follow-Up**

You are welcome to ask the researchers any questions that occur to you during the interview. If you have further questions once the interview is completed, or if you have other questions or concerns about the study, you are encouraged to contact the researcher using the contact information given below.

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (respondent), have read the above information. I freely agree to participate in this study. I understand that I am free to refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from the study at any time. I understand that my responses will be kept anonymous.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant Signature Date

**NB:** by using this interview tool, one of the objectives is going to be achieved because below listed objective is already planned to be treated merely by qualitative way (interview). The objective is

❖ To examine the interpersonal relations between female domestic workers and employers vis-à-vis the female domestic workers' vulnerability in the study area.

1. Your gender:  Male  Female      Your age: -----
2. What is your occupation:  Government  Private  
 Social Organization     Not employed
3. What is your family size: -----
4. How many in your household are under 18 years old? -----
5. How many elderly or physically dependent (disabled) adults are in the household: -----
6. What is your income (household income per month): -----
7. How many years have been employing domestic workers? How many domestic workers do you

have? Where and how did you find them (licensed PEA, unlicensed brokers, friends, family, and others)? Which intermediacy way do you think safe (preferable) for you? (licensed PEA, unlicensed brokers, friends, family, and others).

8. Did you use parents of domestic workers as intermediates and/or deal that took place before their commencement of work?
9. What are the primary responsibilities of domestic workers? How do you describe the working hours, workload, break (rest time), overtime pay of your domestic worker?
10. Do you allow domestic workers to join your family events? Do you consider them as a part of your family during population censuses? What do you understand when you hear that the DW is, or should be treated, "like a member of the family"? Do you agree? Why or why not?
11. Do you take care of the personal needs of your domestic worker such as safe sleeping quarter, food provision? Do you allow your domestic workers any one of the following: Vacations, visitations to friends and family? Why?
12. Do DWs usually have access to a mobile or telephone phone? Should the DW be able to use a mobile phone?
13. What happens when the DW is too sick to work? Do you give them extra daily allowance, health service, and other facilities when they need?
14. From your experience, how do most employers regard their DW? i.e. "servant", maid, helper, daughter/girl, worker, etc. How do employers and their family members address the DW(s)?
15. How could you express your satisfaction in their domestic work performance?

#### **Disputes, Grievances and Relations; settlement and Absconding; and Sabotage**

1. Describe your and rest of your family members' relation with your employee? How do you address her? (Worker, maid, by her name, sister, etc.) How do you refer to her when speaking to others?
2. Can you explain what problems/challenges you face with your DWs? Did you (or members of the family) get conflict with DW while she is in work? What is the source of conflict? What actions do you take?
3. How employers deal with grievances, disputes, conflicts? Are there any recurrent/particular challenges issues employers faces in their relation to the DW(s)?
4. What are your usual responses to these problems or challenges? What about DWs reaction for the problem or challenges?
5. Have you (or anyone you know) experienced a DW quitting the employment and household without consent of the employer ("run-away")? Did you face any absconding from your employees? What do you think are the reasons that DWs leave their employer?
6. Did you face sabotage from your employees as a reaction to conflict? What could be a solution for this?
7. Do you know employers who fire suddenly their employees without any consent of DWs? What do you think is a reason that employers sudden firing their DWs? What could be a solution?

#### **The Role Of The Government**

- In your opinion, what do you think the role of the government should be in issues pertaining to domestic workers? Should there be any intervention through legislation and appropriate measures related to domestic workers? (Hiring process, amount of salary, employment agencies, absconding, support for domestic workers, etc.)
- Do you believe that there should be a law regulating domestic workers? Why or why not?
- Usually, how is the salary decided for a live-in DW? Is it common to raise the salary, and if so, under what conditions?
- Employers usually have to pay an agency when hiring a domestic worker. Is it common for employers to deduct this payment from the DW's salary?

Preference of Employers to Employee Female Domestic Workers by Employers

	Item	Freq			Freq	%
1	Less years of domestic work experience (working in different households) (Why)			Have better experience in domestic work (Why)		
2	Unfamiliar with urban i.e. rural background (Why)			No problem to familiarity of urban (Why)		
3	Primary school Attendee (Why)			More than primary attendance (Why)		
4	Having no interest in pursuing education (Why)			Eager to continue their education (Why)		
5	Younger than eighteen (Why)			Age is above 18 years (Why)		

### **Annex B3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR GOVERNMENT Experts**

1. Do you have any contact with domestic workers in the town?
2. Is there any program/intervention that your office is implementing in relation to the rights and duties to domestic workers?
3. Did your office ever monitor/follow up the domestic workers in their work place? Is there any problem in the place where they stayed (brokers house) until they got work?
4. Any assessment or survey result you can share me in relation to domestic workers in town?
5. Do you have any formal legal agreement form for the domestic workers and their employers?
6. Did your office make any effort to inform to domestic workers about the law on domestic workers in order to prevent violence against female domestic workers in the future? .....
7. Did your office ever receive any complaint from domestic workers? If yes, what is their common complains? What are the measures or interventions done by your office to their complains?
8. Do you know any of the law related to domestic workers? Mention them please.....
9. Do you think Ethiopian law recognizes domestic workers as workers? If yes, what are these laws? How are they implementing in your context?
10. How many Private Employment Agencies are actively working by in Hossna town?
11. Do the women get any orientation or training?
12. Do you think the establishment of the PEA brings a change in protecting the rights of domestic workers?
13. Can we say that women recruited through these Employment Agencies are safer than those who employed by unlicensed? How?
14. How does your institution supervise the agencies are working according to the terms and conditions in the proclamation?

Thank you for your willingness to provide me the interview

### **Annex B4: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR FEMALE DOMESTIC WORKERS**

1. Back ground information
  - Age .....
  - Marital status.....
  - Place of residence .....
  - Religion .....
2. Years of working as a domestic worker ..... year
3. Tell me how you begun to work as a domestic worker? Who facilitated your employment?
4. How many employer households did you work for so far?
5. How do you describe your work condition (food sufficiency, privacy, working hours, rest) Are you

given time to take rest?

6. How do you describe the amount of pay you get? How do you describe the working hours? How do you describe work load? Do you think you are over worked?

7. Have you ever heard of human rights? What do you know about your rights?

8. Have you ever faced problems from your employers (psychological, physical, sexual and other)?

9. To whom you report when you encountered such violence against you? Do you ever experienced in reporting to any governmental agents the violence against you? Are there solution given to you such office?

10. What are your general comments about your working conditions at your employers' house?

11. Suggestions as to what should be done to improve the working condition of female domestic workers?

**Disputes, Grievances and Relations; settlement and Absconding; and Sabotage**

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### **THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT**

- In your opinion, what do you think the role of the government should be in issues pertaining to domestic workers? Should there be any intervention through legislation and appropriate measures related to domestic workers? (Hiring process, amount of salary, employment agencies, absconding, support for domestic workers, etc.)
- Do you believe that there should be a law regulating domestic workers? Why or why not?
- Usually, how is the salary decided for a live-in DW? Is it common to raise the salary, and if so, under what conditions?
- Employers usually have to pay an agency when hiring a domestic worker. Is it common for employers to deduct this payment from the DW's salary?

### **Annex B5: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR BROKER**

- Age
  - Sex
  - Educational level
  - Work experince
1. How you contact employees with employers?
  2. Do you tell about their rights and responsibilities while you facilitate conditions to employment?
  3. Do you received any complain from female domestic workers? If yes, what was their reason? How do you treat/responded)? Is it resolved?
  4. Do you have any contact from government agents regarding follow up of female domestic workers?
  5. Have you write document/legally binding contract while you contact employers and employees?

### **Annex B6: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARENTS OF DWS**

- Age
- Sex
- Educational level
- How many children do you have and/or you are guarding children? M ---- F -----
- What is your source of income for your family's expenses?
- Do you know about domestic work? Is there anyone from your children who engaged in domestic work in the town? How many of your children? How did they join DW i.e. intermediates (brokers, relatives, friends, and others)?
- Do you have any contact /communication with brokers?
- What is the reason for the engagement in domestic work?
- Did you participate and deal with employers about your children (lady) whiles her joining to work? How?
- Did you collect her monthly income? How and why? Do you think that collect her many



ከሌጅ ማስራጃ ያለው/ የተመረቀ

A3. ብሄር ሀይያ ካምባታ ስልቴ ዎላይታ ሌላ (ይገለጽ)-----

A4. የትውልድ ቦታ ገጠር ከተማ

A5. የምትከተይው ኃይማኖት አርቶዶክስ ሙስልም ጴጥራ ካቶሊክ ሌላ-----

A6. የትዳር ሁኔታ ያገባች የፈታች የተለያዩች ያላገባች

A7. በአሁን ወቅት የቤት ሠራተኛ ሆነሽ በመስራት ላይ ነሽ? አዎ አይ

A8. በቤት ሠራተኛነት ስንት አመት ሰርተሻል? ----

A9. እስከ አሁን ድረስ ስንት ቤት ሰርተሻል? 1 2 3. 4 ከ5 በላይ

A10.

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ከ500 ብር ያነሰ 501 – 1000 ብር ከ1001 -1500 ከ1500 በላይ

A11.

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ከ1 ወር በታች ከ1-5 ወር ከ6-12 ወር ከ1 ዓመት በላይ

A12. በአንድ ቤት ውስጥ ተቀጥረሽ ሌላ ቤት ሳትቀይር የቆየሽበት ረዥም ጊዜ ምን ያህል ይሆናል?

ከ1 ዓመት በታች ከ1-2 ዓመት ከ3-5 ዓመት ከ5 ዓመት በላይ

A13. የቤት ሠራተኛ እንድትሆኝ ያደረገሽ ገፊ ምክንያት ምንድነው (ከ1 በላይ ምላሽ መስጠት ይቻላል)

B.

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I.

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B1.

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አይ

የራሴ ውሳኔ ነው

B2. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር B1፣ መልስሽ “አዎ” ከሆነ፣ ይህ ግለሰብ ማን ነበር?

ደላላ

ጎደኛ

ዎላጆቹ/አሳደግወቼ

ዘመድ

ሌላ

B3. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር B1፣ መልስሽ “አዎ” ከሆነ; የቤት ሰራተኛ እንድትሆኝ የመከረሽ ሰው ምን ምን ተስፋ ሰጥቶሽ ነበር ያሳያህ።

አሰሪ (ስራ) ለማገናኘት ተስፋ ሰቶኝ

የት ሀረት ዕድል ተስፋ ሰቶኝ

ቤተሰቦቼን ለመርዳት ተስፋ ሰጠኝ

የተሻለ ህይወት/ኑሮ እንድኖርሽ ለማድረግ

ወደ አረብ ለመላክ ተስፋ በመስጠት

ሌላ -----

B4. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 2 መልስሽ <ደላላ> ከሆነ የደላላው ሁኔታ ምን ይመስላል?

ፈቃድ ያለው ደላላ

ፈቃድ የሌለው ደላላ

አላውቅም

B5.

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ዘመድ

ወላጆች/አሳዳጊ

ፈቃድ ያለው ደላላ

ፈቃድ የሌለው ደላላ

ጎደኛ

B6.

ዘመድ ወለጆች/አሳዳጊ ፈቃድ ያላቸው ደላሎች ፈቃድ የሌላቸው ደላሎች ጎደኞች

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B7. ከሚከተሉት ውስጥ የቤት ሰራተኛነትን ባመቻቸልሽ ግለሰብ የትኛው ተነግሮሻል?

- ምገጥመኝ መልካም ነገር ብቻ እንደሆነ
- ስራ ስጀምር የኔ ሀላፊነት ምን ምን እንደሆነ ብቻ
- ከአሰሪዎቼ ጋር እንዴት መኖር እንዳለብኝ
- በምንም ችግር ውስጥ አብሬአቸው እነድኖር
- ምንም አልተነገረኝም ነበር

B8. የስራ ሁኔታ ያመቻቸልሽ ሰው በስራ ላይ ሆነሽ ከአሰሪዎቻች ይሁን ከሌላ ችግር ብገጥምሽ ለማን ወይም ለየትኛው የመንግስት አካል ማሳወቅ እንዳለብሽ ነግሮሽ ነበረ አዎ አልነገረኝም

B9. ስራ ፍለጋ ደላላ ቤት አድረሽ ወይም ለቀናት ቆይተሽ የምታውቅ ከሆነ ጥቃት (አካላዊ፣ ስነልቦናዊ፣ ጾታዊ እና ሌላም) ደርሶብሽ ያውቃል አዎ አይ ቆይቼ አላውቅም

B10. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 9 መልስሽ አዎ ከሆነ፣ ማን ነበር የጥቃት ሙከራ ያደረሰብሽ;

- ፈቃድ ያለው ደላላ እራሱ
- ፈቃድ የሌለው ደላላ እራሱ
- አብሮ ምሰራ ግለሰብ
- ወንድ ስራ ፈላጊ
- ማላውቀው ግለሰብ

II.

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B11.

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<b>መጠይቆች</b>					
( )					
( )					

III.

B12.

B13.

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መጠይቆች	የተጻፈ ውል ስምምነት		ያልተጻፈ ስምምነት	
	አዎ	አይ	አዎ	አይ
/				

B14.

? አዎ አይ

B15.

? አዎ አይ

B16. ስራ በደላላ በኩል በምትፈልግበት ወቅት ጥቃት (አካላዊ፣ ስነልቦናዊ፣ ጾታዊ...ወዘተ) ገጥሞሽ ያውቃል?  
አዎ አይ

B17. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 16 መልስሽ <አዎ> ከሆነ በየትኛው ደላላ ነው? ፈቃድ ባለው ደላላ ፈቃድ በሌለው ደላላ

B18. ስራ ላይ እያለሽ ችግር ብገጠምሽ የአደጋ ግዜ ተጠሪ ሰው አለሽ አዎ አይ የልኝም

B19. በስራ በታም ይሁን ስራ ፍለጋ ወቅት ከአስረወችም ይሁን ከሌላ አካል ጥቃት፣ ጉዳት (ደምዝ ተከልክለሽ፣ ልብስ ተወስዶብሽ፣ ሌላም) ደርሶብሽ ለመንግስት አካል አቤቱታ አቅርቦሽ ታውቅአለሽ?

አዎ አይ ደርሶብኝ አያውቅም

B20. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 17 መልስሽ <አዎ> ከሆነ፣ ለዬተኛው የመንግስት አካል ነበር ያቀረብሽው

ለፖሊስ የሴቶች ጉዳይ ሰራተኛ እና ማህበራዊ ጉዳይ መስሪያ ቤት ሌላ....

B21. / ?

በጣም ጥሩ ነበር ጥሩ ነበር ምንም አይልም መጥፎ ነበር በጣም መጥፎ ነበር

IV.

B22.

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B23. ( )

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B24. ወላጆችን ወይም አሳዳግዎቻችን ያላገኙ እውቅና ከደላላ ጋር እና/ወይም ከአሰሪዎች ጋር ተስማምተው ስራ እንድትቀጠር አድረገው ስያውቃሉ አዎ አይ

B25.

አዎ አይ

B26

አዎ አይ

B27. መልስሽ <አዎ> ከሆነ ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 24፣ እንዳገኘው የቤት ሰራተኛ ሆኖ ምሰራ አለ/አለች አዎ አይ

B28. ወንድምሽ ወይም እህትሽ የቤት ሰራተኛ ሆኖ እንድትሰራ ቤተሰቦችሽ/አሳዳጊዎችሽ የማመቻቸት ሚና ተጨውተዋል ብለሽ ታስቢያለሽ አዎ አይ አላውቅም

B29. ቤተሰቦችሽ/አሳዳጊዎችሽ የቤት ሰራተኛ ሆነው ምሰሩ እህቶችሽን ወራዊ ክፍያ እነርሱ ይዎስዳሉ አዎ አይ አላውቅም

B30. ( )

B31. 30 < >

C.

i.

C1. / አዎ አይ አላውቅም

C2. ተመዝግቦሽ ከሆነ ለምን ዓላማ ነበር ከብሔራዊ ህዝብና ቤት ቆጠራ ለዘይትና ስኳር ለቀበሌ ህዝብ መረጃ አላውቅም ለሌላ

C3. ከተወለድሽበት አካባቢ የቀበሌ መታወቅያ አለሽ አዎ አይ

C4. የ2013 . . ሀገራዊ ምርጫ ለመሳተፍ እንድሆንሽ የምርጫ ካርድ ወስደሽ ነበር አዎ አይ

C5. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 4 መልስሽ <አይ> ከሆነ የምርጫ ካርድ ላለመውሰድሽ እንደ ምክንያት የያዘሽ ምንድን ነበር ስለ ምርጫ መረጃው አልነበረኝም አሰሪዎቼ አልፈቀዱልኝም ነበር የቀበሌ መታወቂያ ስለሌለኝ ነበር ፈላጎት ስላልነበረኝ እድሜ ለመራጫነት ስላልደረሰ ሌላ ምክንያት ነበረኝ

ii.

C6. በቤት ሰራተኛነት እየሰራሽ በነበርሽበት ጊዜ ታመሽ ታውቅአለሽ አዎ አይ

C7. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 6 መልስሽ <አዎ> ከሆነ ወደ ህክምና ተወስደሽ ነበር አዎ አልሄድኩም

C8. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 7 መልስሽ <አልሄድኩም> ከሆነ እንዴት ተሻለሽ እንዴት ሆንሽ

አሰሪዎቼ ከዚያ ቀደም ተጠቅመውት የተረፈውን መድሃኒት ሰጡኝ

ባህላዊ መድሃኒት ሰጡኝ

መታመሜን እንደ ቁምነገር ሳይቆጥሩት አለፉት

ከቤት አባረሩኝ (አስወጡኝ)

C9. የህመም ማንስኤው ምን ነበር

- አሰሪዎቹ ወይም የቤተሰብ አባል ስለጎዱኝ (ስለደበደቡኝ)
- ጾታዊ ጥቃት ስለደረሰብኝ
- ከአቅሜ በላይ የሆነ ስራ ስለሰራሁ
- የእረፍት ግዜ ስለሌኝ ሌላ

C10. የቤት ሰራተኛ ሆነው በአሰሪዎቻቸውም ይሁን ቤት ውስጥ ባለው ሰው የተደፈሩ የቤት ሰራተኛ ሴቶችን ታውቅአለሽ አዎ አይ

C11. በአሰሪዎቻቸውም ወይም ቤት ውስጥ ባለው ሰው ተታለውም ይሁን ተደፍረው ያረገዙ የቤት ሰራተኞችን ታውቅአለሽ አዎ አይ

C12. መልስሽ አወ ከሆነ ለጥያቄ ቁጥር C11፣ ከማረገዟ የተነሳ ምን ሆነች/ምን ተከሰተ

- ከቤት/ከስራ ተባረረች
- ስራውን በማቆም ወደ ወደ ቤተሰቦቿ ልትሄድ ችላለች
- ውርጃ አድርጋለች
- እራሷን አጥፍታለች
- ወልዳ ጥለዋለች(ገድለዋለች)
- ወልዳ ከልጇ ጋር አስከፊ ህይወት እየመራች ትገኛለች

iii.

C13. በምን ያህል የግዜ ገደብ ነው/ነበረ ደሞዝሽን ልከፍሉሽ የተስማሙት በሰዎች በወር በአመት አንዴ ስራ ሳቆም/ውላችን ስቋረጥ እንደ ሁኔታው ወይም እኔ በፈለኩበት ጊዜ ሁሉ እኔ ደምወዜን ተቀብዬ አላውቅም /ነበር

C14. ገንዘብሽን በተስማማችሁት የግዜ ገደብ ሳይዘገይ ትወስጃለሽ/ይከፍሉሽል አዎ አይ

C15. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 14 መልስሽ <አይ> ከሆነ በምን ምክንያት ነው ብለሽ ታስብአለሽ

- በራሴ ፈቃድ በጊዜ መክፈል ስማይፈልጉ ገንዘብ ባለመክፈል እኔን ለማቆየት ስለምፈልጉ
- ገንዘቤን <አላስፈላጊ> ነገር ላይ እንዳላውል አስበው አላውቅም

D16. የገንዘብሽን/የደምወዝሽን ግማሽም ይሁን ሙሉ የምወስድ ሰው አለ አዎ አይ

C17. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 16 መልስሽ <አዎ> ከሆነ፤ ማን ነው ይህ ግለሰብ እናም እንዴት ነው ምወስደው / -----

C18. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 16 መልስሽ <አዎ> ከሆነ እንዴት

**ክፍል አራት**

D.

- 1= ( )
- 2= ( )
- 3= "Neutral (Neither nor)"
- 4=
- 5=

D1.


/					

D2. /

<b>ጾታዊ ጠቃሽ/ትንኮሳ</b>	1	2	3	4	5

D3.

<b>Item</b>	1	2	3	4	5
( )					
/					

**D4. አካላዊ ጥቃት እና ጉዳት**

<b>Item</b>	1	2	3	4	5
/					





Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R	
		Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	92.012 <sup>a</sup>	.465	.631
2	61.080 <sup>a</sup>	.578	.785
3	108.263 <sup>a</sup>	.393	.534
4	141.827 <sup>a</sup>	.215	.292

1. Estimation terminated at iteration number 6 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.
2. Estimation terminated at iteration number 7 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.
3. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.
4. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

## ANNEX E2: SIGNIFICANCE RATE

### Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-.470	.180	6.797	1	.009	.625

## ANNEX F1: A DOMESTIC WORKER BURNED BY HER EMPLOYERS

