

# ETHIOINQUIRY

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FULL LENGTH ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# From Scriptures to Screen: Representations of Ancient Rome in Biblical Texts, Hollywood, and Africa's Black Jesus Films

Floribert Patrick C. Endong<sup>1\*</sup> 

<sup>1</sup>Department of Performing Arts and Cinematography, Institute of Fine Arts, University of Dschang, Dschang, Cameroon

\*Corresponding Author's email: [floribertendong@yahoo.com](mailto:floribertendong@yahoo.com)

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## Abstract

*It is hard, if not impossible, to narrate Jesus's story without mentioning ancient Rome, particularly its brutal imperialist culture in Israel. The gospel accounts of Jesus's life, ministry, and death (particularly the segment dedicated to the passion of the Christ) provide discernible hints of Roman presence and imperialism in ancient Judea. In line with this, most literal interpretations of the gospel story (notably Mel Gibson's *The Passion of the Christ*) make ample allusion to this Roman domination in Israel through evocative scenes like Jesus's trial before Pontius Pilate and Herod, as well as scenes of the scourging and crucifixion of Jesus Christ. On their own side, symbolic film adaptations that set Jesus's story in African contexts tend to erase, downplay, or semiotize the aforementioned Roman presence and imperialism in ways that often generate contextual, technological, or historical anachronisms as well as an over-simplification of the story of Jesus. This understudied phenomenon is examined in this paper in light of relevant Black Jesus films produced by African cineasts. Specifically, this study uses semiotics, textual analysis of relevant Jesus films, and critical exploitation of secondary sources to answer three principal research questions: how is ancient Rome's imperialistic influence represented in both historical sources and biblical scriptures? How has this influence been represented in the literal interpretations of Jesus story? How have African radical adaptations of biblical scriptures often portrayed or misrepresented Rome? The paper argues that through various forms of symbolization and narrative ellipsis, African Jesus filmmakers hint at Rome's imperial influence but generate various forms of cultural and technological anachronism that affect the aesthetics and coherence of their Black Jesus films. This implies that the application of African Cultural Hermeneutics and Black Liberation Theology in the production of the Black African Jesus film is bound to work only partially and lead to controversial results.*

**Keywords:** Black Jesus Films; Ancient Roman; Gospel Story; Literal Adaptation; Semiotics.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

From 753 BC to the 5th century AD, Rome's influence fashioned many civilizations and directly shaped various ancient Mediterranean cultures, notably the Jews. According to historical sources, the empire, which encompassed much of Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East, annexed the land of Israel after 63 BC through a military conquest led by Pompey the Great (Hall, 1997; Ludlow, 2017; Rothman, 2019). Rome started ruling its new conquest indirectly through client kings, notably Herod the Great. These client kings owed their thrones to the Roman favor. Upon Herod's death, the indirect system of government gave way to direct Roman rule as Judea (the land of Israel) became a Roman province under the rule of Pontius Pilate. This new system of administration soon bred serious tensions among the Jewish people (Bryan, 2005; Labbe, 2012; Windsor, 2004). The latter chafed under Roman oppression and longed for the coming of a Messiah (Jesus) to save them. This Messianism was in line with various divine predictions.

To maintain order and stability in Judea, the Roman authorities often deployed severe brutality marked by cruel attitudes, such as bloody and excruciating quashing of resistance, the introduction of dreadful punishments (notably exposure and crucifixion), temporal suppression of religious freedoms, multi-form humiliation of the Jews, and the promotion of a personality cult that often conflicted with Judaist traditions (Nadav, 2017; Peters, 2018; Trotter, 2017). In line with this, Brohm (2011) notes that "Roman culture was marked by power and pragmatism. Their legions were feared for their discipline and brutality [...] their laws provided stability but often favored the elite. Religion was pluralistic, drawing on the pantheon of Jupiter, Mars, Venus, and countless other deities, many of whom were borrowed from Greece. Emperor worship emerged as a unifying force, demanding loyalty that placed Christians in direct conflict with Rome's demands."

Thus, Rome's political and cultural influence shaped the setting in which part of Jewish history took place. In tandem, the world of the Jewish people, as depicted in the New Testament, is under the shadow of Rome. From the edict that sent Joseph and Mary (mother of Jesus) to Bethlehem to Pontius Pilate's order concerning the crucifixion of Jesus and the soldiers who guarded the sepulcher of Jesus, the specter of the Roman empire is cast across the New Testament (the Bible). Therefore, it may be argued that Rome's colonial influence constitutes the backdrop for the life, ministry, and death of Jesus Christ in the gospel story. Understanding this Roman influence is key to grasping and adapting the gospel story into a Jesus film.

Therefore, it is difficult, if not impossible, to narrate Jesus' story without mentioning ancient Rome. The gospel accounts of Jesus's life, ministry, and death (particularly the segment dedicated to the passion of the Christ) provide discernible hints of this Roman presence and colonization in ancient Judea. In line with this, most literal filmic interpretations of the gospel story (notably Mel Gibson's *The Passion of the Christ*) make ample allusion to this Roman colonization of Israel through evocative scenes like Jesus's trial before Pontius Pilate and Herod, as well as scenes of the scourging and crucifixion of Jesus Christ. Symbolic film adaptations that set Jesus's story in African contexts, on the other hand, tend to erase, downplay, or semiotize the aforementioned Roman colonization in ways that often generate cultural, technological, or historical anachronisms as well as an oversimplification of the story of Jesus. This understudied phenomenon is examined in this paper in light of relevant Black Jesus films produced by African cineasts. Specifically, this study uses semiotics, textual analysis of relevant Jesus films, and a critical exploitation of secondary sources to answer three principal research questions: how is ancient Rome's colonial influence represented in both historical sources and biblical scriptures? How has this influence been represented in the (Hollywood) literal interpretations of the Jesus story? How well have they been portrayed in Africa's Black Jesus films?

## 2 METHODOLOGY

This study is descriptive and conceptual in nature. It examines the nature of the representation of ancient Rome in both written and filmic texts from a historico-aesthetic perspective. In particular, this paper focuses on the nature of this representation of Rome in historical and biblical texts as well as in some postmodern filmic interpretations of the gospels' accounts of the life, ministry, and death of Jesus Christ. This study relies on two main data collection methods: documentary and textual analyses. The documentary analysis part of the methodology involved the critical exploitation of relevant secondary

sources such as peer-reviewed journal articles, anthologies, encyclopedias, work papers, book chapters, online materials, and published theses. The critical exploitation of these secondary sources helped set the stage for the study and address the first two research questions of the study, namely, how is ancient Rome's colonial influence represented in both historical sources and biblical scriptures? How has this influence been represented in the literal interpretations of Jesus story?

The textual analysis part of the methodology was concerned with the semiotic analysis of relevant Jesus films, mainly produced by African film directors. This study considered three African Jesus films that adopt symbolic and metaphorical approaches in their interpretations of the gospel accounts of Jesus's life, ministry, and death. The films selected for the study include Mark Dornford's *Son of Man* (2006)(Dornford-May, 2006), Tchidi Chikere's *Our Jesus's Story* (2020)(Chikere, 2020) and Collins Chidiebe's *Cross of Jesus* (2023)(Chidiebe, 2023). The films were selected based on their alignment with African liberation and African cultural hermeneutics (which will be explained in greater detail in the subsequent parts of this paper). The films were selected because of the attention they subtly or clearly accord to Roman imperialism during Jesus's time. As mentioned earlier, the textual analysis of the aforementioned films was mainly driven by semiotics and inter-textuality. By definition, semiotics is the study of signs and symbols in communication. It also refers to the use of sign systems for constructing and interpreting meaning. During the study, attention was given exclusively to signs contained in scenes that directly or subtly referred to Rome. Icons, indices, and symbols in the films that reference Roman presence or imperial influence were considered. This study examined the extent to which the use of these three signs enabled the construction of an image that reflects biblical and historical texts' representations of Rome.

This interpretive tool (semiotics) was relevant for the study, given the films' nature as symbolic and metaphorical adaptations of the gospel's account of the life, ministry, and death of Jesus Christ. In other words. The films' adaptive approaches (symbolization and connotation) warranted the use of semiotics. The semiotic analysis of the films helped address the third and main concern of this study. This concern bordered on showing how the symbolic representations of ancient Rome enabled the films' alignment with the African liberation theology but gave way to anachronistic aesthetics in the African Jesus films.

## 2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored in two theories: Black Liberation Theology and African Cultural Hermeneutics. The former theory systemically contextualizes Christianity in an attempt to help people of African descent overcome racial, political, economic, and social oppression (Barga, 2023; H. J. Cone, 1999; J. H. Cone, 1968, 1975; Cook, 2014). As Hayes (2000) puts it, "There can be no Black Theology which does not take the black experience as a source for its starting point. Black Theology is a theology of and for Black people, examining their stories, tales, and sayings. It is an investigation of the mind into the raw materials of our pilgrimage, telling the story of "how we got over" (p.17). In the African context, Black Liberation Theology seeks to give an African coloration to all aspects of Christianity. Its ultimate goal is to make Christianity relevant to African communities. According to theologian Emmanuel Martey (1993), the movement hopes to achieve an integrative vision for the African continent by welding together the praxis of inculturation and liberation.

Black Liberation Theology is based on two principal tenets: (i) a firm, but arguable, belief in the African origins of Jesus and (ii) the rejection of the "whitewashing of Christianity" by Euro-centric theologians. While Black theologians such as Cleage (1968) and DeYoung (2009) have sought to demonstrate the black origins of Jesus in some of their writings, many Black film directors - notably Jean Claude LaMare - have drawn on the Black theology concept in their Jesus films. By anchoring their Jesus films in Black Liberation Theology, these postmodern film directors have sometimes provoked huge controversies. Jean Claude LaMare in particular, drew on the Black Liberation Theology in the production of his hugely controversial *Colour on the Cross*.

African Cultural Hermeneutics (the second theory considered in this study) similarly seeks to contextualize Christianity. Also called "African Biblical Hermeneutics," African Cultural Hermeneutics is an approach to interpreting holy scriptures and ancient texts that principally considers the African context. It insists on reading the scriptures premeditatedly from an African standpoint, to make the word of God culturally relevant to African nations. Adamo (2015) defines this cultural hermeneutic as an approach that "reappraises ancient biblical tradition and African world-views, cultures and life experiences, with

the purpose of correcting the effect of the cultural [and] ideological conditioning to which Africa and Africans have been subjected in the business of biblical interpretation (p.59)".

Thus, African Cultural Hermeneutics aims to neutralize the excessive whitewashing of Christianity in Africa and seeks to counter or address an old African frustration: the obligation (for Africans) to understand and practice the Christian faith in foreign or Eurocentric terms. Appiah-Kubi, 1981 expresses the aforementioned frustration. Drawing on Psalms 137:4, the theologian writes: "how can I sing the Lord's song in a strange land, in a strange language, in a strange thought, in a strange ideology" (p. viii). It goes without saying that the African Cultural Hermeneutics approach may enable African Jesus filmmakers in their culturally sensitive reinterpretation of the gospel accounts of Jesus's story as well as the latter's understanding of ancient texts about Rome's imperial influence in first-century Judea. The two theories considered for the study (Black African Liberation Theology and African Cultural Hermeneutics) provide tools to examine the theological orientation of the films under study and the aesthetic choices of the African film directors. The two theories provide a framework for examining how the film's themes and style are tailored to reflect African histories, experiences, struggles, and contemporary realities.

Rome's Imperial Rule over Judea: Insights from Historical Sources and Biblical Scriptures Rome's military conquest of Judea in 63 BC triggered a series of upheavals that affected the Jewish people in a mostly negative way. The conquest brutally took away many benefits the Jewish nation enjoyed as free people and ushered in an endless continuum of hardship, servitude, humiliation, and loss of sovereignty for the Jewish people. In fact, from Pompey's conquest to the total destruction of the city of Jerusalem (in 70 AD), Rome interfered in the social, cultural, economic, and political affairs of Judea on a grand scale (Bryan, 2005; Cook, 2014; Gambash, 2023; Windsor, 2004). Such interference stained Roman-Judean relationships. The era of Roman domination was cataclysmic and gloomy for the Jewish people, so much so that Strauss (2025) describes it as explosive. According to the Jewish historian, the aforementioned Roman domination was marked by an "explosion of creativity and destruction" that disfavored the Jewish people (Strauss, 2025). The gloominess and volatility of this period of Roman domination could, perhaps, best be grasped after a brief comparison of the pre- and post-Roman periods (See Figure 1).

More than half a century before the Roman conquest, Judea enjoyed the status of the first independent Jewish state. The country prided itself on its hard-won independence from Greco-Syrian overlords. It also prided itself on the expansionist moves of its native dynasts, the Hasmonean high priests, who enlarged the country's modest post-exilic borders to Solomonian proportions. Therefore, the Jewish people resented the sudden loss caused by Rome's expansionist policies. They responded predominantly through various manifestations of discontent: unpredictable dissidence, constant rebellions, and Messianism. They exhibited a level of resistance that had never been observed in other provinces of the Roman Empire (Bryan, 2005; Rothman, 2019) (. Under Roman rule, Judea morphed into a realm of perpetual unrest and revolution. A succession of small uprisings culminated in an era of great wars against Rome, three of which include the Great Revolt, also known as the Jewish War, 66–74 CE; the Diaspora Revolt, 116–117; and the Bar Kokhba Revolt, 132–136. Apart from revolts, Messianism grew in popularity Labbe, 2012; Seeman, 2013; Strauss, 2025.

In a bid to maintain stability and dissuade rebellions in its Judean province, Rome deployed the stick more than it did the carrot. The imperial power did not hesitate to respond to Jewish dissidence with savagery never seen in its repression of revolts in other provinces of its empire. A good illustration is Rome's salvage crushing of the Bar Kokhba revolt. In response to this revolt, the Romans committed mass crucifixion of the rioters and changed the name of the country from Judea (land of the Jews) to Syria-Palestina, or simply Palestina (land of the Philistines). This savagery was unprecedented in modern history. The Romans had never punished a rebellious province of their empire by changing its name.



Figure 1: Palestine during the Time of Herod the Great and His Sons.

Source: <https://www.britannica.com/biography/Jesus/The-Jewish-religion-in-the-1st-century>

Thus, the Jewish people’s constant rebellions against Rome were consequential. They led to the loss of thousands of Jewish lives and the reduction of many survivors to slavery and exile. The rebellions also caused the relegation of Jews to the status of second-class citizens in their own country. Strauss (2025) affirms that the many bloody revolts put the future of Jewish survival in question, as they pushed Rome to destroy the Jewish capital of Jerusalem and its crowning glory, the Temple. Strauss (2025) writes, “Rome ended the daily sacrifices that marked the heart of Judaism and ruined the priesthood who carried them out. Rome decimated the largest and most prestigious Jewish Diaspora community in the Roman Empire: the Jews of Egypt. As if to add insult to injury, the Romans changed the name of the country from Judea (‘land of the Jews’) to Syria Palaestina” (p.5). Seeman (2013) similarly observes the brutality of Rome in the following terms:

*In 70 AD, as punishment for rebellion, the Roman legions burned and razed Jerusalem’s temple, the irreplaceable center of Jewish piety. Adding insult to injury, Jews everywhere were compelled to transfer their yearly contributions for the defunct sanctuary to the shrine of Rome’s state god, Jupiter Capitolinus, an annual reminder of their subjugation. In the wake of two more failed revolts, Jews were forbidden to set foot in Jerusalem, and for some time, their religious observances became the target of official repression. By the mid-2nd century AD, Rome had secured its place among Israel’s oppressors. (Seeman, 2013)*

Rome’s crude approach to quenching revolts, dissuading dissent, and maintaining stability accounts for the abysmal image it had in the Jewish popular imaginary. The specter of Rome cast a menacing shadow over the Jewish imagination. In this imagination, most Jewish people associated Rome with crude violence, oppression, immorality, and cultural pollution. (Seeman, 2013) explains that in Midrashic texts, Rome is constantly described in the role of Esau/Edom, Israel’s fraternal nemesis. Similarly, in apocalyptic texts, Rome is depicted as either Babylon, the wicked city par excellence, or the fourth

kingdom in Daniel's interpretation of Nebuchadnezzar's dream. This fourth kingdom is depicted as being a power that is as strong as iron, crushing and breaking all that stand in its way.

It is against this backdrop that the story of Jesus is narrated in the Gospel. Manifestations of Rome's oppressive rule appear in many articulations of the gospel story, from Jesus birth to his death. For instance, Mary (mother of Jesus) and Joseph are compelled by an edict of Caesar Augustus, to go to Bethlehem for the census (Luke 2: 4-7). Another order from Herod authorizes the massacre of children in the same Bethlehem, thereby fulfilling Jeremiah's prophecy of sorrow in Ramah (Mathew 2:16). Elements hinting at the Roman census and oppressive taxation system are replete in the gospel story. For instance, Jesus is on some occasions, compelled to pay taxes on entering certain cities of the province (Mathew 17: 24-27; Mathew 22: 15-12). At other points, Jesus is compelled to elude questions pertaining to Roman taxation. Using a coin that bears the image of Caesar, Jesus teaches his followers to render to Caesar what is Caesar's and to God what is God's (Mark 12:17). Another illustration of the Romans' oppressive presence is subtly hinted at by Barabbas dissidence. Actually, Barabbas is the notorious prisoner the crowd (incited by the elders and chief priests) beseeches Pontius Pilate to release instead of Jesus during Pilate's Passover custom of freeing a prisoner (Mathew 27: 15-26). Barabbas is known to be an insurrectionist who wanted to overthrow the Roman government and save the Jews.

Perhaps the most obvious representation of Rome's oppressive rule is found in the gospels' account of the passion of Jesus Christ (Matthew 26 to 28). The account reveals that Jesus was crucified under the authority of Pontius Pilate, the governor of Judea. This governor finds no fault in Jesus's actions but succumbs to the pressure of the crowd who want Jesus crucified for perceived blasphemy. During Jesus's crucifixion, the Roman soldiers apply Rome's *lex Puteolana* ("laws of Puteoli"), which, in ancient times, regulated how crucifixions were to be carried out in the entire Roman Empire. In substance, this *lex Puteolana* stipulated that anyone sentenced to death by crucifixion must carry their cross (the *patibulum* or horizontal beam) to the site of the execution and be scourged (with a flagellum) by a four-man squad. The victim should thereafter be nailed to their cross at a strategic, mostly public, place. This public cruelty, humiliation, and death served as public shaming and a serious warning against any potential rebellions to Rome's authority (Cook, 2014, 2019). The representation of Roman soldiers in all four gospels' accounts of the passion of the Christ mention all the aforementioned aspects of the Roman penal system. Tuningen (as cited by Cook, 2019) establishes a synchrony between the Gospel of John and historical texts on the Roman type of crucifixion. He notes that: When the magistrate ("public" crucifixions) has to execute an individual by crucifixion, the law mentions pitch and wax, which were used to torture the victims with fire. In classical Latin texts, incidentally, the individual to be crucified never carried a *crux* (vertical beam or entire cross) but only the *patibulum* (horizontal piece). When a criminal carried the *patibulum*, the *crux* (vertical beam, in this case) was already in place. This implies that in John 19:17, Jesus only carried the horizontal member of the cross to Golgotha, since Pilate would have followed Roman procedure (Cook, 2019)

Thus, the gospel story bears various indices pointing to Rome's brutality and oppressive rule in Judea, as well as the Jewish people's abysmal perceptions of this Roman oppression. Gospel accounts represent the crucifixion itself as one of the strongest symbols of Roman domination and oppression in Judea.

## Rome's Image in Literal Film Adaptations of the Gospel Story

Ancient Rome has an ambivalent image in the modern world. Indeed, while admired in some quarters for its military strategists and high level of administrative organization, the empire is popularly regarded as a breeding ground for some of the cruelest popular cultures. These cultures range from a high dependence on slavery and gladiatorial combat to tyrannical rule and expansionist policies (Cufurovic, 2018). Thus, popular fantasy associates this ancient empire with many contradictions. Positive stereotypes suggest that ancient Rome exerted attraction because of its sage philosophers (notably Cicero, Seneca, and Marcus Aurelius), influential poets, and cultural syncretism. The empire's culture was lauded for its richness and diversity. It blended elements from Greek, Etruscan, and other cultures. Roman cultural assimilation not only enabled a diverse culture but also fostered an inclusive society. Positive stereotypes also underline Rome's egalitarian legal system, which codified laws applicable to all citizens (Brunet, 2002; Redonet, 2019). Such positive stereotypes also laud the empire's architecture and road networks, which revealed the prowess of the empire's engineers. Structures such as aqueducts and the Colosseum (see Figure 2) attest to the genius of Roman architects and engineers. In addition, ancient Rome is popularly praised for its urban planning pioneers, architectural innovations, military discipline, and highly organized and efficient nature.



Figure 2: A side view of the Colosseum. Source: <https://italien.news/en/travel/lazio/rome/colosseum/>

Despite these positive stereotypes, the empire is simultaneously associated with a number of negativisms, some of which are directly related to the Roman political and military systems. Gloomy stereotypes represent Rome as tyrannical and oppressive vis-à-vis non-Roman identities and ethnicities (Leymann, 2012; Redonet, 2019). Although credited for their discipline and efficacy, the Roman military and judicial systems are popularly associated with authoritarianism, brutality, and cruelty. The imperialist and expansionist policies of the empire have motivated critics to view ancient Romans as a people bent on subjugating and conquering other people. Similarly, the recrudescence of military conquests, harsh punishments (notably crucifixion), and gladiatorial games in ancient Rome push today's society to regard ancient Romans as brutal and violent people. Other negative stereotypes are rooted in issues such as Rome's heavy dependence on slavery, its harsh and depersonalizing treatment of slaves, and its religious intolerance, particularly during its persecution of early Christians. Also worth mentioning are stereotypes that border on Rome's sense of superiority over other cultures and those related to its heavy taxation and rigid social hierarchy (particularly in its conquered provinces).

The aforementioned imaginary around ancient Rome is simultaneously fueled by and reflected in world cinema and television, from Mankiewicz's *Cleopatra* (1963), through Scott Ridley's *Gladiator* (2000), to Flinth's *Arn: Knight Templar* (2007) and *Spartacus* (see Koutsourakis, 2021; Michelakis & Wyke, 2013; Potter & Gardner, 2022; Theodorakopoulos, 2010). A plethora of historical and mythological epic films suggests a fascination with ancient Rome. In line with this, Sam Leith notes that many Hollywood epic films set in ancient Rome vividly relay stereotypes about the empire's moral decline, militaristic nature, and adoption of cruel entertainment. He writes, "The attraction of classical antiquity to filmmakers has never been hard to fathom: it has sex (from Theda Bara's heavy-lidded *Cleopatra* in 1917, the idea of the ancients being constantly 'At It' has persisted), violence (plenty of scope for gladiatorial hurly burly and epic battles) and grand narrative. Greco-Roman antiquity offers filmmakers a giant out-of-copyright myth kitty" (as cited in Elliot, 2014). Similarly, Blanshard and Shahabudin (2011) observe that films such as Kurbrick's *Spartacus* (1960), among other things, evoke the social and political status of the gladiator in ancient Roman society. The film raises the issue of the marginality of the gladiator, a "well-trained lump of meat at once revolting and alluring" (Blanshard & Shahabudin, 2011). The film also invites a two-fold focus of criticism: the gladiator as an illustration of ancient Roman entertainment and as a slave who suffers socio-political discrimination and resists oppression. Thus, *Spartacus* evokes issues of social inequalities, slavery, moral decline, and oppression that plagued ancient Roman society.

Literal adaptations of the gospel story – from Nicholas Ray’s *The King of Kings* (1961), and Stevens’s *The Greatest Story ever Told* (1965) to Mel Gibson’s *The Passion of the Christ* (2004) – similarly relay many of the anti-Roman stereotypes mentioned above. Gibson’s film dwells on the oppressive, depersonalizing, and cruel facets of ancient Rome’s judicial system as well as the Romans’ sense of cultural superiority. Indeed, much of the excruciating violence depicted in the film goes a long way to evoke the many myths about Roman moral decadence, cruel punishment, and tyrannical rule in Judea. This can be illustrated using at least four narrative and aesthetic resources from the film.

First, Gibson deploys a series of uprisings imagery in his film that is reminiscent of the historical Roman-Jewish tense relations. The uprisings are depicted in the scenes of Jesus’s trial before Pontius Pilate and Herod. When Jesus is brought before the Roman governor (Pontius Pilate) for judgement, a college of Jewish priests and the crowd intensely pressure the Roman administrators to crucify Jesus. To the Jews, Pilate’s acceptance of Jesus’ crucifixion will serve as a sign of Rome’s respect for Judaist traditions. Pilate’s hesitation and attempt to release Jesus after scouraging irritate the crowd and cause immediate Jewish agitation, which in turn warrants muscular intervention from Roman soldiers. The violent repression of Jewish uprisings in these trial scenes is reminiscent of the tense Roman-Jewish relations in ancient times. As many historians have underlined, these relations range from non-violent protests to muscular rejection of Roman rule (Bryan, 2005; Seeman, 2013). Thus, the inclusion of Jewish uprisings in *The Passion of the Christ* follows more from Gibson’s interpretation of historical sources than from his understanding of scriptural evidence. In effect, the gospel accounts of Jesus’s trial before Pontius Pilate and Herod do not mention the outbreak of Jewish uprisings.

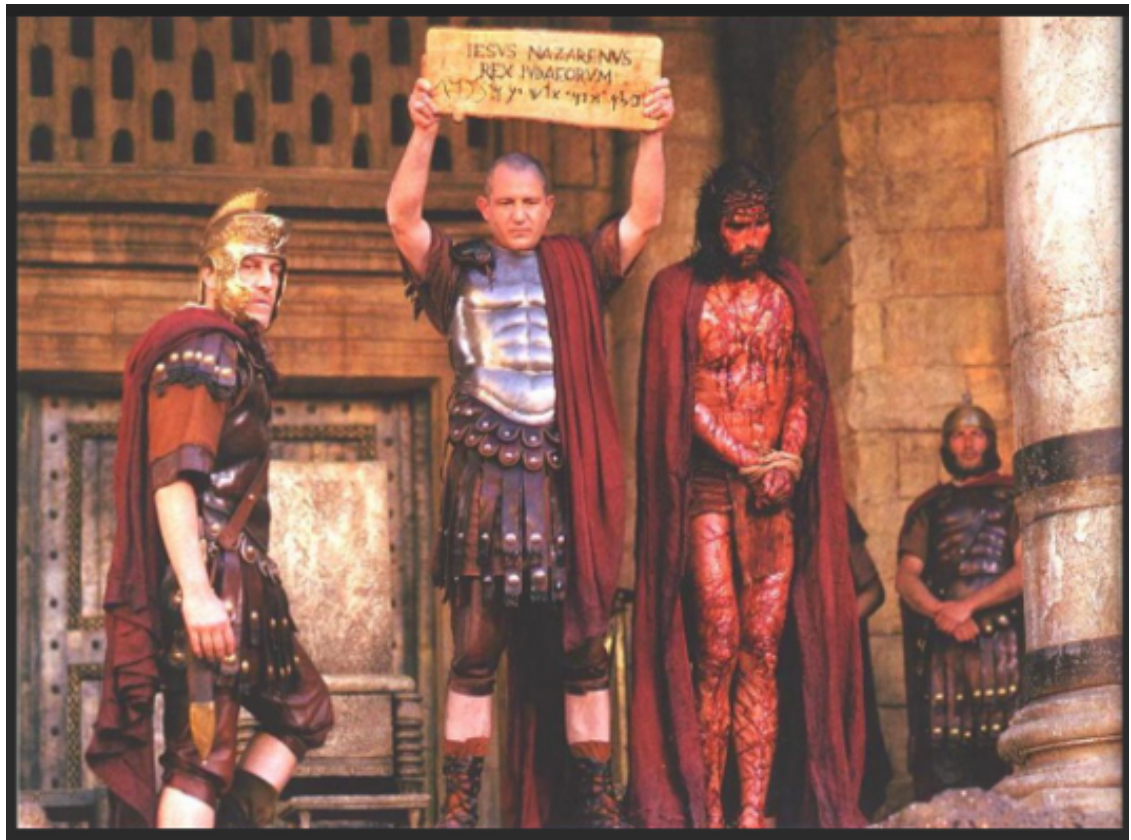


Figure 3: Jesus’s Trial before Pontius Pilate (Extract from Gibson’s *The Passion of the Christ*). Source: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UqGqfXksv7A>

Second, Gibson alludes to stereotypes pointing to Roman moral decadence. This allusion is again made in the scene depicting Jesus’s trial before Herod. In fact, the Roman ruler in this scene is depicted as an effeminate person and a lover of sensual pleasures. His court is dominantly homosexual and engrossed in the same sensual pleasures. Through these indexes of voluptuousness, Gibson points to ancient Jewish perceptions of Rome as a purveyor of sexual immorality and as Babylon par excellence. Through this scene, Gibson perpetuates the age-old Hollywood tradition of juxtaposing Rome’s sinfulness with

Jewish/Christian purity. A similar approach had earlier been observed in De Milles's *The Sign of the Cross* (1936), a film that represents ancient Rome dominantly through sex(ualized) imageries.

Third, Gibson emphasizes the cruelty of ancient Roman punishment (see Figure 3). The film director does this through a horrifying depiction of Jesus's flagellation and ultimate execution. This depiction shows the Roman soldiers' savagery and quasi-animalistic attitude towards the physical body of Jesus Christ. Such savagery is particularly seen in the soldiers' tearing and lamination of Jesus's flesh, their repetitive insults, their spilling of innocent blood, and finally, their gruesome nailing of Christ to his cross. Thus, Gibson's execution of Jesus graphically calls to mind the excruciating nature of the Roman institution of crucifixion. The film director's resort to horror porn as an aesthetic resource helps depict the gloomy aspects of the ancient Roman legal system. This aesthetic choice is, in itself, aimed at foregrounding the negative social representations of Rome. Gibson's film thus deconstructs his predecessors' reductionist and euphemistic representations of ancient Roman punishment on one hand and draws audiences' attention to the significance of Jesus's sacrifice on the way to Calvary. As noted by Gaye (2013), much artwork of Jesus's crucifixion tends to portray a fairly sanitized version of the crucifixion, even though its cruelty was well known in the ancient world. Jesephus (as cited in Finney, 2013) highlights such cruelty when he associates crucifixion with the "most miserable of death." Seneca similarly evokes the gore of crucifixion as follows:

*Tell me, is death so wretched? He asks for the climax of suffering; what does he gain thereby? It is merely the boon of a longer existence. But what sort of life is a lingering death? Can anyone be found who would prefer wasting away in pain, dying limb by limb, or letting out his life drop by drop, rather than expiring once and for all? Can any man be found willing to be fastened to the accursed tree, long sickly, already deformed, swelling with ugly tumors on his chest and shoulders, and draw the breath of life amid long-drawn-out agony? I think he would have had many excuses for dying even before mounting the cross! (as cited in Gaye, 2013 , p.360)*

In the same line of thought, Welborn (2013) provides a summary of the barbarism and terror involved in the Roman form of crucifixion. The summary hints at ways in which the culture of crucifixion not only perpetrated a gloomy system of racial marginalization, as it mostly targeted slaves and non-Roman citizens, but also contributed to tarnishing the image of ancient Rome. Welborn (2013) states:

*Just outside the Esquiline Gate at Rome, on the road to Tibur, was a horrific place where crosses were routinely set up for the punishment of slaves. There a torture and execution service was operated by a group of funeral contractors, who were open to business from private citizens and public authorities alike. There slaves were flogged and crucified at a charge to their masters of 4 sesterces per person [...] Varro mentions rotting corpses; Horace speaks of whitened bones; Juvenal describes the way in which the Esquiline vulture disposed of the bodies [...] An inscription from Puteoli confirms that such places of execution, with crosses and other instruments of torture, were found throughout Italy and probably outside the gates of every large city in the Roman Empire. At these places of execution, it is impossible not to recognize the real reason for the silence of the upper class with respect to crucifixion: crucifixion was the "slaves' punishment" (Welborn, 2013, p.136)*

It could therefore be argued that through his graphic portrayal of Jesus's execution, Gibson questions the usual sanitized representations of crucifixion that do not fully capture the weight of Jesus's sacrifice for, the eternal salvation of humanity. The film director favorably responds to historical sources that present the crucifixion practice as one of Rome's depersonalizing institutions and barbarism. Thus, critics who associate Gibson's use of horror porn in *The Passion of the Christ* exclusively with an urge to follow post-9/11 aesthetic currents and with antisemitism (Godowa, 2025; Hammer & Douglass, 2007; Ludemann, 2004) , are losing sight of the film director's attempts to vividly depict the cruel cultures of ancient Rome. However, it should be emphasized that although punctuated with violence porn that symbolizes Rome's brutality, Mel Gibson's *Passion of the Christ* does not romanticize the suffering of Jesus or the cruelty of Rome.

Fourth, Gibson raises the issue of the Romans' sense of superiority over other races. This is sufficiently evident in the crucifixion scene where the Roman soldiers charged with the duty of executing Jesus, despise the Jewish crowd of onlookers and at some point, use the term "Jew" as insult against Simon of Cyrene, a bystander who, upon request, volunteers to help Jesus carry his cross to Golgotha. The insult scene points not only to Rome's consideration of Jewish culture (particularly religious traditions) as strange, but also to its habit of viewing its culture as superior to that of other peoples. Gibson's

aesthetic choice here is therefore in line with many historical sources contending that, from Cicero to Julius Caesar, the Romans tended to portray foreign cultures through a lens of superiority and bias. They tended to disregard the humanity and worth of other cultures and likely considered stereotypes to promote Roman superiority. For instance, Cicero believed that the Jews and Syrians were naturally suited for servitude (Seeman, 2013; Strauss, 2025; Woolf, 2021).

## Rome in Symbolic African Adaptations of the Gospel Story

As mentioned earlier, Rome's imperialistic rule over Judea shapes the way in which the gospel narrative unfolds. Indeed, Rome – as an imperialistic force – appears at nearly every turn of Jesus story, although not controlling God's purpose (Brohm, 2011; Vocational Bible School, 2005). It is therefore difficult to narrate the gospel story without mentioning the Roman agency. In line with this, it has often been challenging for film directors who set the gospel story in a purely African context to avoid or downplay Rome in their culturally sensitive adaptations (Ahearne-Kroll, 2022; Baugh, 2011; Hammer & Douglass, 2007). In this section, we focus on how these film directors' choice to erase, downplay, or semiotize Rome's imperialistic influences in their films often generates serious aesthetic issues.

### The Downplay Approach: Case of Collins Chidiebe's "Cross of Jesus" (2023)

Film directors who downplay Rome in African Jesus films usually deploy very loose adaptations of the gospel story. The African twists they bring to the gospel narrative most often overlook the Roman-Jewish power dynamics and generally simplify the plot to the life of a certain Black Jesus whose influence in a local Black community affects power dynamics and whose spiritual mission and doctrine threaten some local spiritualities and traditions. Simplifying the adapted narrative to a Christian vs non-Christian god issue is, however, hardly coherent, particularly where the film director chooses to maintain crucifixion (a symbol of Rome) as the way through which their Black Jesus is executed. This can be illustrated using Collins Chidiebe's Cross of Jesus (2023).

Chidiebe's film recounts the story of an Igbo young man called Kelechi who becomes Jesus's incarnate thanks to a divine miracle. As Christ incarnate, he recruits twelve local apostles and embarks on an evangelical and salvific mission in his animist village. He authoritatively preaches the gospel, challenges local inhumane traditions, performs all of Jesus's miracles, and forgives the sins of repentant villagers. He pulls crowds from near and far, including the close relatives of the village king (the Igwe). In the face of his big and consequential powers, the villagers guess that he is a powerful native doctor or an ancient prophet. Only a few village dwellers, particularly his apostles, see him as Christ, the messiah whose coming has been prophesied by various oracles.



Figure 4: Jesus's Trial before the Village King in Chidiebe's "Cross of Jesus" (a symbolic representation of the gospels' accounts of Jesus trial before Pontius Pilate. Source: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e5AQcS0JkwI>

Kelechi's growing influence in the village soon attracts both envy and the raft of the village elders. Viewing the young man's influence as a threat to the village indigenous religion as well as to their own political influence in the community, these village elders connive to set and eliminate Kelechi. One of Kelechi's apostles helps them (the village elders) for a handsome pay of 500 thousand Naira (Nigerian currency). The village elders kidnap Kelechi, drag him to a sham trial before the village king, and secure the execution of the young man. Chidiebe's choice to eliminate cultural and historical references to the ancient Roman Empire from his film (see Figure 4) is, to some extent, justified, given its alignment with Black Liberation theology and African Cultural Hermeneutics. By such an alignment, Chidiebe's re-invented Jesus story is set in a modern-day Nigerian community, which, culturally speaking, is very-distant from Rome. Despite this fascinating aesthetic choice and adaptive approach, the film director's decision to omit Rome's imperial influence in his film seems incoherent. Despite the omission, he deploys crucifixion (an ancient Roman punishment) in a film set in modern-day Igbo land. This choice, which is irrespective of the cultural specificities of Nigerian societies, relays the gospel's gloomy representation of Rome, but creates some technological, contextual, and historical anachronisms that affect the overall aesthetics of the film.

By definition, an anachronism is a situation where elements of a film – say costumes, language, props/technologies, and the like – are inaccurately placed in a historical setting (Gorfinkel, 2023). Good examples include the use of very sophisticated technologies (notably Android telephones) in a film set before their invention. In Chidiebe's *Cross of Jesus*, the deployment of crucifixion (as punishment for offenses) is culturally and historically anachronistic to the Nigerian society depicted in the film's narrative. This is so despite the fact that it serves as a strong symbol of Christianity and faith. Thus, Chidiebe's reluctance to deconstruct and adapt Roman crucifixion to an Igbo context affects the coherence of his plot and the general aesthetics of his Black Jesus film.

### Semiotics as Approach

Instead of downplaying or eliminating references to Rome, some film directors semiotize or sublimate key institutions of the Roman Empire in their African adaptations of the gospel story. A case in point is Tchidi Chikere's film *Our Jesus Story* (2020). This film follows the life of a young man called Tubiika who is condemned to death in an African, visibly Nigerian, village. By chance, he escapes from this

village to a faraway city. A few years later, he converts to Christianity and receives a divine call to return to his village and evangelize his brothers. Tubiika accepts the call. On returning to his village, he finds the people still determined to kill him despite the long time that has passed since his escape. Contrary to the past, the converted Tubiika accepts his fate. He bears his cross in accordance with the divine call he has recently received.

Like Collins Chidiebe (in *The Cross of Jesus*), Tchidi Chikere embraces the two concepts of Black Liberation Theology and African Cultural Hermeneutics. This spurs him to eliminate all historical and cultural references to Rome from the plot of his film, except for the crucifixion. In tandem with this, his Black Jesus is finally executed by crucifixion and not by a traditional Nigerian/African method of punishment (as one would have expected). In addition to this aesthetic choice, the film director deploys Roman military costumes that are clearly reminiscent of Roman military discipline and the legal system (see Figure 5). Roman tunics are a symbol of ancient Rome (a phenomenon that is historically and culturally distant from sub-Saharan African societies). These costumes are also indicative of the fact that the film director seeks to evoke Roman's agency in the crucifixion, albeit covertly. To some extent, this aesthetic choice breeds contextual and historical anachronisms.



Figure 5: Flagellation Scene in Tchidi Chikere's *Our Jesus Story*. Source: <https://web.facebook.com/watch/?v=3693319020741834>

By maintaining the crucifixion in his film (see Figure 6), Chikere rather perpetrates a Hollywood literalist tradition. This literalist approach consists of representing Jesus's life in a way that is faithful to the gospel account. This choice concerns only the part of Chikere's film that deals with Jesus' death. This choice is surprisingly contrary to the rest of his adaptation, which is symbolic. Mixing literalist and symbolic approaches to adapting the gospel story is problematic: it makes Chikere's film the product of aesthetic cacophony. Thus, by superimposing cultural references to Rome on an African story, Chikere generates anachronisms and cacophonous representations.



Figure 6: The Crucifixion Scene in Tchidi Chikere's *Our Jesus Story*. Source: <https://web.facebook.com/watch/?v=3693319020741834>

One of the relatively effective ways of semiotizing ancient Rome in African Black Jesus films is viewed in Mark Dornford-May's *Son of Man* (2006). Starring an all-African cast, the film gives a South African twist to the gospel accounts of Jesus's crucifixion and resurrection. It tells the story of a religious leader (known as the Son of Man [Andile Kosi]) who grows his spiritual movement in the troubled fictitious state of Judea in southern Africa. This state is plagued by violence, poverty, and political corruption, among other social anomalies. When a civil war breaks out in the state, Jesus urges his followers to forsake warfare and cultivate nonviolence and peace. He also teaches them to embrace compassion, unity, and collective dialogue, and exhorts them to flee from all forms of corruption. His teachings are so tolerable to the local oppressive and authoritarian leadership that no one in power sees him as a political threat.

However, one of his disciples, Judas (Jim Hgxabaze), secretly meets with the state's authorities and frames the Son of Man as a growing threat to society. This betrayal lures the authorities into incarcerating, interrogating, and torturing Jesus to force him to abandon his spiritual mission. Jesus resists the authorities' pressure but is unfortunately murdered, buried and later exhumed and nailed publicly to a cross for all citizens of the town to view his corpse. Later, Jesus resurrects and urges his followers to sing praises of God in homage to his movement. He also encouraged them (his disciples) to work for the growth of the movement. Released two years after Gibson's *The Passion of the Christ*, May's very acclaimed *Son of Man* is a symbolic representation of both the gospels' accounts of Jesus's death and the horrors of the apartheid regime in South Africa. The film juxtaposes the sufferings of Black communities in apartheid South Africa with those of the Jewish people during Roman rule in ancient times.

Although characterized by a number of contextual and historical anachronisms (see [Ahearne-Kroll, 2022](#); [Griere, 2013](#); [West, 2013](#)), May's *Son of Man* is intelligently set in apartheid South Africa. This setting makes sense as it enables the evocation of imperialism and racial marginalization, two vices that are comparable to Rome's attitude towards the Jews in Jesus's days. In many of its scenes, *Son of Man* artistically compares the horrors of the apartheid regime in South Africa with the negativism and gloominess of Roman rule over the Jews. The film is replete with references to South African people's experiences with apartheid that directly point to Rome's oppressive rule over the Jews in history and in the gospel accounts. A case in point is the gruesome execution of May's Jesus through a process that involves the latter's arbitrary arrest, detention, torture, murder in secret, and crucifixion. Except for the crucifixion, all the aforementioned violent approaches to intimidating and silencing anti-apartheid activists were in force in pre-1994 South African society. These brutal and oppressive systems are comparable to the Roman culture of dissuading rebellion and "high treason" against the empire. Hence, May added a posthumous crucifixion of Jesus. This crucifixion is visibly to make a symbolic association between Black anti-apartheid activists in South Africa and the oppressed Jews in ancient Rome.

Another reference to Rome in *Son of Man* is seen in the scene where Mary leads a group of Jesus's followers in a toyi-toyi dance in protest at the brutality that led to the death of Jesus. It should be emphasized that, as a dance/chant of resistance, toyi-toyi was constantly used by protesters in apartheid South Africa to defy colonialism and unjust policies. As noted by [Adejumobi \(2013\)](#), the dance was

“employed by political and labor leaders and domestic workers and mine workers as part of their revolutionary struggle” during both the anti-apartheid and decolonization movements in South Africa (Adejumobi, 2013). By juxtaposing this form of South African resistance with the death of Jesus in his film, May successfully evokes the many protests and uprisings deployed by Jewish rebels to protest Rome’s oppression. Thus, May’s film suggests that in the same ways the Jewish people suffered oppression from the Romans in the antiquity, so too Black communities in modern-days South Africa suffered political and cultural marginalization from the White-dominated apartheid regime.

Thus, May’s films followed the two currents of Black Liberation Theology and African Cultural Hermeneutics current - as Chikere’s and Chidiebe’s film did - but doesn’t fail to allude to Rome’s imperial influence. The South African film runs contrary to the Nigerian films (Cross of Jesus (2023) and Our Jesus Story (2020)) that omit imperialistic influences from some exogenous forces which remotely can be associated with Rome. It attempts to depict the cruelty of the Apartheid regime, which can be compared to Rome’s brutal conquest and imperialist rule over the Jews.

### 3 CONCLUSIONS

This study examined ancient Rome’s depiction in both literal and symbolic/metaphoric adaptations of the gospel story. It is argued that most of these adaptations sensibly relay the gloomy representations of Rome in the gospel accounts of Jesus’s death and resurrection. In literalist adaptations (notably Mel Gibson’s *The Passion of the Christ*), Rome is – in line with biblical texts – depicted as an oppressive force, a morally decadent culture, and even a barbaric force. This is achieved using various techniques. The same negative notion is suggested in symbolic Africa Jesus films, albeit via semiotics, subliminal cues, and cultural equivalence. This paper also showed how African Jesus filmmakers’ efforts to semi-otize and downplay Rome’s agency in their films usually lead to contextual, technological, and historical anachronisms. These aesthetic issues (anachronisms) mostly – if not essentially – arise from these African filmmakers’ reluctance to deconstruct and radically adapt the crucifixion of Jesus following African cultural sensibilities.

The arguments of this paper therefore imply that African makers of Black Jesus films should fully engage with African cultural specificities when they set their Jesus films in an African context. Mixing literalist and symbolic approaches to film adaptation in the same Black Jesus film may lead to aesthetic cacophonies and inconsistencies. Hence, this aesthetic choice may lead to relatively confusing representations of Jesus’s story in the film. This study focuses on the depictions of Rome in Black Jesus films. Future research may dwell on how both African and non-African audiences receive these filmic representations and how such representations fuel popular narratives about ancient Rome in other forms of popular culture in Africa.

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The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest

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FULL LENGTH ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# Trending Tensions: Social Media and Influencer Engagement in the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam Dispute

Sintayehu Gebru<sup>1\*</sup> , Mulatu Alemayehu<sup>2</sup> , and Samuel Tefera 

<sup>1</sup>College of Social Science, Arts and Humanities, Department of History and Archaeology, African Studies Program, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia

<sup>2</sup>University of Agder, Norway

\*Corresponding Author's email: [sench2393@gmail.com](mailto:sench2393@gmail.com)

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## Abstract

*The Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD) is a highly contentious issue in African and Middle Eastern geopolitics. This issue has led to extensive international and domestic discourse and negotiations. Social media can be regarded as a central stage for state and non-state actors to express themselves regarding the GERD issue and engage in informal forms of digital geopolitics. This study aims to examine the role of social media in shaping the GERD issue, with a specific emphasis on the Egyptian and Ethiopian perspectives, which are the most vocal and impactful contributors to this issue. This study employed a qualitative research approach and collected data through interviews with 18 key informants, including diplomats, geopolitical experts, social media influencers, state officials, international journalists and domestic advocates. The study used thematic analysis to extract meaning from key informants' interview data. The study found that social media has greatly altered the way the GERD issue is framed, emphasizing nationalism, counter-hegemonic narratives, misinformation and emotional framing. This study contributes to the existing literature on digital geopolitics by examining the role and impact of social media on conflict and conflict management. This study concludes that a deep understanding of the role and impact of social media can help resolve international and domestic conflicts, with a specific emphasis on the Nile River Basin.*

**Keywords:** GERD; social media; geopolitics; digital diplomacy; Nile Basin; Egypt; Ethiopia.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Digital geopolitics has become an inherent feature of international relations. As global interconnectedness has grown, social media platforms such as Facebook, X (formerly Twitter), YouTube, TikTok, and Telegram have played an important role as new political domains for debating and discussing geopolitical topics (Castells, 2009; Khatib, 2016).

These tools are also characterized by content that disseminates emotionally charged narratives (Pacharissi, 2015). One of the most important geopolitical issues in Africa and the Middle East, heavily influenced by social media, is the conflict over the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD) (Cascao et al., 2020). The GERD, built on the Blue Nile River by Ethiopia, symbolizes national and political development and sovereignty for the people of Ethiopia and poses a potential existential threat to the water security of the people of Egypt (Tafesse, 2020; Verhoeven, 2015).

Since the GERD project was declared, negotiations among Ethiopia, Egypt, and Sudan have been a cycle of cooperation and conflict (Cascao et al., 2020). While formal negotiations have taken place among the three countries and other international actors, such as the African Union, the public nature and scope of the GERD conflict have greatly expanded through social media (Bjola & Holmes, 2015). Social media sites have enabled governments, political elites, media personalities, and citizens to actively shape public narratives about the legitimacy, ecological impact, historical context, and geopolitical nature of the conflict over the GERD dam. This digitalization of the GERD conflict has turned the issue into a public debate with heavy emotional appeal.

The growing salience of social media in the GERD dispute reflects broader global trends. It is increasingly shaping foreign policy, public diplomacy and international conflicts (Manor, 2019). Scholars have highlighted the growing importance of social media as a forum for politics, in which power is exercised by shaping the discourse and the agenda (Castells, 2009). In the context of the GERD dispute, social media has been widely used to mobilize nationalism, legitimize interests, subvert international media narratives, and shape political leaders' policy stances, ranging from hardline to conciliatory (Frey, 2024). The issue is to critically examine how social media is reshaping international conflicts in the Global South, where historical grievances, postcolonial identities, and developmental aspirations converge.

The GERD social media debates call for a high demand for academic papers with fewer outputs. Even if there is increased awareness and social media debate about GERD, there are fewer academic studies on its specific trends, actors, and narratives triggered by the riparian countries. Most research on GERD has focused on legal issues, hydrogeopolitics, and diplomacy, without considering social media and online communication (Cascao et al., 2020; Tafesse, 2020). This study seeks to fill this research gap by exploring trends in social media communication concerning the GERD as a geopolitical issue, with special reference to Egypt and Ethiopia. By prioritizing the voices of key informants from diverse backgrounds and professions, this study aims to provide a comprehensive and in-depth qualitative examination of social media and GERD.

Research question: How have social media platforms influenced trends, narratives, and geopolitical issues concerning the GERD between Ethiopia and Egypt? To answer this research question, this study aims to accomplish the following three objectives. First, it identifies narratives and frames concerning the GERD and social media communication. Second, this study aims to identify and explore the roles of different actors in GERD and in social media communication. Finally, this study aimed to evaluate the impact of social media communication on GERD and GERD-related issues.

This study aims to use a qualitative research approach and conduct key informant interviews with 18 informants from diverse backgrounds and professions, including diplomats, geopolitical analysts, social media content creators, government officials, international journalists, and local advocates from Ethiopia and Egypt. Key informants were selected purposively following their active engagement in posting and writing reports on social media related to the GERD geopolitical debate. This research approach seeks to provide a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of social media and the GERD as a geopolitical issue from the perspectives and levels of different actors (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This study aims to provide thematic data on GERD and social media communication, seeking to provide a comprehensive understanding of complex issues.

The significance of this study lies in its contribution to digital geopolitics, international communication, and African studies. By focusing on the GERD as a case study, this paper highlights how social media reshapes transboundary water conflicts beyond traditional diplomatic arenas. This study also offers practical implications for policymakers, diplomats, and media practitioners seeking to manage geopolitical disputes in an increasingly digitalized public sphere. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: a review of the relevant literature on social media, geopolitics, and the GERD, followed by the theoretical framework. Next, the paper details the methodology, followed by the presentation of results and discussion of the findings. The final sections conclude with limitations and directions for future research.

## 2 Literature Review

### 2.1 Geopolitics of the Nile Basin and the GERD

The Nile River has been at the heart of East Africa's geopolitics and the politics of many other actors around the globe, serving both as a lifeline for the countries that share its waters and as a focal point of political tensions between them. Research on the Nile's politics has focused on the asymmetrical power relations between the involved countries, which favored the downstream states, especially Egypt, throughout the twentieth century (Cascao et al., 2020; Swain, 2018). Ethiopia, which contributes over 80 percent of the Nile's water through the Blue Nile, has been excluded from the Nile's decision-making process and has come to be seen by Ethiopian policymakers as a historical injustice.

The GERD's development represents a departure from the historical pattern in Nile River politics and has been studied extensively by scholars who commonly agree that it is a development strategy intended to assert Ethiopia's sovereignty and reassert its position in Nile River politics (Gebreluel, 2021; Verhoeven, 2018). For Ethiopia, the GERD represents national unification, post-colonialism, and modernity. However, Egyptian research and policy-oriented publications commonly portray the GERD as an illegal move by Ethiopia that can cause water insecurity and national instability, creating uncertainty about reservoir filling and drought risks (Abdel-Aal et al., 2023; Salman, 2020).

In light of recent research, the GERD conflict cannot be fully understood from hydrological or legal perspectives and must be considered in the context of geopolitical transformations in Africa and the Middle East. These transformations include shifts in regional alliances on one side and the weakening of Western mediators on the other, in favor of the African Union's increasing involvement in conflict resolution (Abdelhady & Helmy, 2021). These studies offer useful insights into the conflict and negotiations between Egypt and Ethiopia, focusing on state actors and the formal negotiation process while ignoring the impact of mediated public opinion on the conflict environment.

### 2.2 Social Media Trends in Egypt

Social media use in Egypt has significantly affected communication, social participation, and cultural production in the last decade. Egypt is Africa's largest digital market; therefore, the use of the Internet and other digital technologies is growing significantly. The use of Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, and Twitter is widespread among the Egyptian population (Kemp, 2025a). This has affected various aspects of Egyptian society, including commerce, politics, education, and the construction of identity, empowerment, and governance in Egypt. Youth are the core targets of the impact of social media use in Egyptian society. This is attributed to the fact that Egyptian society is still young. Egyptian youth use social media to express their identity and construct their sense of belonging. This is attributed to the limited spaces where young people meet (Gazzar, 2016). Social media use by youth has psychological, social, and cultural empowerment effects on youth (Shaaban, 2023), which is consistent with network society theory (Castells, 2012). In addition to the construction of identity and empowerment, it affects civic engagement and political awareness. In the past, it was argued to be an example of digital activism (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2011), but recent findings indicate that it is not (Tufekci, 2017).

In education, social media facilitates informal collaboration, networking, and knowledge sharing (Greenhow & Lewin, 2016; Ricks, 2022). It also facilitates hybrid learning, although it can be a distraction for students and create confusion between the personal and educational spheres. Overuse by young people can lead to anxiety, depression and poor academic performance (Keles et al., 2020). In the realm of economics, social media is important for entrepreneurship, marketing, and online business, representing a global phenomenon of platform economy (van Dijck et al., 2018). In the realm of institutions, the use of social media by the government is inconsistent, with a lack of strategic coordination despite efforts to enhance public engagement (Elsherbiny, 2015).

In conclusion, social media in Egypt can be considered a socio-technical system with a dynamic nature, as emphasized by van Dijck et al. (2018). It can be a source of empowerment, knowledge and engagement (Greenhow & Lewin, 2016; Valkenburg & Peter, 2011). It can also be a source of risk for individuals, education, and the government (Keles et al., 2020; Poell & van Dijck, 2018).

### 2.3 Social Media Trends in Ethiopia

Ethiopia's social media environment is constantly changing, driven by youth involvement, infrastructural limitations, and socio-political factors. Internet usage is still low but increasing, with approximately 8.3 million users [Kemp, 2025b](#). Despite the urban-rural gap and the dominance of Addis Ababa, social media is becoming increasingly important for communication and socialization. Social media has both negative and positive effects on education, contributing to poor performance and reduced productivity ([Alemayehu & Alamirew, 2023](#); [Mulisa & Getahun, 2018](#); [Tesfay et al., 2023](#)) and providing access to information and collaborative learning ([Tesfay et al., 2023](#)). This is also supported by other findings ([Greenhow & Lewin, 2016](#)), especially in limited-resource contexts. Social media has significant implications for democracy, including democratic participation and polarization, particularly during political instability ([Haile, 2024](#)). Social media has also been implicated in hate speech, particularly in ethnically mixed countries, resulting in government actions that infringe on the freedom of expression ([Gagliardone et al., 2015](#)).

Youth are at the heart of social media, using it to express identity, creativity, and economic opportunities, including digital entrepreneurship ([Mulisa & Getahun, 2018](#)). The Ethiopian diaspora also plays a role in the social media environment, contributing to information exchange and polarization ([Haile, 2024](#)). From a theoretical perspective, the Ethiopian case contributes to the networked public sphere, which emphasizes digital participation ([Tufekci, 2017](#)), as well as the diffusion of innovations, particularly the role of urban centers ([Rogers, 2003](#)).

In conclusion, the Ethiopian social media environment is marked by its complexity, with both enabling and constraining effects across education, democracy, and youth involvement. The role of the diaspora, urban-rural disparity, and government responses further illustrate how social media shapes and are shaped by Ethiopian society.

### 2.4 Social Media and Contemporary Geopolitics

It has been argued in the body of knowledge that the rise of social media has revolutionized the production and dissemination of geopolitical knowledge. For instance, it has been asserted that the rise of social media has transformed geopolitics from a state-centric activity to a more fluid concept involving journalists, activists, influencers, and users ([Miskimmon et al., 2017](#)). This has resulted in the development of a new concept referred to as "popular geopolitics," which explores the construction of geopolitical knowledge through the lens of media practices rather than through official policy discourse.

It is argued in the body of knowledge that the geopolitical significance of social media lies in its ability to accelerate the flow of information, personalizes political narratives, and bridge the gap between domestic and foreign policy issues. For instance, it has been asserted in the body of knowledge that social media has become an increasingly important tool in the hands of states as a form of strategic communication. Simultaneously, social media has been used by non-state actors to contest state narratives ([Bjola & Manor, 2018](#); [Frey, 2024](#)). In this regard, it has been argued in the body of knowledge that social media has become a key tool in the hands of non-state actors. At the same time, it has been asserted in the body of knowledge that social media has a tendency to privilege conflict over analysis. It has been asserted in the body of knowledge that social media has an ambivalent role in conflict situations. For instance, it has been argued in the body of knowledge that social media has been used in conflict situations to raise awareness and engage citizens. At the same time, it has been asserted in the body of knowledge that social media has a tendency to polarize audiences. In this regard, it has been argued in the body of knowledge that social media has a tendency to lead to digital nationalism ([Bradshaw & Howard, 2018](#)). In recent times, it has been asserted in the body of knowledge that geopolitical conflicts are increasingly being fought through a form of online narrative competition ([Jackson, 2026](#)). In this regard, it has been argued in the body of knowledge that legitimacy, victimhood, and memory have become key symbolic resources in conflict situations.

## 2.5 Research Gaps

Plans for ameliorating the environmental impacts of assorted activities downstream from the GERD are disconnected from existing scholarship on the GDMS, with little attention paid to social media shaping geopolitical narratives [Cascao et al., 2020](#); [Tafesse, 2020](#). The literature discussing the contribution of social media to wider land geopolitics is indeed growing, though these tend to have theoretical slants in relation to an overrepresentation of Global North geographic regions with limited empirical focus relevant to African contexts [Willems and Mano, 2017](#). When studies address the African digital sphere, they frequently treat social media as a means of passively transmitting information rather than as an active battleground of contestation, identity construction, or diplomacy signaling.

However, some critical gaps remain in the literature, such as the gap between practitioners and scholars, where analyses of GERD-related discourse are rarely conducted from the perspective of those who produce, curate, and respond to social media content: diplomats, international journalists, government officials, civil society activists, digital creators, and local community voices. This lack of social ecology to explore norms shaping media narratives around water means that the mechanisms through which such stories are framed, amplified, or curbed in transboundary conflict contexts remain opaque. Accordingly, the intersections of digital diplomacy on strategic communication and hydro politics in the Nile Basin have yet to be studied empirically by those directly embedded in the conflict.

To fill this scholarly gap, this study employs a qualitative and actor-centered methodology situated at the intersection of critical geopolitics, communication studies, and digital diplomacy. The approach is organized around three analytical and methodological commitments.

1. **Qualitative depth-key informant interviews:** The research is based on 18 semi-structured key informant interviews (KII) drawn from a purposive and intentional heterogeneous sampling of diplomats, international journalists, civil society activists, local actors, and digital content creators identified by the authors independent survey of their social media activities on the GERD in both Egypt and Ethiopia.
2. **Cross-disciplinary analytical framework:** Instead of analyzing the question within a single disciplinary lens, this study incorporates two interdisciplinary frameworks: framing theory and critical geopolitics.
3. **Comparative examination across two countries:** This study shifts the focus to both Egypt and Ethiopia instead of defaulting to one country, providing a symmetrical analytical framework that shows how actors on each side create narratives that compete or oppose others' narratives through social media.

Combined, these three commitments prepare the study for a unique empirical and theoretical contribution: this is both the first actor-grounded contemporary cross-disciplinary account of social media trend shaping geopolitical impacts in an ongoing African trans-boundary water conflict (practitioner gap with regional data; interdisciplinary gap).

## 2.6 Theoretical Framework

This study adopts an interdisciplinary theoretical approach, drawing on popular geopolitics, framing theory, and digital diplomacy. Such an approach promises to provide a rich analytical tool for investigating the role of social media in the construction of geopolitics, power dynamics, and public engagement in the case of the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD). In this sense, the approach moves beyond state-centric and materialistic understandings of geopolitics.

### 2.6.1 Popular Geopolitics

This perspective combines elements of cultural studies theory, discourse analysis, and critical geopolitics theory, focusing on the social mediation of geopolitical knowledge. As mentioned in the foundational works of geopolitics theory by [Dalby and Tuathail \(1996\)](#) geopolitics is not just about territory or military capabilities; it is also about narratives, symbols, and meanings. Thus, the popular geopolitics

perspective explores how the practice of everyday life—ranging from dinner table talk to blockbuster films—sustains geopolitical imaginaries (Dodds, 2018; Kirsch & Flint, 2016)

The rise of digital media technologies, such as social networking, in the twenty-first century has greatly magnified the phenomenon of popular geopolitics in international relations. Unlike traditional mass media, which mediated geopolitical discourses through journalistic institutions, the rise of social media technologies in the twenty-first century has enabled the decentralized mediation of these discourses. Ordinary people in the twenty-first century create, edit, and disseminate geopolitical discourses at an unprecedented rate (Papacharissi, 2015; Sommerville, 2024). However, the rise of social media technologies in the twenty-first century has also heightened the politics of meaning in international relations, with Twitter, Facebook, and TikTok becoming platforms for shaping the public meaning of conflict, border disputes, refugees, and nationalism in international relations (Abdelhady and Helmy, 2021; Lutz and Hoffmann, 2017).

In addition, the logic of algorithmic social media plays a significant role in shaping geopolitical content and making it visible, which eventually generates affective engagement that might shape political opinions and mobilize collective action on geopolitical issues (Couldry and Hepp, 2017; Fuchs, 2017). For instance, hashtags about wars and human rights abuses are sites of state propaganda and counter-hegemony, demonstrating how geopolitics are co-produced by a diverse range of social actors within digital spaces (Bergh, 2020; Zuckerman, 2014). Therefore, popular geopolitics challenges elite-centric theories of understanding geopolitical issues by showing that geopolitical meanings are not solely created, contested, and reified by institutional actors but are also co-produced, contested, and reified through cultural texts, media practices and discourse. While social media has extended the scope of popular geopolitics, it has also made it more complicated.

In the GERD context, popular geopolitics is particularly relevant because the dispute is deeply embedded in national identity narratives, historical memories, and postcolonial sensibilities. For Ethiopian users, social media discourse frequently frames the GERD as a symbol of dignity, self-reliance, and resistance to historical marginalization. In contrast, Egyptian online narratives often emphasize existential vulnerability, historical rights to the Nile River, and regional stability. These competing imaginaries are continuously reproduced, contested, and amplified through digital platforms, making popular geopolitics a crucial lens for understanding the conflict's public dimensions.

### 2.6.2 Framing Theory

Framing is an important factor in the perception of threats, actors, responsibilities, and actions in geopolitics. In the aftermath of the 9/11 attacks, media framing of "terrorism" highlighted the threat, foe, and solution, thus increasing support for the military and surveillance (Altheide, 2006; Entman, 2004). In the case of immigration in Europe and North America, immigrants were portrayed as contributing to the economy or as threats (van Gorp, 2010; Wodak, 2010).

Framing theory is grounded in news media and is thus applicable to social media and other forms of digital media (Chong & Druckman, 2007; Pan & Kosicki, 2001). An important factor in social media framing is the "affective economy," in which algorithms prioritize emotions and drama (Couldry & Hepp, 2017; Papacharissi, 2015). In the context of geopolitics, this has led to oversimplified accounts of conflict in which heroes and villains abound (Bruns & Burgess, 2015; Highfield, 2016). Iconic images of conflict or other dramatic scenes can powerfully shape our perception of the world by linking images to moral judgments and actions (Amponsah, 2024; Happer & Philo, 2013). These images can highlight humanitarian crises or threats, such as those in refugee camps or conflict zones.

Social media platforms can create a networked and participatory culture. This, in turn, helps users and influencers collectively create and share meanings (Carver, 2025; Castells, 2012). The #BlackLivesMatter and #SaveAleppo movements demonstrate the power of social media to frame global discourse and mobilize action, taking a person's case (Aelst et al., 2017; Freelon et al., 2016). However, this has also enabled governments and other actors to engage in "computational propaganda" (Bradshaw and Howard, 2018; Woolley and Howard, 2016).

Overall, the framing theory is an important factor in understanding the negotiation and contestation of meaning in social media geopolitics. Social media is not just a reflection of existing meaning but a transformation of meaning into emotions and drama. The application of framing theory to the GERD

issue demonstrates the role of social media frames, such as the concepts of sovereignty, survival, development, injustice, and cooperation, in the strategic environment. The interviewees identified framing effects and used frames to target different audiences. Therefore, framing theory is useful for analyzing the role of social media narratives in the GERD issue.

### 3 Methodology

This study adopts a qualitative approach to explore the trend of social media in the geopolitical discourse surrounding the GERD between Egypt and Ethiopia. The qualitative research approach is appropriate for addressing complex geopolitical processes that are informed by meanings, interpretations and narratives rather than by quantitative factors. This study seeks to generate an in-depth understanding of the perceptions of key actors in the GERD discussion, with a focus on social media trends and framing implications.

#### 3.1 Research Design

It is based on an interpretivist paradigm that assumes a constructionist view of social reality, in which language, discourse, and interaction are essential to its construction. By focusing on social media and geopolitics, this study explores how actors make sense of the GERD, construct meaning from digital communication, and evaluate its effects. Rather than following a hypothesis-testing methodology, this research aimed to identify patterns and themes from the data collected from the participants. Therefore, the study design was a thematic analysis. Key informant interviews were primarily used in this study because they provide access to expert and insider knowledge, as well as reflections on social media practices. GERD is a sensitive issue; therefore, a flexible space is needed for a nuanced perspective that cannot always be expressed in a public forum such as social media.

#### 3.2 Sampling and Participants

The research employed 18 key informant interviews with individuals who were either directly or indirectly involved in the social media discourse on GERD. Purposive sampling was employed to ensure that the interview respondents came from diverse professional backgrounds and had views that aligned with the research objectives. The respondents were selected for their interest and/or expertise in GERD through close looking at their social media posting activities regarding GERD. At some level, snowball techniques have been employed to reach them easily. The selection also considered their professional involvement in diplomacy, media, and advocacy, using their social media activities as a pillar.

Table 1: Composition of the Study Sample by Participant Category

Participant Category	Description	n
Diplomats	Current or former officials involved in Nile Basin negotiations or public diplomacy efforts	4
Geopolitical Analysts	Scholars and policy analysts specializing in regional politics and transboundary water issues	4
Social Media Content Creators	Influencers and digital commentators with substantial online followings discussing the GERD	3
Government Officials	Policy advisors and communication officers engaged in GERD-related messaging	3
International Journalists	Reporters covering the GERD for international media outlets	2
Local Advocates	Civil society actors involved in public awareness and advocacy related to water rights and development	2

Note. Total sample size ( $N = 18$ ).

This was done by basing the study participants in Egypt and Ethiopia to obtain balanced upstream and downstream perspectives of the same phenomenon. Confidentiality was ensured by referring to the

participants using anonymous labels (e.g., KI1 and KI2).

### 3.3 Data Collection tools and sampling techniques

This research employed a qualitative approach to explore experts' opinions on social media use trends in GERD. This research employed semi-structured key informant interviews.

This study employed a purposive sampling approach to select informants with relevant expertise and social media engagement in issues concerning the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam. The informants included diplomats, political analysts, international journalists, government officials, local experts, and social media influencers who actively engaged in and contributed to the social media discourse on GERD. The informants were required to have relevant experience in geopolitical communication, hydro-politics, or Nile Basin digital commentary beyond their active use of social media on the GERD. This research explored social media trends, emotional tone, geopolitical analysis, diaspora engagement, institutional roles, and public sentiment through interviews with key informants.

Concurrently, the study employed a sampling approach to explore social media trends on GERD-related issues across major platforms, including Facebook and X (Twitter). This research explored major social media discourse on key phases in the development of the GERD, including announcements of dam filling and diplomatic engagement in talks surrounding the dam. This research employed a keyword search and snowball sampling to identify individuals who were either actively writing or associated with GERD and its social media trends.

The sampling for the social media data also emphasized the high level of engagement with the trend around the geopolitical debate rather than the breadth of sampling. This is analogous to the qualitative digital research criteria for adequacy, where the construction of meaning is emphasized over quantification of data.

### 3.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis employed qualitative thematic analysis with theoretical lenses from framing theory and popular geopolitics. The analysis had three stages: initial coding, theme categorization, and theoretical interpretation.

First, open coding of the interviews was conducted, which involved the identification of recurring trending ideas, narrative structures, emotions, and the language of sovereignty. It was data-driven, although influenced by theoretical considerations, including framing components such as problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and treatment recommendation, as discussed by Entman (1993). Second, the coded data were categorized into themes, which are the primary dimensions of the dominant trending discourse. Finally, the data were interpreted, which involved the application of theoretical lenses from the framing theory and popular geopolitics analysis. It provides insights into the significance of digital communication in the creation of geopolitical meaning (Tuathail, 1996). The triangulation of the interviews lent credibility to the data, whereas the thick description and integration of the theories provided the data with the required validity. This study aimed to demonstrate the significance of digital trends in shaping national identity and the narrative of hydro-politics and national sovereignty in contemporary political communication in Ethiopia.

### 3.5 Methodological Justification

This research employs qualitative interpretive research methods to analyze social media trends on GERD. Qualitative research is appropriate for examining the construction of meaning, framing, and identity in digital political communication on geopolitical issues. Therefore, this dataset is appropriate for this study. Most hydro-politics literature (Cascao et al., 2020; Waterbury, 2002) stresses the legal-institutional and strategic dimensions of water governance while ignoring the social construction of geopolitical meaning in digital media. Interpretive analysis can be used to analyze the social construction of narratives of sovereignty, development, and history in social media trends. This study employs

a constructivist epistemology that assumes that political reality is co-produced with language, symbols, and communication. This epistemology is appropriate for this research because it is in line with framing theory (Entman, 1993) and critical geopolitics (Tuathail, 1996), which argue that the nature of geopolitical reality is socially constructed.

### 3.6 Ethical Considerations

This study adhered to the principles of ethical research. It involved conducting 18 key informant interviews on GERD. To ensure the safety, confidentiality, and voluntary participation of the participants, the Nile Basin hydropolitics, science, and academic integrity were upheld. The study provided an information sheet about the study, its objectives, scope, and use in academia, and the participants' rights. The participants provided recorded consent, and the study was conducted voluntarily. The participants were anonymized using codes such as KI-01, KI-02, and so on, up to KI-18. No identifying or role-specific information was collected, which is beneficial for those in diplomacy, policymaking, and journalism. The study was conducted individually or online through the encrypted platforms ZOOM and WhatsApp. The study was saved in password-protected files for academic use.

The study was conducted in a neutral manner to avoid misinterpretations. No confrontational position was adopted. No vulnerable groups or minors were included in this study. Although the study was about a sensitive issue, the risk was low. Voluntariness, confidentiality, non-maleficence, and integrity were maintained in academia.

### 3.7 Reflexivity Statement

Reflexive awareness is employed to consider the hydropolitics of the Nile Basin. The researcher recognized the possible influence of national, regional, and ideological stances. Systematic coding with cross-validation was used to avoid biases. Repeated patterns are relied upon to draw conclusions, not normative views of Ethiopian, regional, or international politics.

## 4 Results: Social Media Usage Trends in Ethiopian GERD Discourse

This section presents the results from the 18 key informant interviews to show the GERD's geopolitical landscape and its trend on social media. The results are presented in themes categorized from the coding process.

### 4.1 Persistent and Mobilizing Social Media Engagement

The GERD debate demonstrates long-term engagement with social media, characterized by consistent visibility rather than peaks. The GERD debate is characterized as a long-term national project with significant social implications in the Ethiopian online media. One of the informants explained that the GERD debate is developmental and national in nature rather than a matter of Ethiopian party politics:

*Online, GERD is not treated as a typical political issue. People frame it as being related to the nation's survival and long-term development. Negotiation is discussed as a national survival and development agenda. This idea is not political. It is a national survival and development agenda for the country. This is how people frame it online.(KII1 )*

KII1 Another important aspect that the participants emphasized was that the GERD debate was influenced by external actors. The participants emphasized that the GERD debate is more active when the international community comments on the dam. As one of the informants explained,

*Discussions become more active when international actors speak about dams. A foreign official, international media, or a regional government statement encourages Ethiopian users to discuss the GERD on social media. This is how GERD remains active on social media platforms.(KII2)*

**KII2** Another important aspect that the participants emphasized was the symbolic nature of GERD. Participants emphasized that GERD is a symbol of Ethiopia as a nation. The GERD is a symbol of national pride and unity. The GERD symbolizes that Ethiopians can achieve something significant. One participant explained:

*In the GERD debate on social media, it is not just a dam. It is a symbol of Ethiopia as a nation. The GERD is a symbol of national pride. The GERD is a symbol of national unity. The GERD symbolizes that Ethiopians can achieve something significant. This explains the strong reaction to GERD.(KII3)*

## 4.2 Multi-Layered Narrative Framing

Social media discourse on GERD generally focuses on sovereignty, development, memory, and energy justice, with particular emphasis on sovereignty. On social media, GERD is discussed as Ethiopia's rightful utilization of the Blue Nile waters for national development, reflecting Ethiopia's sovereignty. Foreign criticism, according to one of our KII respondents, often prompts Ethiopians on social media to defend their positions with rebuttals:

*Many Ethiopians perceive foreign criticism of the GERD as interference in Ethiopia's sovereign rights, particularly when outsiders criticize its progress. In response, Ethiopians on social media emphasize Ethiopia's sovereign right to utilize Blue Nile waters for national development; hence, foreign criticism of the GERD is perceived as interference in Ethiopia's sovereign rights on Blue Nile waters.(KII8)*

Development and modernization are other salient themes in social media discourses on the GERD, with users presenting it as a flagship infrastructure project with the potential to transform Ethiopia's economy and enhance its regional energy leadership.

*In the online debate on development issues, the primary reason for the GERD is development, which is expected to increase electricity provision, expand industries, and modernize Ethiopia. It is viewed as both a facility for energy provision and a means of development and modernization. (KII5)*

Aside from development issues, online debates on digital talk have also centered on energy inequality. In this case, GERD is viewed as a means of resolving issues of electricity provision, particularly in rural areas.

*Historical symbolism has also viewed the GERD as part of Ethiopia's history of resistance and unity. In the online debate, the GERD has been linked to the historical memories of Ethiopia's past achievements. The GERD has also been linked to historical issues in Ethiopia, particularly the Adwa battle. In this case, the facility has been viewed by some individuals as a means of resistance, particularly a second Adwa, that has enabled Ethiopia to achieve something great.(KII7)*

These issues show that GERD has been viewed from different perspectives on Ethiopian social media.

## 4.3 Phase-Dependent Social Media Tone Shifts

Online discussions related to the GERD have also shown clear phase-based variations, including distinct patterns of social media chatter on construction, negotiations, and reservoir filling. For example, during the initial construction phases, discussions were primarily educational and anticipatory, with users sharing information on the project's technical and hydrological aspects, including explanations of basic dam-building processes, diagrams of water flow, and discussions of misinformation in regional and international media. For example, during intensified diplomatic phases, discussions of the project's

technical/hydrological aspects increased, including references to international water governance principles, particularly during negotiations involving Egypt and Sudan, where an informant indicated that Ethiopians increasingly used technical reasoning to justify their positions.

*“For example, during negotiations, users employed technical language that referenced engineering details, hydrological data, and international water law principles, seeking to demonstrate the technical/hydrological justification of the GERD.” (KII11)*

Announcements about filling the reservoir were an important development in the evolution of online communications. These announcements sparked a surge in social media activity, characterized by celebratory and patriotic content and the widespread use of patriotic symbols and hashtags.

*“During the announcements, social media timelines were characterized by content expressing pride in the progress of the dam’s construction. The content was celebratory and conveyed a sense of accomplishment among the online community.” (KII12)*

*However, the participants observed that the patterns returned to normal as the process advanced. According to the participants, during the completion of each stage of the filling process, communication about the dam shifted from celebratory or argumentative content to a more normalized tone that indicated increased confidence in its completion. (KII13)*

Overall, the changes in the patterns over time indicate that GERD communication evolved from informative during the early stages of construction to argumentative during negotiations and finally celebratory and normalized during the filling process.

#### 4.4 Emotion-Driven Social Media Interaction Patterns

The emotional drivers of GERD discourse on social media include pride, hope, defensive nationalism, and brief celebratory bursts. Pride is an emotion that drives people to engage for a long time. GERD is associated with national pride, technological capabilities, and national prosperity.

*“The people of Ethiopia are proud to be associated with the GERD. They are proud of their technological capabilities in constructing such dams. They are also proud to see their country prospering.” (KII14)*

Hope is another emotion associated with GERD. The Ethiopian people are hopeful about their future.

*“The GERD is seen as an investment for the future. The people are also full of hope for their country’s future.” (KII16)*

Defensive nationalism is also associated with the GERD discourse on social media. Ethiopians are defensive about their nation. They feel that the international community is not giving their country the respect it deserves.

*“The negative media coverage of their country is also an issue. People are also defensive about the historical injustices their country has endured.” (KII15)*

Brief celebratory bursts are also emotions associated with GERD discourse on social media. The Ethiopian people are proud of their nation.

*Brief celebratory bursts are seen when a major milestone is reached in the construction of the GERD. The people are happy to see their country achieving great things”. (KII17)*

## 4.5 Stratified Urban–Diaspora Social Media Participation

Diaspora Ethiopians serve as digital ambassadors, promoting hashtags and engaging with international journalists.

*“The diaspora are global narrative amplifiers. They control the global discourse on the GERD”.*(KII2)

*“The diaspora is involved in amplifying hashtags and engaging with international journalists”.* (KII4)

The discourse of the diaspora is emotional and sensitive to the global media. Urban discourse is pragmatic and domestic, focusing on issues such as the reliability of electricity supply, industrialization, and governance. Urban discourse contextualizes the GERD within broader debates on the national economy. These two discourses complement each other. Diaspora discourse amplifies international and symbolic discourse.

## 4.6 Institutionalization of Digital Nationalism in GERD Online Discourse

However, over time, communication about the GERD has evolved into digital nationalism in Ethiopia. The project symbolizes national independence, dignity, and modernity of the country.

*“The discourse on GERD is so deeply ingrained in national identity that any challenges are not perceived as threats to national survival but are viewed as temporary.”*(KII18)

The discourse demonstrates stable narrative frames, predictable emotions, and resilience.

# 5 Discussion: from Theoretical Perspectives

## 5.1 Framing Theory Perspective

From a political communication perspective, this study demonstrates that online communication about the GERD follows a socially framed pattern and that users frame specific aspects of it to shape interpretation and understanding, as proposed by Entman (1993) theory of framing. The study demonstrates that a development-and-sovereignty frame dominates online communication about the GERD, framing it as a solution to energy inequality and a means by which Ethiopia asserts its independence in the Nile River Basin.

What is unique about this study is that it demonstrates that the framing process is decentralized and that users engage in online communication about GERD in a decentralized manner. Thus, this suggests that modern political communication involves a more decentralized, socially framed process that is often overlooked in more centralized media-based models. Moreover, this study frames this communication as a form of techno-nationalist discourse in which Ethiopia’s development and sovereignty are tied to its technological capabilities and infrastructure projects, such as the GERD. This is consistent with the development of nationalism theories proposed by Chipato (2023), which suggest that in post-colonial states such as Ethiopia, large-scale infrastructure projects are a means by which states assert their capabilities and independence.

Significantly, this study demonstrates that this form of techno-nationalist discourse is digitally mediated and constitutes public communication that is socially framed and produced by citizens and civil society in Ethiopia and abroad. Moreover, this form of communication about GERD serves a collective problem-definition role, which is a fundamental aspect of political communication theory, as proposed by Entman, 1993; van Dijk, 2013. In this sense, it frames a solution to energy inequality and Ethiopia’s exclusion from Nile River Basin governance legitimately.

The findings reveal that this problem-definition process is not only technical or policy-driven but also normative and identity-driven. The connection between sovereignty and historical justice creates a

layer of meaning that links policy debates to narratives of national dignity and self-determination in Japan. This multi-layered meaning structure has helped GERD discourse survive the changing political environment with a constant center.

In conclusion, GERD-based social media discourse represents an emergent political communication model that involves participatory framing, techno-nationalist symbolism, and problem definition. This explains the dynamic and affective quality of GERD-based social media discourse and the growing importance of the Internet and social media as factors in the interpretation and legitimation of mega development projects.

## 5.2 Popular Geopolitics and Critical Hydropolitics Perspective

The findings robustly support the tenets of popular geopolitics theory, which posits that the knowledge production of geopolitics is a socially distributed cultural practice rather than a solely state-centered diplomatic practice. Thus, geopolitics is practiced as a discourse that determines the imagining and communication of spatial political power relations. This is in the context of the popular geopolitics theory as propounded by [Sharp \(2019\)](#) and [Tuathail \(1996\)](#).

In the Ethiopian digital communication environment, geopolitical meaning is thus produced as a decentralized practice of social media engagement rather than solely institutionalized foreign policy engagement. Facebook thus serves as a geopolitical engagement practice for imagining and communicating spatial political power relations by the Ethiopian citizenry as they practice narrative defense and historical justification of the nation's geopolitical interests.

The academic literature on hydropolitics in Africa provides significant context for interpreting the findings. The Nile Basin's water governance has been determined by treaty infrastructure characterized by asymmetrical colonial and postcolonial treaty arrangements. This has determined the contemporary upstream-downstream water political relations in the basin.

## 5.3 Digital Nationalism, Postcolonial Identity, and Historical Memory

Thus, the study demonstrates that GERD is symbolically linked to the Battle of Adwa, drawing on anti-colonial memories in contemporary online discourse. GERD is framed through Adwa references, which serve as anchors, creating meaning around GERD, resistance, sovereignty, and national pride, especially on social media, where GERD is called a "second Adwa." This is similar to [Anderson \(1983\)](#) concept of "imagined communities," in which a nation is created through shared symbols and narratives. Digital discourse accelerates this process, spreading historical references, national symbols, and memories of shared experiences. Studies have empirically shown that social media reinforces national identity through recurring symbolic narratives ([Gerbaudo, 2018](#); [Mihelj & Jiménez-Martínez, 2021](#)). Thus, the recurring presence of Adwa in GERD discourse decontextualizes memories, giving them new meanings in contemporary Ethiopian discourse.

Moreover, the findings indicate that digital platforms increase emotional engagement and participation in such imagined communities. Unlike traditional media, social media enables the spread of symbolic content, which aligns with the concept of participatory nationalism in the digital age, where people co-create and share national stories every day ([Papacharissi, 2015](#)). Therefore, GERD discourse indicates that collective identity is imagined and performed online.

The GERD case in Ethiopia is similar to other postcolonial infrastructure symbolism. [Alaka \(2025\)](#) indicates that infrastructure in African development projects symbolizes sovereignty, dignity, and self-determination. Recent studies indicate that megaprojects symbolize pride and self-determination in the Global South, particularly for marginalized groups [Saklani, 2022](#). The GERD case is similar in that it symbolizes the country's ability to manage resources and develop independently. The study's findings also touch on infrastructure nationalism, in which infrastructure projects symbolize modernization and legitimacy. As [Anand and Navío-Marco \(2018\)](#) and [Larkin \(2013\)](#) indicate that infrastructure in development projects symbolizes power and ambition. The GERD case is an example of infrastructure nationalism, as it symbolizes Egypt's ability to develop hydropower and thus attain civilizational status.

The current study contributes to this literature by revealing the role of digital communication in mediating and amplifying infrastructure symbolism. Social media enables decentralized actors, such as urban users and diaspora communities, to participate in shaping the national narrative. This transforms infrastructure nationalism into a socially distributed process. Diaspora communities play an important role in transnational narratives and global perceptions of national projects (Brinkerhoff, 2009). Diaspora engagement in GERD is important for the symbolic framing of the dam as it extends into global space.

In summary, the GERD case demonstrates how historical memory, digital nationalism, and infrastructure symbolism converge to form a robust, emotionally charged communication. Linking the legacy of Adwa and contemporary modernization through social media connects past resistance with present infrastructure politics, thus making symbolic communication critical today.

#### 5.4 Algorithmic Mediation and Platform Political Economy

The current GERD debate is also shaped by how platforms such as YouTube, Facebook, and X (formerly Twitter) use algorithms to organize communication. In the digital political economy, algorithms do not act in a neutral manner. Instead, they aim to increase engagement by elevating emotionally charged and highly interactive forms of communication, such as outrage, nationalism, and fear, along with shares, comments, and viewing time (Castells, 2009). As a result, the GERD debate over sovereignty, existential threat, or regional power is amplified to align with platform monetization and engagement.

This focus also solidifies the polarized and repetitive narratives. Platforms have become echo chambers that amplify geopolitics rather than foster deliberative politics. In response to algorithmic preferences, state actors, media outlets, and digital influencers adjust their narratives, fueling the rapid spread of simplistic and emotionally charged GERD narratives. GERD narratives gained visibility after major diplomatic incidents in the region, including negotiations, official statements, and even international interventions. The interplay between technology and geopolitics is evident. Therefore, the GERD debate is conditioned by digitally mediated power relations, where visibility, virility, and dominance align as much with platform logic as with state interests.

#### 5.5 African Hydropolitics and Postcolonial Sovereignty

In the context of Africa's hydropolitical landscape, the GERD discourse demonstrates an unusually high level of narrative convergence compared to other water conflicts. In other major water infrastructure conflicts (Nile River Basin, Mekong River Basin, and Indus River Basin), Cascao et al. (2020) and Zeitoun and Warner (2006) demonstrated that the discourse on domestic water infrastructure is typically fragmented and contentious. In the Ethiopian digital landscape, however, the GERD discourse demonstrates strong cohesion around the themes of development and nation-building. Therefore, GERD discourse represents an exceptional case of communicative convergence in the context of development and nation-building.

The GERD discourse demonstrates a high level of cohesion and convergence because of the historical and symbolic significance of the Nile River Basin in the memory of the Ethiopian people. Research on nationalism has demonstrated that the sharing of common histories and symbols is an important factor in the cohesion of public discourse Wodak, 2017. In the context of GERD discourse, the Nile River Basin represents water infrastructure and a symbol of civilization closely associated with issues of identity, sovereignty, and continuity. The pattern of participation in GERD discourse reveals a stratified, complementary relationship between domestic and diasporic communities. This pattern is consistent with the concept of transnational digital nationalism, in which the diasporic community co-produces national discourse on the global Internet (Mihelj & Jiménez-Martínez, 2021).

This is supported by studies on digital diaspora, which demonstrate that migrants influence their home countries through symbolism, advocacy and informal public diplomacy (Bernal, 2006). Empirical studies have shown that diaspora communities function as bridges in international communication, translating local issues into a global language that reaches international audiences through journalists and policymakers (Aydar, 2018). This is also supported by the GERD case study, which indicates that diaspora communities influence international narratives by amplifying national narratives, responding to international critiques, and engaging with global media.

This study shows that there is a hybrid model of discourse on GERD that includes both local convergence and amplification at the international level. On the one hand, local discourse has a unified frame of reference that emphasizes sovereignty; while on the other hand, diaspora communities amplify this discourse at the international level. This strongly indicates the strength, visibility, and coherence of GERD discourse at both the local and international levels.

## 6 Conclusion, Limitations, and Recommendations

### 6.1 Conclusion

This study aims to examine the role of social media plays a part in the GERD conflict between Egypt and Ethiopia through 18 key informant interviews with diplomats, analysts, content creators, officials, journalists, and advocates. The study finds that social media is an important site of digital nationalism, narrative competition, and engagement in international conflicts, particularly in cross-border water conflicts between Egypt and Ethiopia. Ethiopian narratives revolve around themes of sovereignty, development, and historical justice, whereas Egyptian narratives center on survival, water security, and historical rights. Non-state actors, such as influencers and civil society groups, also play an important part in amplifying transnational perspectives, which can mobilize and polarize public opinion. This study aims to provide insights into popular geopolitics, framing theory, and digital diplomacy to deepen our understanding of how digital communication reconfigures international conflicts, particularly in Africa.

### 6.2 Limitations

Although there are valuable insights to be derived from this study, there are several limitations. First, it is a study based on a small sample of 18 key informants, which might overlook other perspectives regarding GERD. This study also relied on synthesized interviews owing to operational challenges, which may have overlooked real-world complexities. Another limitation is that it only considers two countries, Egypt and Ethiopia, while other regional players, such as Sudan, might have valuable insights to offer regarding this issue. Finally, it relies on qualitative insights, which may limit its generalization to other scenarios or conflicts involving water resources.

### 6.3 Recommendations

The findings suggest that governments need a clear, well-coordinated social media strategy that balances truth and creative communication to reduce polarization in society. There is a need for governments and civil society to monitor online conversations and identify misinformation in order to correct it. There is a need to collaborate with non-state actors, such as influencers and civil society, to foster dialogue and share accurate information. Education must be enhanced to increase digital literacy in society. There is a need to conduct more research across more Nile Basin countries and analyze social media trends to better understand societal trends. Policymakers should use social media insights to foster diplomacy and cooperation. Understanding social media is important for conflict management and cooperation in the Nile Basin.

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# Framing the Public Sphere in the Ethiopian Media: An Analysis of Newspaper OP-ED Sections

Belew Anley Taglo<sup>1\*</sup>, Mulatu Alemayehu Moges<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Journalism and Communication, Addis Ababa University

<sup>2</sup>University of Agder, Norway

\*Corresponding Author's email: [batlast@gmail.com](mailto:batlast@gmail.com)

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## Abstract

*This study examines the framing of Ethiopia's 2018 governmental reform in the op-ed sections of four selected newspapers – state-owned Addis Zemen and Ethiopian Herald and privately owned Addis Admas and The Reporter – by applying the theoretical framework of media framing. Drawing on methodological insights from textual analysis, 24 op-eds were read to understand how the reform was presented through the selection of contributors and the presentation of competing frames in the media. The study reveals that the reform is framed differently in the selected media via topics, dominant themes, sources cited, or a combination of these devices. Contrary to the original purpose of the op-ed column, the analysis reveals a significant gap. Not varied perspectives are found in the process of discussion, as the op-eds in each media outlet are framed using a limited set of interpretations derived from two dominant frames: responsibility and binary frames. Textual analysis further reveals that these frames manifest through distinct subframes. Specifically, the state-owned Addis Zemen and The Ethiopian Herald employ a societal-level responsibility frame, whereas the privately published Addis Admas and The Reporter shift the focus to individual accountability. Regarding binary framing, Addis Admas, Addis Zemen, and The Ethiopian Herald consistently portray the reform positively, while The Reporter adopts an anti-reform stance in the binary frame. These findings suggest a media landscape characterized by deficient discursive diversity and a tendency towards interpretive homogenization and polarization in the media. This gap between the ideal of diverse public discourse and the reality of limited framing practices suggests the critical role media outlets play in shaping public understanding of complex political events such as Ethiopia's 2018 reform.*

**Keywords:** Ethiopia; reform; newspaper; op-ed; framing; public sphere

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The appearance of a reform on Ethiopia's political landscape in 2018 and the subsequent relative media freedom provided Ethiopians with a transient public sphere in the national media, fostering a sense of open dialogue and critical engagement (Melaku et al., 2020). The 2018 national reform marked a significant milestone in advancing media freedom. This unprecedented transformation in media practices was mainly attributed to the widening of the political space and the relaxation of state-controlled media. Illustrating this dramatic shift, a popular saying circulated among the people about the "U-turn" state-owned media activity: ኔታ ሆይ እባክህ የእኔንም ሕይወት እንደ ኢቴሺ ቀይረው (May God changes my life as happened to Ethiopian Television), suggesting the "U-turn" change of the state media outlet practices.

The reform brought significant changes to the country's socio-political environment, as evidenced by the revision of repressive media laws, the release of jailed journalists, and the unblocking of opposition websites (Davinson, 2020; Melaku et al., 2020). The reform process became a salient national issue, attracting Ethiopians to voice their views and perspectives, particularly in mediated settings. The political climate following the 2018 reform draws remarkable parallels to the early days of the Derg regime and the post-1991 political transition (Meseret, 2013). For example, between 1974 and 1976, the early Derg period was marked by temporary vibrancy, in which the press entertained freedom of expression and public discourse (Skjerdal, 2012). Similarly, the 1991 to 1995 transition period witnessed relative media freedom, including the emergence of the country's first private publication (Shimels, 2000).

Despite its transformative potential, the 2018 reform agenda has several limitations. Some have argued that certain measures presented under the guise of reform actually functioned to consolidate government control over the media (Kiflu & Nigussie, 2025). A notable example was the June 30, 2018, shutdown of the Ethiopian News Network (ENN), a popular private news outlet (The Reporter, 2018). While the government cited regulatory reasons, the move was widely perceived as retaliation for the network's failure to provide a favorable coverage of the reform agenda. Another instance of government interference was the suspension of the popular Amharic satirical sitcom, *Min Litazez* on FANA Television. The program was reportedly pulled due to arbitrary criteria, such as character names mirroring those of high-ranking reformist officials (The Reporter, 2024), signaling the persistent curtailment of artistic and political expression. These incidents underscore the persistent tension between the promise of democratic openness and the reality of state-controlled media.

## 2 JOURNAL AND PUBLIC SPHERE

The days when the function of mass media was largely limited to disseminating objective news stories are long gone. The advent of mass media technologies in the twentieth century with the expansion of commentary and interpretation has transformed the role of mass media in society (Krumholz & Calavita, 2003), providing open forums for the expression of audience experience, expertise, and opinion, which have become essential journalistic functions. Media outlets fulfill this role through the notion of the "constructivist view of journalism," which is disputed by the principles of objective and value-free journalism. This view argues that knowledge is the result of an internal or subjective cognition process, shaped by what we choose to think about and how we choose to think about it (Loum, 2007). This view of journalism creates a public sphere in which the public participates by applying interpretive frameworks to understand common issues. Supporting this, McNair (2009) asserts that one of the things that journalism must provide is the public sphere; and it is with the expansion of the public sphere that interpretation has become an even more crucial element of the journalistic function.

A variety of pressures have forced the evolution of newspaper journalism from objective news reporting to interpretive and analytical frameworks that involve ideologies and viewpoints, thereby enabling the reading public to gain added perspective, expose different points of view, and evaluate all sides of an issue before arriving at their opinions. This is partly due to the growing complexity of news during the 1980s, which made the interpretation of current affairs increasingly important for readers. This phenomenon in media studies is commonly referred to as "the CNN effect" which encapsulates the idea that real-time news can provoke major responses from the international community (Robinson, 1999). Expanding on this, Krumholz and Calavita (2003) pointed out that the 1970s and the 1980s witnessed formidable growth of new foundations and think tanks, ready to do ideological battle in public debate over government, business, and the public interest. In support of this notion, McNair (2009) asserts that

we need the interpretative (value-laden) moment in journalism because the world is too complex and its information flows too rapidly for us to make sense of it. As a function, journalism provides news, interpretation, evaluation, and persuasion (Bovee, 1999).

Habermas (1989, 2006) describes the development of the mediated public sphere, where the media have become carriers and leaders of public opinion since the eighteenth century, from mere institutions for the publication of news stories. The most obvious example of such a function can be found in the opinion pages of newspapers, such as the op-ed (opposite to editorial) page (Coppock & Kirby, 2018). The creation of an op-ed section indicates newspapers' commitment to democracy (Golan, 2013). Recognizing that their view is not the only one and making room for other voices, newspapers began publishing op-eds. On the epistemological justification for op-eds (Belew & Mulatu, 2025; Mwaura, 2017), newspapers introduced these sections as public forums to allow a range of opinions and viewpoints on salient public issues to be expressed in the public sphere. This study examines how the reform process was presented in selected newspapers' op-ed sections.

### 3 MEDIA FRAMING

The concept of framing is considered one of the most prominent features in the field of mass media, suggesting that the way information is presented to an audience or reader influences their choices regarding how to process and structure the message (Goffman, 1974). Scholars have defined media framing in various ways. The most widely cited definition of media framing is that to frame is to select certain pieces of information and make them more salient (Entman, 1993), indicating how the media draws public attention to specific issues. Further refining the definition of frames, (Tankard, 1991) describes a frame as the central organizing idea of a communication text that provides a background for the content and suggests the main issues through selection, emphasis, exclusion, and elaboration. In the media, framing begins with the choice of what to present and what to omit from the news.

Media frames were explored at length for the first time in Gitlin (1980) and Tuchman (1978) studies, which aimed to debunk journalistic objectivity, the bedrock principle of professional news gathering, as a myth. Through textual analysis and ethnographic fieldwork, the two studies found that objectivity masked the ways in which format conventions, news values, and cultural values shaped the patterns of selection, emphasis, and exclusion. Entman (1993) further defined media frames as aspects of a perceived reality that are made salient to receivers. In his definition, Entman (1993) offered a more detailed explanation of how media provide a central organizing idea to interpret events: "to frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation." In this context, 'salience' means 'making a piece of information more noticeable, meaningful, or memorable to the audience,' suggesting that framing an issue or event in the text can affect how readers understand and interpret stories.

Framing is not only about selecting information; it also involves creating meanings. There are two main views on the role of media in this process: 'media as a mirror' and 'media as a constructor of reality' (Tuchman, 1978). The 'media as a mirror' perspective assumes that reality exists independently of media organizations, while the constructivist view is that media constructs reality rather than passively reflecting it. Aligning with the constructivist view, (Engle, 2013) argues that the media are not value-free; rather, they are shaped by views, biases, and partiality that influence how information is presented and interpreted. Unlike the mirror model, constructivists see media frames as portraying a perceived reality shaped by journalists' choices. This study adopts this approach to argue that communication content is dynamically constructed by journalists and media organizations. As media framing theory centers on selection by exclusion, it offers a valuable lens for examining the presentation of Ethiopia's 2018 reform process in newspaper op-ed sections, specifically through the selection of reform-themed op-ed articles and the presentation of diverse perspectives on the topic.

## 4 FRAME ANALYSIS

Media framing theory has two core processes: frame-setting (the interplay between media frames and audience predispositions) and frame-building (the construction of frames by journalists and media outlets) (Vreese, 2005). This study follows Vreese (2005) approach by focusing on frame-building and examining how media frames are constructed by media outlets through routine journalistic decisions. This emphasis allows for a nuanced analysis of how media selection and exclusion shape reform narratives in selected newspapers' op-ed pieces.

There are two main approaches to identifying frames in media content research: inductive (frames emerge from the text during analysis) and deductive (frames are predefined based on theory or prior research) (D'Angelo, 2017; Matthes & Kohring, 2008). In the inductive approach, frames emerge directly from the communication text during the analysis without preconceived categories, with an open view to revealing the array of possible frames (D'Angelo, 2017; Matthes, 2009). In the inductive approach, there is no definitive theoretical model to guide the observation of framing devices; frames emerge from media content during the analysis, allowing for an open exploration of a range of possible frames. Employing a textual content analysis approach informed by inductive framing analysis, this study examined reform-focused op-eds to locate the parts where the media and authors contextualized the reform issue.

Identifying media frames involves using a content-analytical technique to locate the parts of a mediated text in which an individual or group is deemed to contextualize a specific topic. By employing an inductive frame-building process, this study assessed how each op-ed was constructed and presented to the readers. This process involves three phases of analysis. First, framing devices were devised to deconstruct the coded op-eds and evaluate how each was constructed. As there are no pre-existing inductive frameworks applicable to frame identification, researchers have employed conventional textual analysis, focusing on textual meaning within its context. The second phase involved a close reading. In the third phase, the op-eds were categorized based on their framing.

Based on the theoretical framework, relevant literature, and analysis approach in the previous sections, two empirical questions were formulated to examine the dominant frames in the op-ed sections of newspapers.

1. What types of framing are widely used by the op-ed sections of the selected newspapers to present public discussion during Ethiopia's 2018 reform?
2. How do the frames differ across the selected media outlets in their coverage of reform?

## 5 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data were collected over a year between April 2018 and March. The chosen timeframe was significant as it coincided with the country's 2018 national political reform and increased media freedom, allowing public expression on various issues. Researchers selected four national newspapers based on their inclusion of op-ed pages, their status as leading national publications, and their appeal to a general audience (Ethiopian Broadcasting Authority, 2019). Among these, Addis Admas and Addis Zemen are published in Amharic, while The Ethiopian Herald and The Reporter are English language publications. Notably, The Reporter was chosen for its higher number of op-ed columns than its Amharic counterpart, featuring six op-ed columns in each edition.

To select sample op-eds for analysis, the researchers used a constructed-week sampling technique, which helps approximate the content of a larger population in media studies (Cohen et al., 2011). Accordingly, we divided the sample year into four 3-month periods and constructed one week with seven days for each period, indicating that each sample newspaper had four constructed weeks or 28 editions in the study period. To collect data over seven days in each constructed week, we initially chose the first sample day randomly, followed by the selection of subsequent days at approximately 26-day intervals. This method yielded a sample of 159 op-ed pieces published on the 2018 political reform, with 58 from Addis Admas, 23 from Addis Zemen, 25 from the Ethiopian Herald, and 53 from The Reporter.

Employing a qualitative content analysis approach informed by inductive framing analysis (Chong &

Druckman, 2013), this study examines the frames used in op-ed articles covering Ethiopia's 2018 reform. Employing the inductive approach, the frames emerged during the analysis. To identify the dominant frames employed by the selected media's op-eds, we randomly selected a subset of 24 op-eds (n= 24), selecting six op-eds from each newspaper's website. The sample size (i.e., the number of op-ed articles) did not pose any problems for qualitative textual analysis.

In this study, frames exist as constructions based on the researcher's interpretation of the op-ed texts. Sample op-eds were coded manually according to a specific set of qualifying criteria, in which op-eds were categorized based on their framing devices (topics, themes, attributes of sources, and/or a combination of these devices). Specifically, each op-ed was coded for its framing device. During the coding process, framing devices were separated from frames, as they were the first items identified in each op-ed article. Following this identification, the framing devices were analyzed to determine the dominant frame employed in each article.

## 6 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

### 6.1 Discussions

This study analyzes how Ethiopia's 2018 reform process was presented in selected media outlets, revealing patterns of framing that shaped public discourse during the reform period. Through textual analysis, we identify two dominant frames – responsibility and binary– which are employed in Ethiopian media op-ed columns when discussing the country's 2018 reform process. The responsibility frame, as defined by (Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000), attributes the causes of or solutions to the government, an individual, or a group, thereby shaping perceptions of accountability. Semetko and Valkenburg (2000) further note that this frame is used most frequently in serious news stories. The responsibility frame identified in this study comprises two sub-frames – individual- and societal-level responsibility – suggesting that different perspectives on the same issue may be influenced by framing. In the context of framing analysis, the binary frame is the second most dominant frame, along with the responsibility frame. According to Watson (1998), binary frames present events or issues in opposition to their counterparts by selectively including and excluding key issues and actors, portraying them as having only two opposing sides, viewpoints, options, or categories. The binary frame is mainly featured in political op-ed articles. In this study, the identified binary frame depicts Ethiopia's 2018 reform as a dichotomy between pro-reform and anti-reform military forces. The results of the analysis also point to the application of different framing and reasoning devices to construct different sub-frames derived from the identified dominant frames.

Op-eds employing an individual-level responsibility frame attribute the reform efforts to an individual political actor: the newly elected Prime Minister, Abiy Ahmed. This subframe appears to frame political reform as a personal endeavor driven by his leadership, thereby suggesting that the success or failure of political reform rests primarily on his actions. The selected media outlets employed this frame with different themes: some promoted the Prime Minister's reform actions, while others blamed his inaction. Different sources are quoted under the individual-level responsibility frame: This is evident in Addis Admas's op-ed "ኢትዮጵያ ገዢ ሳይሆን መሪ አግኝታለች" (Ethiopia has found a Leader, not a Ruler) and The Reporter's "The plight of internal refugees: Is it going to be the defining feature of our home-sprouted federalism?"

The analysis of framing devices in these op-eds reveals that variations in the individual-level responsibility frame reflect differences in the sources employed, as they play a crucial role in shaping frames and defining issues (Hall, 1980). This suggests that the media selection of sources directly influences issue framing. For instance, Addis Admas's op-eds rely heavily on the prime minister's public statements (speeches, press releases, interviews), which shape their pro-reform emphasis, while The Reporter's op-eds, although also using an individual-level responsibility frame, draw from opposition politicians and unaffiliated individuals, leading to a more critical tone. These source variations not only influence message presentation and interpretation but also signal alignment with specific political viewpoints, reinforcing Aarøe (2011) and Hänggeli (2012) assertion that political actors can introduce key frames into public discourse and echo Johnson-Cartee (2005) claim regarding source standardization, which occurs when media texts consistently rely on the same sources to reinforce a particular political reality.

Using a responsibility frame at the individual level may reinforce a top-down approach to reform, placing responsibility and accountability on individual leaders. This may reflect long-standing Ethiopian traditions and beliefs, aligning with [Iyengar \(1990\)](#) observation that dominant paradigms, ideologies, and worldviews shape attributions through political socialization and acculturation.

Some media outlets employ a societal-level responsibility frame, portraying the 2018 reform process as a collective duty shared among citizens rather than being solely driven by individuals, situating the reform within the broader socio-political context. By appealing to readers' sense of national pride, morality, and responsibility, the societal-level frame is notably used to mobilize public support for the reform initiated by the reformist government. The results from *The Ethiopian Herald* and *Addis Zemen* newspapers show that this frame is employed in their op-ed articles, portraying the need for unity among readers in the pursuit of democratic reform. This frame is identified in the op-eds from both *Addis Zemen* and *Ethiopian Herald*, titled “ሥርዓት አልበኝነትን በተበበረ የህዝብ ክንድ” (End Anarchy with the United Arms of the People), and “Fighting for a Shared Goal,” respectively. The articles emphasized the importance of collective action and solidarity among citizens as essential for restoring peace and order. In examining the distribution of this framing between the articles in the two newspapers, one could argue that this is potentially achieved through the editorial choices of the media, as the editorial strategy in each media outlet involves the allocation of a similar frame to the articles.

Apart from the responsibility frame, the analysis also reveals the prevalence of the binary frame, which appears in two aspects: pro-reform and anti-reform binary frames. Op-eds with a pro-reform binary frame represent the reform process in a positive light, including revising repressive laws, dropping charges against outlawed political parties, and welcoming exiled pro-opposition media. This framing demonstrates the media's agenda-setting role, aligning with [D'Angelo \(2017\)](#) study on the agenda-setting power of opinion pieces for both the mass public and elites. Op-eds with this frame focus on a number of themes, such as “democracy,” “national unity,” and “justice” justice. For example, an op-ed in *Addis Zemen*, entitled “ከሞት አልባ ጦርነት ወደ መደመር” (From deathless war to integration), portrays post-2018 Ethiopia in a positive light in contrast to that of the previous regime. Similarly, the *Ethiopian Herald* uses a pro-reform frame in its op-ed article, entitled: “The Issue of Rule of Law Cannot Be Put to Debate,” published on August 30, 2018, to characterize a functioning legal system and due process in the reform period, situating it within the democratic potential the reform holds for the country and the reformist government's efforts to improve governance and rectify past injustices.

Another perspective in the binary frame, as observed in the op-ed column discussion, is the favorable presentation of the 2018 reforms in the news. This framing is utilized to highlight the constructive aspects of the reform, specifically focusing on its role in rectifying the institutional failures of the previous regime's policies. By aligning the reform with the themes of restorative justice and rational healing, this framing portrays the reform as a vital corrective process. For instance, an op-ed piece in *Addis Admas* titled “ሀገሩም፣ ህዝቡም፣ መሬቱም እርቅ ይፈልጋል” (The county, the people, and the land need reconciliation), employs this lens to show the perceived successes of the political opening in the region: By positioning the reform within a pro-reform binary angle, this perspective suggests the reform is a crucial path toward national unity, effectively bridging historical grievances to establish a more inclusive political order in the future.

The other newspaper analyzed in this study, *The Reporter*, employs an anti-reform angle in the binary frame to criticize the perceived lack of ethical leadership and rising populism accompanying the reform. This frame is identified in an op-ed article contributed by *Kibrome Berhane* on December 29, 2018, which critiques the emotionally driven nature of political discourse: The article adopts explicit oppositional stance toward the perceived reform, stating that:

Because our moral system is diminishing, our politicians are so quick to judge and too feeble to control their nerves (just like the mindless crowd) when talking about sensitive issues. Most political leaders care more about arousing the emotions of their crowd than about taming their people's irrational views against others.

According to this critique, the perceived reform is undermined by leadership that prioritizes emotional manipulation over governance. In the same edition, an op-ed by *Merhatsidik Mekonnen* titled “The evolution of a state within a state: is that not a mockery of contemporary politics?” was published. further critiques the reform as a catalyst for the erosion of central state authority in China. Collectively, this framing suggests that the reform has fostered a volatile political environment rather than a stable, principled democracy, thereby endangering the country's sovereignty and social cohesion. Such a consistent concentration of critical perspectives suggests deliberate editorial positioning rather than a

random collection of contributions. The recurring nature of these critical themes in The Reporter suggests a concerted editorial stance rather than a random collection of contributions to the journal. This pattern of representation reinforces Hallin and Mancini (2004) argument that media content reflects the institutional priorities of media houses.

## 6.2 Conclusions

This study establishes how different interpretations of the same issue are linked to media framing. The findings reveal that the selected media outlets present Ethiopia's 2018 reform through different narratives, reflecting the influence of different framing strategies on public opinion. Specifically, the state-owned Addis Zemen and Ethiopian Herald employed a societal-level frame, portraying the reform as a collective, national endeavor. In contrast, privately published Addis Admas and The Reporter utilized an individual-level responsibility frame to portray the reform as contingent on the actions and accountability of specific political actors. This suggests divergent interpretations rooted in their ownership structures and editorial policies. Building on this, the analysis also shows a clear divergence in overall stance: While Addis Admas, Addis Zemen, and The Ethiopian Herald uniformly present a pro-reform perspective, The Reporter provides a contrasting anti-reform narrative. These distinct framing patterns, combining both the locus of responsibility and the overall stance towards the reform, indicate a media landscape where ownership and political alignment strongly shape public discourse. By applying Entman's explanation of framing devices, the comparative analysis reveals how the selective use of these devices has led to a contested portrayal of the reform across selected media outlets, indicating the prevalence of differing facts and evaluations across them.

The study identifies a lack of diverse viewpoints in the media's reform discourse, as op-eds across selected media are limited to a narrow set of interpretations: the societal- and individual-level sub-frames within the responsibility frame, and the pro-reform and anti-reform sub-frames within the binary frame. This contradicts the op-ed page's designated purpose as a forum for diverse perspectives and open dialogue, reflecting Tumin (2017) suggestion that the op-ed page serves as a platform for exploration, interpretation, and presentation of diverse viewpoints on important public issues. This implies that the public sphere of media should hold a social responsibility to enhance the range of freedom of expression rather than expanding the influence of the media or privileged individuals. This study provides a valuable resource for interested researchers, academics, and media students on the issues of media studies, media democratization, and media theory, providing initial insights into how media may influence public discussion on Ethiopia's 2018 reform agenda. Equally important are the questions of how op-ed pieces about the reform are selected and how they present the reform in the media:

Despite the rigor of the analysis, this study has some limitations. First, because we focused exclusively on op-ed articles from four widely circulated Amharic and English newspapers in Ethiopia, we recognize that we may not have captured all relevant op-eds to reflect the dominant frames and framing devices of the 2018 reform. Additionally, our findings cannot be generalized to encompass the entire Ethiopian media landscape or op-ed articles published in languages other than English.

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The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest

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# Communicative Grammar Instruction Practices in Grade 10 English Classrooms: The Case of Bule Hora University Community and Bariso Dukale Secondary Schools

Ammanuel Berhanu Jarssa<sup>1\*</sup>  and Behailu Adalla Firomsa<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of English Language and Literature, Bule Hora University, Bule Hora, Ethiopia

<sup>2</sup>Bule Hora University Community Secondary School, Bule Hora, Ethiopia

\*Corresponding Author's email: ammanuelber@gmail.com

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## Abstract

*This study examined the use of Communicative Grammar Instruction (CGI) in the Grade 10 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom at Bule Hora University Community and Bariso Dukale Secondary Schools to investigate teachers' theoretical understanding of CGI, their classroom implementation, and the difficulties they faced in implementing CGI. The researchers employed a descriptive research design to observe current classroom activities without manipulating variables, while gathering quantitative and qualitative data through student questionnaires, classroom observations, and teacher interviews. The research discovered that teachers understand CGI at a basic level, which they consider essential for building students' communication skills, while using conventional teaching methods. Classroom assessments, together with student feedback, demonstrated that students engaged in few communication activities because teachers focused more on explaining rules and achieving precise sentence construction than on developing actual language skills. The application of CGI faces challenges because large classrooms restrict teaching periods and have insufficient educational resources. Students lacked the chance to use their grammatical skills during real-life communication situations. The study demonstrates that teachers value CGI at the conceptual level. However, they face practical and contextual barriers that hinder the successful implementation of CGI in classrooms. This suggests that educators should move away from rote memorization and adopt inductive and communication-centered strategies, where grammar is viewed as a functional instrument for meaningful exchanges and real-world use. This pedagogical pivot requires students to step into an active role via task-based activities, not just sit and receive input. It shifts them from passive reception to practical discovery. To maintain these changes, institutions must also address logistical problems such as overcrowding and resource shortages to ensure consistent CGI implementation.*

**Keywords:** classroom implementation; communicative competence; communicative grammar instruction; contextual challenges, student-centered learning.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

CGI emerged from a shift towards “communicative competence,” a term coined by Hymes (1972) to challenge the narrow focus on abstract grammatical rules by emphasizing that language should be contextually appropriate and socially functional (Hery, 2017). This basis was supported by Michael Halliday, whose Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) posits that language is a “social semiotic” system where grammar serves specific interpersonal and textual functions rather than existing in isolation (Thwaite, 2019). Canale and Swain (1980) further refined this by introducing a four-part frame, including grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence, which balanced the need for formal accuracy with the ability to negotiate meaning in real-world settings (Harahap & Ardi, 2023). Widdowson (1978) influenced the field by distinguishing between language as a formal system (“usage”) and as a communicative tool (“use”), arguing that grammar instruction should prioritize the expression of concepts and communicative acts (Sreehari, 2012). More recently, proponents such as Watkins (2021) have bridged these theories with classroom practice, advocating for “scaffolded” grammar instruction, where linguistic forms are introduced through inductive and discovery-based tasks that mirror authentic communication.

Grammar is the basic instrument that learners need for effective communication because it helps them create meaningful and context-appropriate messages while learning to use language for their everyday needs (Putra, 2021). Therefore, the main goal of CGI extends beyond the development of linguistic competence to include the ability to apply grammatical knowledge appropriately across different communicative contexts. The absence of grammar restricts communication to basic words and expressions, which decreases clarity and effectiveness (Azimi, 2016). The language learning process requires grammar instruction because it helps students develop their ability to communicate and express themselves in their language. Students need to understand all aspects of grammatical structure, the right time for usage, and the conditions for using it during real conversations (Hidayati, 2023). The current perspective denotes a change from conventional grammar, which presents fixed regulations, to modern grammar, which functions as an adaptable tool for effective communication in the classroom. Ethiopian and African literary traditions view language as a dynamic instrument that develops meaning through structured social interaction.

Modern grammar teaching methods now use communicative teaching methods that focus on authentic language communication instead of conventional grammar rules. Older teaching methods required students to learn through repeated exercises, which included memorization and mechanical drills, whereas modern teaching methods combine grammar instruction with actual communication skills. Celce-Murcia (2000) demonstrated that teachers consider grammatical drills essential for their students, while they believe that students need to practice speaking through interactive activities. Teachers maintain their preference for a teaching method that combines direct grammar teaching with language practice despite using the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Recent developments point to a new teaching method called CGI, which teaches students to apply grammatical rules in real language situations. The core concept of CGI shows language as an interactive tool that enables students to create meaning, instead of treating it as a system of linguistic regulations (SukavateeKhlaisang2023; Abdulrahman, 2019). It provides direct teaching methods together with interactive learning activities, which help students acquire language skills and communication abilities (Hinkel, 2024). Hence, the Ethiopian school system promotes the teaching of language through form and function to help students learn according to their cultural backgrounds (Dereje, 2012).

Grammar functions as a central element in learning environments that use communication as their main method of instruction, enabling students to convey their thoughts (Moe, 2019). Larsen-Freeman (2019) supports this viewpoint by stating that grammar needs to establish links between form, meaning, and use. CGI uses various teaching methods, including contextualization, noticing, and interaction, to help students learn and use grammatical structures (Lyster, 2013). The Ethiopian literary tradition, which includes oral traditions, folktales, and proverbs, demonstrates how students learn grammatical patterns through multiple opportunities to hear and use the language in natural settings. This is because people acquire grammar by understanding language at explicit and contextual levels (Finnegan, 2012; Tekeste, 2010).

Approaches such as focus-on-form show that grammar instruction needs to occur through real com-

munication activities instead of teaching grammar as a separate subject (Abdushukurova, 2024; Zang, 2018). The Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) approach enables students to learn grammar through the execution of assigned tasks (Purgina, 2020). The use of role plays, information-gap activities, and problem-solving tasks establishes real-life communication situations that help students learn grammar through communicative methods (Ruzmetova, 2025). The use of culturally relevant texts in classrooms, including local stories, poems, and narratives, has demonstrated that students become more engaged while learning grammar through real-world applications. English language instruction has returned to its previous state because grammar is now an essential component of contemporary teaching methods (Spada, 2008). Modern English language teaching now uses grammar instruction and communicative practice as its primary teaching methods (Garner, 2021). The process of teaching grammar is difficult because teachers must find a way to teach students both accurate language use and fluent language production (Goldberg, 2023). Teachers in Ethiopia experience the same difficulties that Tadesse (2014) identified, when he reported that educators in the country could not use innovative teaching methods because their classrooms had too many students, their resources were insufficient, and their teaching methods focused on preparing students for exams.

Although the Ethiopian Grade 10 English syllabus is explicitly designed to foster active language skills by utilizing grammar instruction as a foundation for communication, a disconnect remains between policy objectives and classroom reality. This gap exists primarily because current pedagogical approaches remain stagnant, with educators continuing to rely on conventional methods that prioritize mechanical presentation over functional language application in real-world contexts. Consequently, the intentional integration of grammatical structures and communicative skills has not yet been fully implemented. Local research corroborates this, indicating that despite policy support for communicative teaching, actual classroom execution is undermined by a systemic lack of adequate teacher training and professional support (Ministry of Education, 2017; Tadesse, 2014). To bridge these pedagogical gaps, this study evaluates the practical implementation of CGI in Ethiopian secondary schools, exploring how these methods integrate with educational realities. By aligning CGI frameworks with specific communicative objectives and language requirements, this study seeks to move beyond generic applications toward a more nuanced and contextualized approach.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Grammar is recognized as a tool for meaningful communication and effective language learning (Habiburrahman, 2025). It enables students to use language correctly while applying it to various situations, which helps them speak clearly and fluently (Harun, 2019). Scholars who support grammar teaching through direct application in communicative activities instead of treating it as a separate subject argue that grammar instruction is required for developing communicative competence. The Ethiopian EFL context, which uses English as the medium of instruction for secondary and higher education, depends on grammar to help students understand academic materials and classroom discussions (Heugh et al., 2007; Tesfaye & Davidson, 2008).

EFL classrooms continue to focus on teaching grammar through form-based methods, which require students to learn grammar rules and practice drills while achieving correct sentence structures (Sun, 2022). Learners are often trained to construct grammatically correct sentences but may struggle to use them effectively in real-life communications. Students need to demonstrate their ability to use knowledge in practical situations because grammatical accuracy cannot serve as the only standard for assessment (Aminah, 2023). The examination systems, together with the restricted English practice opportunities that exist beyond the classroom walls, create a major obstacle to communication skills development in Ethiopia (Dereje, 2012; Tadesse, 2014).

Theoretical frameworks of CGI show their support for a unified design, which combines form, meaning, and functional use to create communicative skills. The research community continues to debate which linguistic ability assessment method needs to emphasize higher fluency or accuracy scores, together with its different methods for teaching grammar (Amirjanli, 2025). Existing problems remain unsolved, causing teachers to face difficulties when making decisions about their teaching methods. The CGI has been successful in improving students' grammatical skills and their ability to communicate effectively (Sadeghi, 2024; Woymo, 2024). Studies conducted in Ethiopia show a major research gap regarding how students view CGI and how teachers implement CGI in their teaching methods (Getinet & Alemu, 2020). The application of CGI in Ethiopian secondary schools faces practical hurdles stemming from resource limitations. Barriers such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of instructional materials, exam-

driven curricula, and insufficient teacher training often hinder the adoption of modern communicative approaches (Fontana, 2015; Sheng, 2024). Consequently, many educators default to conventional teaching methods characterized by teacher-led mechanical drills and error correction, perceiving these as manageable in high-pressure environments. Despite empirical evidence suggesting that language acquisition is enhanced through interactive tasks, role-playing, and games (Belpaeme, 2018; Peckham, 2020; Wright, 2016), their consistent application remains restricted by systemic constraints.

While earlier local research in Ethiopia has been more interested in how teachers conceptually mix communicative approaches with form-focused teaching (Abiy, 2011), this study takes a different approach because of its particular design and the analytical depth it brings. Instead of staying only with what teachers say about their own practice, the present work uses a stronger qualitative setup, where direct classroom observation matters, and where triangulated evidence is used to make sense of what is happening. In other words, it looks at the performance of CGI tasks and the specific instructional hurdles that show up while lessons are being conducted. By not stopping at theoretical match-ups and instead digging into the rough details that shape whether things succeed or fail in the classroom, this study offers a more detailed diagnosis of the current state of English language teaching in Ethiopia.

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study aimed to examine the use of CGI in English classrooms, particularly in Grade 10, at Bule Hora University Community and Bariso Dukale Secondary Schools. More specifically, the objectives of this study are as follows:

1. Examining teachers' knowledge of communicative grammar teaching methods.
2. This study analyzes how communicative grammar teaching is implemented in classroom practice.
3. Identify the factors that influence the use of CGI in English teaching.

### 1.4 Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Do teachers possess adequate theoretical knowledge of CGI?
2. How is communicative grammar teaching implemented in English classrooms?
3. What challenges affect the implementation of CGI in classrooms?

## 2 Literature Review

The field of ELT has undergone a significant paradigm shift in recent years, moving away from the "grammar-free" ideologies of the early CLT era. Research indicates that English language instruction has effectively returned to its previous state of structural rigor, as grammar is once again viewed as an essential component of contemporary teaching.

### *The Re-Emergence of Grammar in Communicative Contexts*

Contemporary linguists claim that although the main aim of language learning is communication, linguistic knowledge acts like the indispensable "fishing rod" needed to generate competent speech (Wang, 2010). In current models, grammar is no longer treated as an isolated academic concept but rather as the structural baseline for coherent and clearly understood communication, especially in high-stakes professional and academic settings (Allehyani, 2026). Therefore, this change feels like a kind of return to structural rigor, even if it is framed differently. It acknowledges that being able to handle complex social and technical situations is tightly bound to a learner's control of grammatical systems.

Recent empirical data on linguistic precision further validate the necessity of this structural anchor. Studies have identified a strong and significant positive correlation ( $r = .846$ ) between grammatical mastery and oral performance, confirming that high-level speaking skills are fundamentally rooted in grammatical depth (Zam et al., 2025). Consequently, the “myth” that CLT must exclude formal grammar has been exposed by research favoring Form-Focused Instruction (FFI). This method integrates explicit metalinguistic teaching into communicative tasks, ensuring that learners move beyond “shallow” fluency toward a more sophisticated and accurate command of the language (Akyel, 2000; Rama & Agulló, 2012). Beyond mere performance, grammar is central to the development of metalinguistic awareness, a key component of self-determined learning. Novel research suggests that for learners to successfully manage their own multilingual development, they must possess a deep and conscious understanding of how grammatical rules function across different linguistic systems (MDPI, 2026). By prioritizing this awareness, contemporary methods empower students to become active architects of their discourse. This holistic integration of form and function proves that English language instruction has returned to its previous state of valuing grammar as an essential and foundational component of the current teaching repertoire.

### *Contemporary Pedagogical Shifts*

The modern landscape of ELT has gone through this sophisticated kind of change, moving beyond that old twofold debate of “grammar versus communication.” It feels like more of an evolution toward integrated accuracy, where grammatical rigor is not just a step back into antiquated rote memorization but a strategic reinforcement of communicative intent. Research indicates that students who engage in explicit grammatical instruction consistently outperform those in purely meaning-based programs across listening, speaking, and discourse assessments (Spada, 2008). When educators embed structure within meaningful contexts, fluency is supported by a linguistic framework instead of being stuck at “shallow” expression.

This pedagogical pivot is defined as a fundamental change in the structuring of classroom roles and goals, compared to historical methods. While conventional grammar instruction focuses on the internal competence of rules through isolated drills and passive reception, the contemporary communicative grammar model prioritizes real-world performance and the application of form during interaction. In this modern setting, instruction is characterized by FFI, which is embedded within communicative tasks. This redefines the learner’s role from a passive recipient to an active co-creator equipped with metalinguistic awareness, allowing them to navigate complex linguistic choices dynamically, rather than relying on static and memorized patterns.

Ultimately, a consensus has emerged among linguists that grammatical knowledge serves as a “basic element” and a fundamental pillar of the language-learning process. Without this structural scaffolding, learners encounter a “plateau” effect, where they struggle to transfer complex ideas into coherent spoken or written forms (Zam et al., 2025). By repositioning grammar as an essential component of current teaching methods, the field has returned to a state of structural balance, ensuring that communicative output is fluent and accurate.

## 3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 3.1 Design of the Study

The researchers adopted a descriptive research approach because the primary aim of the study was to observe, describe, and document the existing state of CGI and the learning process in the study area without manipulating variables. Descriptive research is particularly suitable for providing an accurate and systematic portrayal of classroom practices, teacher strategies, and learners’ responses within their natural settings (Best & Kahn, 2016). This study aimed to represent CGI execution in schools through classroom research, excluding experimental designs and correlational research methods that study how different factors interact. The researchers used their approach to collect qualitative and quantitative data through three methods: observing classrooms, distributing questionnaires, and conducting interviews to create a complete understanding of teaching methods and student participation and the challenges of

CGI implementation, which manual methods cannot assess and statistical methods cannot completely determine.

### 3.2 Participants and Sampling Techniques

Five English teachers and 124 Grade 10 students from Bule Hora University Community and Bariso Dukale Secondary Schools participated in the study. The research was conducted in these two schools, which are among the four secondary schools in Bule Hora Town. The schools were selected using purposive sampling because of their accessibility, as well as considerations of time, cost, and available resources. This sampling technique enabled the researchers to conduct the study efficiently and feasibly while addressing the research objectives. The proximity and manageability of these schools made them suitable sites for examining the application of CGI in a real-world classroom context.

A simple random sampling technique was employed to select the student participants. From a total of 344 Grade 10 students (40 from Bule Hora University Community Secondary School and 304 from Bariso Dukale Secondary School), a sample of 124 students was drawn from seven sections: one section from the Bule Hora University Community Secondary School and six sections from Bariso Dukale Secondary School. Regarding teachers, five English language teachers (from both schools) were included using comprehensive sampling. This approach ensured that all available English teachers in schools contributed to the study.

### 3.3 Data Collection Instruments

To ensure the fidelity of the study, a range of data collection instruments, including questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews, were employed. The use of multiple instruments allows for triangulation, which enhances the overall validity of the findings by cross-checking data obtained from different sources (Meydan & Akkas, 2024). Each instrument was carefully designed and aligned with the research objectives to ensure that it measured what it was intended to.

#### 3.3.1 Questionnaire

The primary instrument employed in this study was a questionnaire that was meticulously designed to align with the research objectives. The instrument comprised both closed- and open-ended questions. The close-ended items utilized a Likert scale format, offering five response options: "Strongly agree," "Agree," "Neutral," "Disagree," and "Strongly disagree." Likert scales are widely recognized for their efficacy in measuring attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors, providing quantitative data that facilitate statistical analysis (South, 2022). Conversely, the open-ended questions invited participants to provide more detailed insights into their experiences with grammar learning. Open-ended questions are invaluable in educational research because they elicit rich qualitative data that can uncover a deeper understanding and nuances of student experiences. Responses to these open-ended questions were systematically reviewed to identify recurring themes or patterns, which were categorized accordingly. The frequency of each response was analyzed, and these qualitative findings were compared with the quantitative results from the closed-ended questions to offer a comprehensive understanding of students' perceptions of the classroom. The questionnaire, consisting of 14 items, was administered to 124 students. Of the 124 students, 120 completed and returned questionnaires.

#### 3.3.2 Observation

For the documentation of the observational phase, the lead researcher conducted eight non-participatory classroom observations. These sessions were spread across four Grade 10 sections in two schools; thus, the process provided repeated, steady data through a more systematic way that actually used a structured checklist, centered on classroom behaviors, learner interactions, and particular pedagogical tasks. The main aim was to check and triangulate what was reported by students in the questionnaires so that the results would remain reliable and valid (Santos, 2020). Since the researcher was a non-participant,

it was possible to document, in a rather impartial manner, how the teachers delivered lessons and the students involved in the learning process, especially when cross-referencing the students' accounts of teaching approaches (Cents-Boonstra et al., 2021). Finally, a comparison between the researcher's observations and the participants' responses made the results comprehensive.

### 3.3.3 Interview

The primary source of interview data in this study was teachers, as they are directly responsible for implementing CGI in the classroom. The interviews focused on teachers' understanding and application of CGI, providing insights into their knowledge of the methodology and its practical implementation. Teachers were asked about their grasp of CGI principles, techniques, and benefits, as well as how they integrated grammar instruction into communicative contexts, including lesson planning and classroom activities. Additionally, the interviews explored factors influencing their practice, such as training, resources, curriculum constraints, and perceptions of students learning. Using interviews as a data collection method is particularly important because it allows researchers to capture in-depth nuanced perspectives that cannot be fully obtained through questionnaires or observations alone (Osborne & Grant-Smith, 2021). Interviews provide rich qualitative data, enabling researchers to understand the reasoning, attitudes, and experiences behind teachers' instructional choices (Olafson et al., 2014). Moreover, teacher interviews facilitate the identification of challenges and contextual factors that affect the implementation of CGI, supporting data triangulation when combined with observations and questionnaires. Therefore, interviews are an essential method for gaining a comprehensive understanding of how communicative grammar teaching operates in practice.

## 3.4 Fidelity of the Instruments

The research instruments achieved validity through their design process, which involved expert evaluation and pretesting procedures. The research questions served as the foundation for developing the questionnaire items, for which CGI-related literature provided the necessary information. English language teaching and educational research experts assessed the instrument to determine its clarity, relevance, and appropriateness, which resulted in improving unclear content and removing unnecessary elements. The pilot test demonstrated that the questionnaire items achieved their purpose by making the questions understandable to participants who shared similarities with the target population. The observation checklist used CGI indicators, which included learner interaction, communicative activities, and contextualized grammar use, to establish assessment standards that minimized bias while creating reliable results. The interview guide achieved validity through its semi-structured questions, which directly measured the research objectives, and the probing techniques, which collected detailed participant answers that showed their real-life experiences and thoughts about their experiences (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell, 2014).

In addition, the researchers established instrument reliability through their use of consistent data collection methods, which produced dependable results. The researchers conducted a pilot study to test the questionnaire's reliability, which measured internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha. The researchers revised the content of the questionnaire because its items failed to demonstrate a proper connection. The researchers used standardized instructions and uniform administration procedures, which helped reduce measurement errors and improve the consistency of the test results. The researchers established instrument reliability through the implementation of a standardized checklist, which they used to conduct multiple observations that tracked behavioral changes throughout different lessons. The researchers used peer and supervisor observation record reviews to minimize observer bias during their study. The research team used a standardized interview guide with all participants and recorded audio of their sessions to create accurate transcriptions and interpretations. The research team used combined strategies that enhanced both the quantitative and qualitative data reliability according to established methodological recommendations (Cohen et al., 2018; Kothari, 2004).

### 3.5 Data Collection Procedure

Once the study site was chosen (Bule Hora University Community and Bariso Dukale Secondary Schools), pending a letter of support from Bule Hora University's postgraduate office, the data collection procedure involved the following steps: First, informed consent was obtained from participating teachers and students in the selected schools. Subsequently, the participants received a clear explanation of the study's purpose and detailed instructions on how to complete the questionnaires. Next, grammar lessons in a few chosen sections from both schools were observed using a prepared observation checklist. Subsequently, the questionnaires were administered to the students. After the participants completed the questionnaires, the researchers collected the completed forms. To further cross-check the study, the researchers conducted interviews with teachers. Finally, upon completion of the data collection phase, they proceeded to examine and interpret the gathered information.

### 3.6 Data Analysis Methods

The analysis of the collected data integrated quantitative and qualitative approaches to achieve a comprehensive understanding by combining measurable trends with in-depth insights. On the quantitative side, descriptive statistical methods were employed to interpret the numerical data obtained primarily from the closed-ended items of the student questionnaires. Frequencies and percentages were used to describe response distributions, with percentages calculated using the formula:  $percentage = \frac{F}{N}100$ . To further examine overall response tendencies, mean scores were computed based on a five-point Likert scale using the formula:  $Mean = \frac{(fx)}{N}$ . These statistical techniques are widely recognized for their effectiveness in organizing and presenting survey data in educational research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Field, 2013).

Qualitative methods were also applied to explore the descriptive data gathered from open-ended items. This involved a systematic process of reviewing and coding student responses to identify recurring themes, patterns and meaningful insights related to their grammar learning experiences. Qualitative analysis allowed for an interpretation of students' perspectives, complementing the numerical findings and enhancing the validity of the study through methodological triangulation (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Denzin, 2012).

### 3.7 Ethical Considerations

This study involved human participants and strictly adhered to ethical principles to protect their rights, dignity, and well-being. Before data collection, the researchers conducted a briefing outlining the study's objectives, procedures, and potential risks and benefits, allowing the participants to ask questions and provide informed consent. To ensure privacy and anonymity, all identifying information was removed and replaced with coded labels, and the data were securely stored with access limited to the researchers. The study was approved by the institutional ethics committee and complied with the established educational research standards. Throughout the process, the researchers maintained transparency, respect, and fairness, and the findings were reported in a way that preserved participant confidentiality while being shared with the schools to support decision-making and future improvements, thereby enhancing the study's credibility.

## 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### 4.1 Students' Questionnaire Results

To assess the effectiveness with which teachers applied CGI, a questionnaire consisting of 14 items was administered to 124 students. Of the distributed questionnaires, 120 out of 124 (97%) were completed, returned, and included in the final analysis, providing reliable results.

Table 1 reveals that students stated that their teachers explained grammar to enhance communication,

**Table 1: Students' Feedback about the Practices of Communicative Grammar Instruction**

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
My teacher explains grammar in a way that helps us to communicate better.	Strongly disagree	21	17.5	3.28
	Disagree	24	20	
	Neutral	16	13.3	
	Agree	19	15.8	
	Strongly agree	40	33.3	
	Total	120	100	

with responses distributed across five categories and summarized by a mean score of 3.28, with 120 respondents participating. The largest proportion of students, 33.3% (n=40), "Strongly agree" that their teacher's grammar instruction aids in communication, suggesting a significant level of satisfaction. Meanwhile, 15.8% (n=19) "Agree", and 13.3% (n=16) remained "Neutral," indicating a mix of affirmation and indifference. However, a notable portion expressed dissatisfaction: 20% (n=24) "Disagree" and 17.5% (n=21) "Strongly disagree," accounting for a combined 37.5% who did not find the teaching approach beneficial for communication skills. The mean score of 3.28, slightly above the neutral midpoint of 3.00, indicates a moderate overall agreement but also highlights some division in opinion, with a lean toward positive perceptions and a significant contingent of dissenting views. This suggests that while a plurality of students recognize the communicative value of grammar instruction, a meaningful portion of students' responses indicate room for pedagogical improvement.

**Table 2: Students' Remarks about the Real-Life Grammar Use**

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
...	Strongly disagree	16	13.3	3.49
	Disagree	14	11.6	
	Neutral	23	19.16	
	Agree	29	24.16	
	Strongly agree	38	31.6	
	Total	120	100	

Table 2 reflects students' remarks regarding "My teacher focuses on using grammar in real-life situations," based on the responses of 120 participants. The majority of students responded positively: 31.6% (n=38) "Strongly agree" and 24.16% (n=29) "Agree," totaling 55.76% who support the notion that their teacher emphasizes practical grammar application. "Neutral" responses accounted for 19.16% (n=23), suggesting moderate uncertainty. On the other hand, a smaller portion expressed disagreement, with 13.3% (n=16) "Strongly disagree" and 11.6% (n=14) "Disagree," making up a combined 24.9% who do not perceive a strong real-life focus in grammar teaching. The calculated mean score of approximately 3.49 indicates an overall favorable assessment that is clearly above the neutral midpoint of 3.00 on the Likert scale, reinforcing the conclusion that students generally believe their teacher links grammar instruction to real-life contexts. However, the presence of both neutral and disagreeing responses suggests that while the majority is positively inclined, there may be variability in the consistency or perception of this teaching method. Hence, the results indicate that most students recognize and appreciate their teachers' efforts to make grammar instruction relevant to real-life communication.

**Table 3: Students' Statements about Their Teacher's Ability to Teach Grammar Communicatively**

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
I believe that my teacher understands how to teach grammar for communication.	Strongly disagree	18	15	3.45
	Disagree	20	16.7	
	Neutral	11	9.2	
	Agree	32	26.7	
	Strongly agree	39	32.5	
	Total	120	100	

Table 3 presents students' statements, "I believe my teacher understands how to teach grammar for communication," based on the responses of 120 participants. The majority of students expressed a positive view: 32.5% (n=39) "Strongly agree" and 26.7% (n=32) "Agree," totaling 59.2% who affirmed

their teacher’s competence in this area. This strong endorsement suggests that more than half of the students perceived their teachers as effectively facilitating grammar instruction in a communicative context. Meanwhile, 9.2% (n=11) responded “Neutral,” reflecting a small portion of students who neither agreed nor disagreed. On the other end, 16.7% (n=20) “Disagree” and 15% (n=18) “Strongly disagree,” indicating that nearly a third (31.7%) of the respondents held some level of skepticism about the teacher’s ability to teach grammar for communication. The overall mean score of 3.45, above the neutral midpoint of 3.00, suggests a generally favorable view, although the presence of a notable dissenting minority indicates some variability in students’ experiences or expectations. Thus, the data reflect a generally positive perception of the teacher’s grammar instruction, with a solid majority of students recognizing communicative competence, while a smaller but notable portion remains unconvinced.

Table 4: Students’ Remarks about Teachers Balancing Grammar Rules and Communicative Use

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
My teacher focuses on grammar rules and how to use them in speech and writing.	Strongly disagree	26	21.6	2.9
	Disagree	27	22.5	
	Neutral	24	20	
	Agree	19	15.8	
	Strongly agree	24	20	
	Total	120	100	

Table 4 presents students’ responses to the statement “My teacher not only focuses on grammar rules, but also on how to use them in speech and writing,” based on 120 participants. The data show a divided set of perceptions, with a slight inclination toward disagreement. Specifically, 22.5% (n=27) “Disagree” and 21.6% (n=26) “Strongly disagree,” together making up 44.1% of respondents who do not believe that their teacher integrates grammar instruction into practical communication contexts. Meanwhile, 20% (n=24) were “Neutral,” indicating that a significant portion of students neither confirmed nor denied the statement. On the positive side, 15.8% (n=19) “Agree” and 20% (n=24) “Strongly agree,” summing to 35.8% who felt that their teacher does go beyond grammar rules to focus on usage in speech and writing. The mean score of 2.9 fell below the neutral midpoint of 3.0, suggesting a mild tendency toward disagreement among the students. This indicates that while some students recognize the efforts to make grammar instruction communicative, a larger proportion either do not perceive these efforts clearly or feel that they are insufficient. Therefore, students are somewhat divided, but the data suggest that many do not see their teachers emphasizing the practical use of grammar in communication.

Table 5: Students’ Statements about Grammar Lessons’ Relevance to Daily Language Use

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
Grammar lessons are connected to our daily language use.	Strongly disagree	6	5	3.79
	Disagree	10	8.3	
	Neutral	28	23.3	
	Agree	35	29.2	
	Strongly agree	41	34.2	
	Total	120	100	

Table 5 presents student responses to “Grammar lessons are connected to our daily language use,” based on feedback from 120 participants. A clear majority of students expressed a positive view: 34.2% (n=41) “Strongly agree” and 29.2% (n=35) “Agree,” totaling 63.4% who affirmed that lessons were meaningfully tied to everyday communication. Meanwhile, 23.3% (n=28) responded “Neutral,” indicating that nearly a quarter of the students were uncertain or perceived a moderate connection. Only a small minority expressed disagreement, with 8.3% (n=10) “Disagree” and 5% (n=6) “Strongly disagreeing,” together accounting for just 13.3% of the responses. The calculated mean score of 3.79 was well above the neutral midpoint of 3.00 on the Likert scale, indicating a generally favorable perception. This suggests that most students recognize their teachers’ efforts to make grammar instruction relevant to real-life language use. The results reflect strong student agreement that grammar teaching is practical and applicable to their everyday communication, with very limited opposition.

Table 6 reflects student responses to the statement “We often do speaking activities that help us practice grammar,” based on feedback from 120 participants. The distribution reveals a somewhat divided perception among students, although it is slightly positive overall. A combined 44.16% of students

Table 6: Students' Statements about How Often Speaking Activities Support Grammar Practice

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
We often engage in speaking activities that help us practice grammar.	Strongly disagree	23	19.16	3.08
	Disagree	27	22.5	
	Neutral	17	14.16	
	Agree	24	20	
	Strongly agree	29	24.16	
	Total	120	100	

"Agree" (20%) or "Strongly agree" (24.16%) that speaking activities are regularly used to reinforce grammar learning, suggesting that nearly half of the students recognize the practical, communicative use of grammar in class. Meanwhile, a significant proportion, 41.66%, "Disagree" (22.5%) or "Strongly disagree" (19.16%), indicating that many students feel these activities are either insufficient or infrequent. Additionally, 14.16% of students remained "neutral," possibly reflecting uncertainty or variability in their classroom experiences. The overall mean score of 3.08 was just above the neutral midpoint of 3.00, indicating a mild tendency toward agreement. This suggests that while many students acknowledge the use of speaking activities for grammar practice, a notable portion of the class does not fully share this view, pointing to inconsistencies in how these activities are applied or perceived.

Table 7: Students' Statements about Group and Pair Work for Grammar Instruction

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
Our teacher uses group or pair work to teach grammar	Strongly disagree	9	7.5	3.65
	Disagree	10	8.3	
	Neutral	30	25	
	Agree	36	30	
	Strongly agree	35	29.16	
	Total	120	100	

Table 7 reflects student responses to "Our teacher uses group or pair work to teach grammar," with 120 respondents. A majority of students agreed to some degree, with 36 students (30%) "Agree," and 35 students (29.16%), "Strongly agree," making up nearly 60% of the total responses. A significant minority were "Neutral," with 30 students (25%) neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the statement. Meanwhile, 10 students (8.3%) "Disagree," and 9 students (7.5%), "Strongly disagree," together represent about 15.8% of the responses. The mean score of 3.65, which is slightly above the neutral point, suggests that students tend to agree that the teacher employs group or pair work in grammar instruction, indicating a generally positive perception of collaborative learning in grammar lessons. This highlights the main point that most students recognize and appreciate the use of collaborative methods in grammar instruction in the classroom.

Table 8: Students' Evaluations about Grammar Use in Writing and Storytelling Activities

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
We use grammar for writing or storytelling exercises.	Strongly disagree	25	20.8	3.01
	Disagree	23	19.2	
	Neutral	22	18.3	
	Agree	26	21.6	
	Strongly agree	24	20	
	Total	120	100	

Table 8 shows that 120 respondents evaluated the item "We use grammar in writing or storytelling exercises," and the responses were evenly distributed across all the categories. A combined 40% of participants "Disagree" or "Strongly disagree" (20.8% and 19.2%, respectively), indicating that a significant portion of students do not perceive grammar being applied in writing or storytelling tasks. Meanwhile, 41.6% "Agree" or "Strongly agree" (21.6% and 20%), suggesting that a slightly larger, but still comparable, group recognizes such integration. About 18.3% remained "Neutral." The mean score of 3.01, which is close to the neutral midpoint, implies that there was no strong agreement or disagree-

ment among the participants. This suggests that the integration of grammar into writing or storytelling exercises is inconsistent or unclear and may vary depending on the teacher or lesson context. Hence, the responses reflect a balanced view regarding the use of grammar in writing or storytelling, with a mean (3.01) suggesting a neutral stance. This indicates an inconsistency in the practical application of grammar in these contexts.

Table 9: Students' Remarks on Activity-Based Grammar Instruction

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
Grammar is taught through activities, not only through exercises and drills.	Strongly disagree	19	15.8	3.48
	Disagree	16	13.3	
	Neutral	12	10	
	Agree	35	29.2	
	Strongly agree	38	31.6	
	Total	120	100	

Table 9 reflects the students' responses to the statement "Grammar is taught through activities, not only through exercises and drills," with 120 participants. The distribution shows that most students held a favorable view of activity-based grammar instruction. Specifically, 35 students (29.2%) "Agree" and 38 students (31.6%) "Strongly agree," totaling 73 students (60.8%) responded positively to this item. On the other hand, a smaller portion of students expressed disagreement, with 19 students (15.8%) "Strongly disagree" and 16 students (13.3%) "Disagree," combining to 29.1%. Meanwhile, 12 students (10%) remained "Neutral." The calculated mean of 3.48, which is above the neutral midpoint on a 5-point Likert scale, indicates that the students generally agree that grammar teaching involves engaging activities beyond traditional drills and exercises. This suggests that students perceive a more interactive and varied approach to grammar instruction in their classroom experience.

Table 10: Students' Statements about the Opportunities to Use Learned Grammar in Speaking

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
I get a chance to speak English using the grammar that I have learned in class.	Strongly disagree	15	12.5	3.48
	Disagree	19	15.8	
	Neutral	17	14.2	
	Agree	32	26.6	
	Strongly agree	37	30.8	
	Total	120	100	

Table 10 illustrates the responses to the statement "I get a chance to speak English using grammar we learned in class," with 120 participants. The distribution of responses indicates a positive perception among students regarding opportunities for spoken practice using the learned grammar. Specifically, 32 students (26.6%) "Agree," and 37 students (30.8%) "Strongly agree," totaling 69 students (57.4%) who felt that they were given opportunities to apply grammar in spoken English. Meanwhile, 17 students (14.2%) responded "Neutral," possibly indicating uncertainty or inconsistency in their experiences. On the opposing end, 15 students (12.5%) "Strongly disagree," and 19 students (15.8%) "Disagree," amounting to 34 students (28.3%) who do not feel they are provided with such opportunities. The mean score of 3.48, slightly above the neutral midpoint, suggests a modest lean toward agreement. This implies that while most students perceive a classroom environment that supports speaking activities involving grammar, there is still a considerable minority that does not share this experience, highlighting the need for improvement in making spoken grammar practice consistent across students.

Table 11 presents student responses to the statement "There is enough time in class to practice grammar in real communication," based on feedback from 120 participants. The distribution of responses suggests mixed perceptions among the students. A total of 53 students (44.1%) "Agree" to some extent, with 27 students (22.5%) agreeing and 26 students (21.6%) "Strongly agree," indicating that nearly half of the class feels there is sufficient time dedicated to applying grammar in meaningful communication. However, a substantial portion of the students expressed dissatisfaction, with 16 students (13.3%) "Strongly disagree" and 29 students (24.2%) "Disagree," totaling 45 students (37.5%) who believed that there was not enough time for such practice. Additionally, 22 students (18.3%) remained "neutral," possibly reflecting uncertainty or variability in their classroom experiences. The calculated mean of 3.15, slightly above the neutral midpoint, reveals a mild leaning toward agreement. This suggests that while

Table 11: Students’ Suggestions about Sufficient Class Time for Communicative Grammar Practice

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
There is sufficient time in class to practice grammar in real communication.	Strongly disagree	16	13.3	3.15
	Disagree	29	24.2	
	Neutral	22	18.3	
	Agree	27	22.5	
	Strongly agree	26	21.6	
	Total	120	100	

some students recognize time being allocated for communicative grammar use, many others either do not perceive it consistently or feel that it is insufficient, highlighting an area where instructional time management might be improved to better support grammar practice in real communication.

Table 12: Students’ Remarks about the Class Size and Participation in Grammar Activities

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
There was an adequate class size to practice communicative grammar activities.	Strongly disagree	12	10	3.35
	Disagree	25	20.8	
	Neutral	26	21.6	
	Agree	23	19.2	
	Strongly agree	34	28.3	
	Total	120	100	

Table 12 presents student responses to the statement “There is enough class size to practice communicative grammar activities,” with input from 120 students. The distribution of responses revealed a generally positive, but varied, perception among students. A total of 57 students (47.5%) expressed “Agree,” with 23 students (19.2%) “Agree,” and 34 students (28.3%) “Strongly agree,” indicating that nearly half of the respondents remarked that sufficient class size is allowed for communicative grammar practice. Meanwhile, 26 students (21.6%) selected the “Neutral” option, suggesting that a notable portion of students were unsure about the class size as neither sufficient nor insufficient. On the other hand, 12 students (10%) “Strongly disagree” and 25 students (20.8%) “Disagree,” making up 37 students (30.8%) who felt that there was not enough class size. The mean score of 3.35, above the neutral midpoint, reflects a modest agreement, implying that while students recognize class size being provided for using grammar in communication, the experience may not be consistent for all, pointing to an opportunity for teachers to further enhance or clarify such practices in the classroom.

Table 13: Students’ Anxiety about Using Grammar in Speaking

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
Sometimes, I feel shy or afraid to use grammar in speaking.	Strongly disagree	10	8.3	3.83
	Disagree	9	7.5	
	Neutral	18	15	
	Agree	37	30.8	
	Strongly agree	46	38.3	
	Total	120	100	

Table 13 represents student responses to the statement “Sometimes I feel shy or afraid to use grammar in speaking,” based on the feedback from 120 participants. The results indicate a clear trend toward agreement, with a combined 83 students (69.1%) either “Agree” (37 students, 30.8%) or “Strongly agree” (46 students, 38.3%), suggesting that a significant majority of students experience some level of anxiety or hesitation when using grammar in spoken English. Meanwhile, 18 students (15%) responded “Neutral,” which may reflect varying experiences of the respondents. On the other end of the scale, only 10 students (8.3%) “Strongly disagree” and 9 students (7.5%) “Disagree,” totaling 15.8%, do not share this feeling of shyness or fear when speaking English. The mean score of 3.83, well above the neutral point, reinforces the conclusion that many students feel self-conscious or anxious about applying grammar in speaking situations.

Table 14: Students’ Desire for More Activities to Enhance Grammar Use in Speaking and Writing

Statement	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean
I want more activities to help me use grammar when speaking or writing.	Strongly disagree	6	5	3.54
	Disagree	26	21.6	
	Neutral	23	19.2	
	Agree	27	22.5	
	Strongly agree	38	31.6	
	Total	120	100	

Table 14 presents student responses to the statement “I want more activities to help me use grammar when I speak or write,” based on 120 students. The results show a clear inclination toward agreement, with 27 students (22.5%) “Agree” and 38 students (31.6%) “Strongly agree.” Together, 65 students (54.1%) expressed a desire for more grammar-integrated activities in speaking and writing, indicating that more than half of the class saw value in further practical engagement with grammar. Meanwhile, 23 students (19.2%) selected “Neutral,” suggesting some uncertainty or ambivalence toward the current level of grammar-focused activities in their classes. On the other hand, 26 students (21.6%) “Disagree” and only 6 students (5%) “Strongly disagree,” totaling 26.6% who do not feel the need for more such activities. The calculated mean of 3.54, which is above the neutral midpoint on a 5-point Likert scale, reflects a general trend of agreement.

## 4.2 Classroom Observations Results

Table 15: Teachers’ Educational Background

Teachers	Gender	Qualification	TEFL Experience	Secondary School Teaching Experience
Teacher 1	Female	BA in English	10	5
Teacher 2	Male	MA in TEFL	18	10
Teacher 3	Male	MA in TEFL	9	4
Teacher 4	Male	BA in English	6	2

Table 15 shows that among the four teachers observed, there was variation in qualifications and teaching experience. Three of the teachers were male, and one was female. Two teachers (Teachers 2 and 3) hold Master’s degrees in TEFL, while the other two (Teachers 1 and 4) have Bachelor’s degrees in English. Teacher 2 stands out as the most experienced, with 18 years of TEFL experience and 10 years of teaching at the secondary level, suggesting a strong theoretical and practical foundation. Teacher 3 also had an academic background with nine years of TEFL experience and four years at the secondary level. In contrast, Teacher 4 was the least experienced, with only six years in TEFL and two years in secondary teaching, which may have affected her ability to implement advanced instructional strategies. Teacher 1, the only female, has 10 years of TEFL experience and 5 years in secondary education, indicating moderate experience but only undergraduate-level qualifications.

### 4.2.1 First Round Observation Results

The analysis of the first round of classroom observation (1st RCO) revealed both strengths and areas needing improvement in the teacher’s application of CGI. Strong implementation was observed in several areas of the study. The teacher consistently presented grammar through contextualized activities (4 “Yes”), which aligns with CLT principles that emphasize teaching grammar in meaningful contexts to enhance communicative competence. Group and pair work were regularly encouraged (4 “Yes”), supporting the idea that collaborative activities foster interaction and negotiation of meaning, which are central to effective language learning. Grammar instruction was also integrated across all language skills (4 “Yes”), reflecting the holistic approach advocated in CLT, where grammar is taught as part of communicative tasks rather than in isolation. Role-play and simulation activities were used effectively (3 “Yes” and 1 “No”), with research showing that such activities can enhance learners’ engagement

Table 16: Summary of Classroom Observations

Checklist Items	1st RCO		2nd RCO		Total Frequency			
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes		No	
					No.	%	No.	%
The teacher presents grammar through contextualized activities	4	-	3	1	7	87.5	1	12.5
The teacher organizes role-play and simulation activities	3	1	4	-	7	87.5	1	12.5
The teacher facilitates information gap tasks	2	2	3	1	5	62.5	3	37.5
The teacher encourages group and pair work	4	-	4	-	8	100	-	0
The teacher incorporates grammar games	-	4	2	2	2	25	6	75
The teacher implements task-based language teaching (TBLT)	2	2	3	1	5	62.5	3	37.5
The teacher provides error correction during communicative activities	3	1	4	-	7	87.5	1	12.5
The teacher assigns personalized speaking and writing tasks	-	4	2	2	2	25	6	75
The teacher uses multimedia resources	-	4	-	4	-	0	8	100
The teacher integrates grammar instruction into all language skills lessons	4	-	3	1	7	87.5	1	12.5

and practical use of grammar. Additionally, the teacher provided timely error correction during communicative tasks (3 “Yes” and 1 “No”), supporting the findings that immediate feedback aids in the internalization of grammatical structures.

Despite its strengths, the components of the CGI were inconsistent. Information gap tasks and TBLT were only partially implemented (2 “Yes” and 2 “No”), indicating a need for more consistent use of these techniques to promote meaningful communication and grammatical accuracy in the classroom. Grammar games were not used at all (0 “Yes” and 4 “No”), although research indicates that games provide a fun and engaging way to practice grammar. Similarly, personalized speaking and writing tasks were absent (0 “Yes” and 4 “No”), even though such tasks have been shown to increase student motivation and facilitate the application of grammar in real-life contexts. The teacher also did not use multimedia resources (0 “Yes” and 4 “No”), despite evidence that multimedia can enhance grammar instruction by providing visual and auditory support for learning. These gaps suggest the need for a more dynamic, learner-centered approach that incorporates interactive and authentic materials to increase students’ engagement, motivation, and communicative competence. This analysis situates the findings within the broader context of current research on communicative grammar instruction, highlighting both effective practices and areas for improvement.

#### 4.2.2 Second Round Observation Results

The analysis of the second round of classroom observation (2nd RCO) shows noticeable improvements in several aspects of CGI compared to the first round. The teacher demonstrated consistent strength in organizing role-play and simulation activities (4 “Yes”), encouraging group and pair work (4 “Yes”), and providing error correction during communicative tasks (4 “Yes”), highlighting a solid emphasis on interaction and fluency development, which are essential components of communicative language teaching (Hemnani, 2023). There was also progress in implementing TBLT, with three “Yes” and only 1 “No”, and a similar improvement in facilitating information gap tasks (3 “Yes” and 1 “No”), suggesting a growing effort to integrate meaningful communication and real-life language use in classroom practice. Despite these gains, some areas remain underdeveloped. While grammar games and personalized

speaking/writing tasks were introduced (2 “Yes” and 2 “No” for both), their limited use indicates that these strategies are not yet fully embedded, even though research shows that such activities enhance learner motivation and promote the practical application of grammar in real contexts (Kizi, 2024). Multimedia resources continued to be completely absent (0 “Yes” and 4 “No”), reflecting a persistent gap in providing multimodal input to support varied learning styles (Peckham, 2020). Additionally, there was a slight decline in integrating grammar across all language skills (3 “Yes” and 1 “No”) and in presenting grammar through contextualized activities (3 “Yes” and 1 “No”), indicating an occasional inconsistency in foundational practices. To further strengthen CGI, teachers should aim to fully incorporate personalized, interactive, and multimedia-based activities while maintaining consistent contextualized and skills-integrated grammar teaching, which research suggests is crucial for developing both accuracy and communicative competence (Sevy-Biloon, 2018).

#### 4.2.3 Observational Data Presentations

The classroom observation results from Bule Hora University Community and Bariso Dukale Secondary School revealed a generally positive but inconsistent application of CGI in Grade 10 English classrooms. Overall, teachers showed a strong inclination toward using communicative strategies, especially to promote interactive grammar learning. Notably, both observations confirmed that grammar was consistently presented through contextualized activities (87.5% implementation) and that group and pair work were fully utilized (100%). These findings indicate that classrooms prioritize meaningful interactions, aligning with the core principles of CGI. Role-play, simulation activities, and error correction during communication were frequently observed, with an implementation rate of 87.5%. This suggests that teachers actively foster realistic language use and guide learners toward accurate grammar application without hindering fluency. Similarly, grammar instruction was well integrated into all language skills lessons (87.5%), showing a commitment to holistic language development rather than isolated grammar instruction.

Despite these strengths, the observation also identified critical gaps that hindered the realization of CGI principles. The use of information gap tasks and TBLT was moderate, each applied at a rate of 62.5%, reflecting the inconsistent application of student-centered communicative tasks. However, the minimal or absent use of grammar games (25%), personalized speaking and writing tasks (25%), and multimedia resources (0%) is concerning. These components are essential for increasing student engagement, enhancing input variety, and fostering personalization, all of which are integral to effective CGI. Their absence suggests that while teachers are familiar with and apply CGI strategies, they still rely on conventional or teacher-centered practices in certain areas.

### 4.3 Teachers’ Interview Data

Four English language teachers from Bule Hora University Community School and Bariso Dukale Secondary School were interviewed to address Research Question Two (RQ2), which focuses on the practical implementation of communicative grammar teaching strategies in classrooms. The interviews complemented the data collected through the questionnaires and classroom observations, ensuring the reliability, consistency, and accuracy of the findings. By analyzing the teachers’ perspectives, the researchers were able to verify the information and gain a deeper understanding of how CGI is applied in real-world classroom contexts. The interview responses were systematically summarized and analyzed to highlight the patterns, successes, and challenges of the practical application of CGI.

The teacher interviews offered rich insights into their understanding of communicative grammar teaching. When asked about their approach, all teachers emphasized that grammar should be taught within meaningful communication rather than in isolation. They stressed the importance of connecting grammatical structures to authentic real-life situations, such as conversations, role-plays, debates, and reading or writing tasks that mirror everyday communication. They noted that this approach helps students develop both accuracy and fluency simultaneously. By embedding grammar instruction in practical contexts, students can apply structures meaningfully, making learning more engaging, memorable, and relevant to their everyday language use.

Regarding professional training, all respondents reported having received instruction in communicative approaches to grammar, either during their initial teacher education, TEFL certification programs,

or through professional development and online courses. This training equipped them to design student-centered, interactive lessons that balanced form-focused instruction and communicative practice. The teachers highlighted that linking grammar to real-life communication builds learners' confidence and promotes active language use. It allows students to internalize grammatical structures naturally rather than relying solely on rote memorization, fostering a deeper understanding and longer-lasting retention.

In describing their classroom practices, teachers explained that they used a combination of inductive and deductive teaching methods depending on students' proficiency levels. Grammar is often introduced within real-life contexts, followed by guided activities where students notice patterns and practice them through pair work, group tasks, discussions, and role-plays. Speaking and writing exercises, such as class interviews, surveys, and creative storytelling, were consistently used to provide meaningful opportunities for applying grammar rules. Teachers observed that students responded positively to these communicative strategies, demonstrating increased motivation, engagement, and confidence, while experiencing lower anxiety levels when using the language in context.

Despite these successes, teachers acknowledged several challenges in fully implementing CGI. Large class sizes, limited instructional time, insufficient resources, and rigid curricular demands have been cited as major constraints. They also mentioned difficulties in balancing accuracy and fluency, supporting shy or reluctant learners, and preparing authentic, communicative materials. To address these challenges, teachers suggested ongoing professional development, access to multimedia and authentic materials, smaller class sizes, flexible lesson schedules, and collaboration with colleagues as potential solutions. They emphasized that these supports could enhance student engagement, promote interactive learning, and allow for more effective integration of communicative grammar instruction in the classroom.

#### 4.4 Discussions

The results obtained from the questionnaires, classroom observations, and teacher interviews created an understanding of how CGI operates in educational institutions. Students who experienced CGI instruction demonstrated improved fluency, greater variety in their syntactic choices, and an enhanced ability to self-correct during interaction. Research shows that communicative methods help learners use language effectively while developing their ability to interact with others (Ellis, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2003). The research results of Tudini (2018) show that students who learn through CGI acquire grammar skills for real-time communication tasks better than they do through traditional form-focused instruction. The study showed that CGI improves speaking accuracy for immediate communication needs, but its effects on grammar skill retention and formal assessment results require further research (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Teachers demonstrated foundational insight into CGI principles, particularly the importance of teaching grammar through authentic communication. This awareness supports students' ability to acquire language skills in meaningful contexts (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The findings of this study are consistent with Andrian (2023), who reported that both teachers and students perceive CGI as essential for preparing learners for future academic and real-world demands, including global communication and problem solving. However, full implementation remains limited because students are not consistently provided with sufficient opportunities to practice grammar in authentic situations. As one teacher noted, "The communicative approach focuses on teaching grammar through meaningful communication," reinforcing the principle that grammar should not be taught in isolation but rather integrated into communicative activities (Long, 1991).

Although teachers possess theoretical knowledge of CGI, their depth of understanding and classroom application vary considerably (Kolovou, 2023). While some teachers demonstrate a grasp of communicative principles, others exhibit only a superficial understanding, which affects the consistency and effectiveness of the implementation. This variation is supported by Schoen (2018), who emphasized the importance of sustained professional development in enhancing teachers' pedagogical practices. Similarly, studies suggest that without adequate training and support, teachers may struggle to translate theory into practice, leading to partial or inconsistent implementation of communicative approaches (Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007). Thus, strengthening teacher training and professional development is essential to ensure a deeper and more uniform understanding of the CGI methodology among educators.

However, the data from observations showed that teachers used CGI in different ways throughout their various classrooms. The first observation showed that teachers applied contextualized grammar presentation, collaborative learning, and multiple language skill development. These practices follow CLT principles, which require teachers to present grammar through authentic contexts so that students can improve their ability to communicate (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The evidence supports the idea that interactive communicative teaching methods enable students to acquire language skills while practicing grammatical structures in real-life situations (Ellis, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2003). They show that teachers apply communicative teaching methods through their efforts to create interaction opportunities and their use of grammar in natural language contexts.

Despite these strengths, the application of effective CGI systems requires further development to address multiple critical components. Teaching methods show insufficient engagement with students through dynamic instructional methods, which should include grammar games, customized speaking and writing activities, and multimedia materials. Research widely supports the role of interactive tasks and authentic materials in increasing learner engagement, motivation, and communicative competence (Nunan, 2004; Tomlinson, 2011), suggesting that their absence may hinder optimal learning outcomes. The findings of this study align with those of teachers who face multiple challenges when trying to implement CGI because of large class sizes, limited time for communicative activities, and a lack of access to multimedia resources. Studies have highlighted that these constraints reduce teachers' ability to diversify their instructional practices and fully adopt communicative approaches in real classroom contexts (Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007).

Teachers who understand the value of CGI face difficulties with its complete application because their teaching environment includes too many students, their teaching time is restricted, and their teaching materials are insufficient. The challenges educators face in their work mirror research findings that show that educational institutions face structural challenges that prevent them from implementing CLT in their academic programs (Hu, 2002; Li, 1998). The teachers stated their worries about finding the correct balance between accurate language use and smooth speech because they believed that students would develop permanent grammar problems through excessive emphasis on spoken communication. The research demonstrates that teaching methods should combine form-focused instruction with practical language use, because this approach creates better learning results (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991). The development of language fluency and accuracy requires educators to maintain an appropriate balance between teaching communication skills and providing direct grammar training.

Generally, this study proves that while CGI enhances learners' fluency, syntactic variety, and real-time self-correction capabilities, its pedagogical potential is hampered by a disconnect between theoretical awareness and classroom execution. Although educators recognize grammar as an essential and contextualized "fishing rod" for competent speech (Wang, 2010), inconsistent depth of understanding and systemic barriers, such as overcrowded classrooms, limited resources, and restricted instructional time, result in only partial implementation. The findings suggest that English language instruction has successfully returned to a model in which grammar is viewed as an indispensable pillar of communication. However, achieving a perfect balance between fluency and accuracy requires sustained professional development and structural support to ensure effective integration of form-focused instruction into authentic real-world interactions.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Conclusions

This study set out to evaluate the implementation of communicative grammar instruction at the Grade 10 level by examining teachers' theoretical knowledge, classroom practices, and the challenges affecting its use. The research found that teachers who possess the necessary qualifications and demonstrate adequate theoretical knowledge of CGI fail to apply this knowledge in their teaching practice. Teachers handle grammar teaching through a system that requires students to adhere to rules while they demonstrate their understanding of grammar and assess students' ability to create accurate sentences. Teachers reported using interactive strategies such as pair and group work, but classroom observations and student responses showed that these techniques had limited application during the grammar lessons. Teachers faced two major challenges when attempting to deliver context-based CGI because

they lacked teaching materials. Students developed strong memorization habits because they had few chances to practice real language skills, which would help them achieve their language competence goals.

## 5.2 Recommendations

To optimize CGI efficacy, educators are encouraged to move away from conventional rote memorization toward more dynamic and communication-centered approaches, where grammar is treated as a functional tool rather than a package of rules. The shift involves inductive teaching strategies, which help students uncover grammatical patterns during meaningful interactions instead of just passively receiving explanations. Additionally, learners should have an active role in their own progress by doing practical task-based classroom activities that narrow the distance between what they know theoretically and what they can actually use in real life. If these pedagogical changes are to last, schools and other institutions need to tackle the logistical obstacles, such as crowded classrooms and insufficient resources, so that there is an environment that can support the successful implementation of CGI.

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The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest

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FULL LENGTH ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# Ethnic Interactions and Conflicts in Maji Awraja and Surrounding Areas: Historical Insights from the 1980s to the Present

Amare Fenta Gedamu<sup>1</sup> and Girma Negash<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>PhD candidate, Department of History Addis Ababa University

<sup>2</sup>Associate Professor of History, Addis Ababa University

\*Corresponding Author's email: [sench2393@gmail.com](mailto:sench2393@gmail.com)

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## Abstract

*This article investigates the conflicting ethnic interactions in Maji awraja and its surrounding areas from the 1980s to the present, aiming to challenge prevailing assumptions about the causes of ethnic conflict. Utilizing a combination of qualitative methods, including interviews and historical document analysis, data was collected from local informants, government reports, and scholarly literature. The analysis focused on identifying key contributing factors to the conflict, revealing that the movement of South Sudanese Toposa people into the interior parts of Maji awraja basically searching for huge fertile and mineral rich (gold) lands, ethnic divisions within local governance, and ineffective governance at multiple levels were more significant than traditional explanations like resource competition and raiding. The principal findings indicate that political narratives and misrepresentations have obscured the complex realities of ethnic relationships in the region. The study concludes that attempts to improve interethnic relations have been largely unsuccessful, with persistent tensions and conflicts rooted in historical grievances and governance failures. It recommends that future conflict resolution efforts prioritize understanding local dynamics and historical contexts while enhancing governance structures to address the underlying issues effectively. These implications suggest a need for more nuanced policies that consider the socio-political landscape and historical injustices impacting ethnic interactions in Maji awraja.*

**Keywords:** conflict interaction; conflict resolution; ethnic division; government failures; historical injustices.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The ethnic interactions in Maji awraja ("awraja" refers to the sub-provincial administrative divisions under the imperial and Derg regimes) its surrounding areas represent a complex tapestry of historical grievances, cultural dynamics, and socio-political challenges that have significantly shaped the region's contemporary landscape (Abbink, 1993, pp. 675-680).

Despite Ethiopia's rich ethnic diversity, since the late 1980s the interplay between various groups, particularly the Dizi, Surma, and Toposa, has often been characterized by deep ethnic tensions and frequent violent conflicts (Abeje, 2000, p. 5). This article examines the complex ethnic interactions and ongoing conflicts in Maji *awraja* and its surrounding areas, highlighting significant findings that emerge from the historical and socio-political landscape of the region. The study addresses the objectives of uncovering the root causes of ethnic conflicts, the geographical dynamics that shape these interactions, and the implications of governance failures in mitigating tensions. This study seeks to illuminate the underlying causes of these conflicts, moving beyond traditional narratives that emphasize cattle raiding and cultural differences.

Maji *awraja*, situated in the southwestern region of Ethiopia, exhibits a rich tapestry of ethnic diversity, primarily inhabited by the Dizi, Me'enit, Surma, and Toposa peoples. This geographical complexity, marked by rugged mountainous terrains and proximity to the South Sudanese border, profoundly influences interethnic relations and conflict dynamics. Utilizing qualitative data collected from local informants, historical documents, and government reports, this research challenges prevailing academic assumptions about the root causes of ethnic conflict without ignoring resource competition as a cause of conflict.

The findings reveal that traditional explanations of ethnic conflict, such as resource competition and cattle raiding, are insufficient in understanding the root causes of the ongoing tensions. Instead, the movement of the South Sudanese Toposa people, ineffective governance structures, and deep-seated historical grievances have been identified as critical factors exacerbating the conflict. These factors have fostered an environment of mistrust and animosity among the ethnic groups, leading to increased competition for dwindling resources. The escalation of conflicts is further characterized by the proliferation of modern weaponry and the breakdown of traditional dispute resolution mechanisms. Consequently, the consequences of these conflicts are severe, resulting in loss of life, forced displacement, and the destabilization of local governance structures.

In general, this article emphasizes the importance of understanding the intricate interplay of historical grievances and contemporary governance failures when addressing ethnic conflicts in Maji *awraja*. It underscores the need for tailored conflict resolution strategies that acknowledge local dynamics and enhance governance structures, ultimately aiming to foster sustainable peace and coexistence among the diverse ethnic groups in the region.

## 1.1 Geographical Setting of Maji *awraja* and its Society

This section provides a historical overview of the settlement patterns and socio-political organization of the Dizi, Me'enit, and Surma peoples in Maji *awraja*, ("*awraja*" refers to the sub-provincial administrative divisions under the imperial Ethiopian system) shedding light on the root causes of ongoing conflicts in the area. By examining the transformation of traditional livelihoods, community structures, and interethnic relations, we explore how the historical context has shaped current tensions. Therefore, this brief historical description of the layout of the *woredas* (an administrative structure below *awraja* administrative structure in Ethiopian Imperial and Derg regimes) and settlement patterns of these people are meant to understand the root cause of the conflict in the area. The socio-political and economic organizations of the ethnic groups reveal a rich story of resilience and adaptability within the community.

Before 1991, Maji *awraja* was one of the sub-administrative divisions under the former Kaffa Kaffa Teklay Administration and later Kaffa Kiflehager province of Ethiopia (Gebre-Hawariya, 2013, p. 5); (Zewdu & Laqaw, 1991). It is now known as the West Omo Zone in the Southwestern People's Regional State. The Maji *awraja* was bordered by Sudan in the West, the River Omo in the South and Southeast, and by Kaffa *awraja* and River Omo to the East (Kebede, 1952). Maji *awraja* included the land and peoples of Dessenech, Nyangatom, Turkana, Toposa, Murle, Karo, and Mursi. Additionally, the *awraja* extended up to the Boma plateau in 1936, while the Dizi, Me'enit, Surma, and Zilmamo are ethnic communities who have always been inhabitants of the *awraja* (Garretson, 1986, pp. 212-216).

The Dizi people reside in three *woredas*: Mehal Maji, Kurit, and Bero. Bero *woreda* Administration was bordered by several other *woredas* and had one sub-*woreda* Administration called Dami, with Jabba as its capital. The Zilmamo predominantly lived in three villages Moga, Gotita, Nameri, and Bebhzeni. The Mehal Maji *woreda* was divided into two deputy *woreda* Administrations: Kelt and U'r, while the

Kurit *woreda* Administration had one deputy Administration called Sisky (Kabada, 1952). The majority of the Dizi people live in mountainous, rugged land covered with dense natural forests, where they practice mixed agriculture and animal husbandry (Zerihun, 1993). The Dizi were arranged hierarchically in both their governmental and social spheres, at least since the start of the 18th century (Gebre-Hawariya, 2013). There were over 39 competitive, autonomous Dizi sections, with smaller chiefdoms existing before Emperor Menelik II's conquest and continued to exist in the form of balabat territories. Their boundaries were often unclear, with informants attempting to define them by clan names. Section and clan leaders managed administrative tasks for each chief. The Dizi upper nobility was divided into three hierarchies, with Kiyaz as the highest rank, while the upper middle rank was called Key, and Burj, was the title for the lower tier. The middle aristocracies were the Doni and Niannng responsible for implementing the upper nobility's directives within a Dizi chiefdom. The working class, including peasants and serfs, formed the largest segment of the population. The lowest level consisted of occupational castes, such as hunters, smiths, potters, and tanners, who were often disregarded (Interview: Maji, September, 2023).

In the present days the Me'enit people live in three *woredas* namely: Goldiya, Shasha, and Gore Gesha. The historical Goldiya *woreda* was in the East of Maji town and bordered by Kaffa *awraja* administration, Berebere River, and Shasha *woreda* administration. Shasha *woreda* had one deputy *woreda* called Jemu deputy administration. Shasha town served as the capital due to its strategic location. Gesha *woreda* was north of Maji town and divided into two sub-*woreda* Administrations. The highland Me'enit *woredas* of Goldiya and Gesha also practice mixed agriculture and animal husbandry in mountainous, rugged areas with dense natural forests (Kebede, 1952).

The Me'enit society was characterized by at least 15 rival chiefs across four main geographical areas of Goldiya, Shasha, Gore Gesha and Decha. The Me'enit were loosely organized social and political group. This was because the Me'enit political administration did not evolve into formal chiefdoms with established hierarchies. Instead, clan groups (du'ut, zuk-te) form the fundamental units of their social structure. However, there were some clans who held greater legitimacy and exerted control over others, suggesting that Komurut were chiefs of clans within specific chiefdoms or territorial subdivisions rather than heads of a single clan.

Abbink (1986) notes, groups within chiefdom had a form of "cultural division of labor," which influenced the community's social and political structure. Certain clan subsets, like the Boshu clan family, were entrusted with religious duties, overseeing rain, land fertility, and the populace. Most of the population lives mixed agricultural and lowland Me'enits lived as pastoralists, while specific groups are known for their specialized skills. Their social structure was flexible and dynamic, with status and positions frequently changing due to conflict (Abbink, 1991).

The Surma people predominantly live in the Tirma-Ted *woreda*, which shared boundaries with the Central/Mahal Maji *woreda* in the East, the Sudan government in the South, and the Galeb *woreda* in the North. To the North, it was adjacent to the Bero *woreda*. The Tirma-Tid *woreda* was divided into two deputies *woredas*, namely Banbu and Ted (Dubale, 1968; Kebede, 1952). They had formed two major sections which in turn further divided. The Tirma section of Suri contains four clans, while the Chai section contains six sub sections. The Suri socio-political system favored communalism, with social divisions based only on clan and age, rejecting hierarchical organization. The Suri are kinship-oriented, with patrilineal clans playing a key role in marriage and ceremonies (Abbink, 1998). Elders hold political authority, while the komoru serves as a ceremonial leader, embodying community harmony and spiritual communication. The gulsa is a secular village leader who derives authority from the komoru's blessing but cannot perform all of the komoru's duties. The gulsa is responsible for maintaining law and order in the community.

The Suri, as a pastoral society practiced age-grade governance, holding elections every 25 to 30 years throughout the early nineteenth century (Abbink, 1986, pp. 22-41). The Suri age system categorizes people into four groups: junior elders (rora), senior elders (Bara), children (lusi), and young warriors (tegay). Leadership is assumed by the rora, or third-age grade, which changes every 25 to 30 years. Once initiated, these individuals become decision-makers. Senior or retired elders, along with the reigning rora elders, hold the most political power. The younger tegay males are expected to respect and honor the elders, recognizing their role as the backbone of political society (Abbink, 2003, pp. 25-45); (Abbink, 1998, pp. 325-27). Women in the Suri society derived their age-grade status from their spouses instead of undergoing their own initiation.

Over the years these three ethnic groups Dizi, Me'enit, and Suri peoples had experienced significant

internal social, political, and economic transformations. There was a gradual rise in the authority of their leaders, leading to the emergence of ranking families and increased interethnic conflicts.

The Toposa people, pastoralists from Eastern South Sudan who often sought grass in Ethiopia's mountainous regions during the dry season (Abbink, 1993, p. 329). However, since 1968, these Sudanese people of the Topossa infiltrated in to the Surma inhabited first Tirma Tid *woreda* of Ethiopia, and then in Bero *woreda* and thus causing conflict with the Dizi and Suri people (Interview: Tum, June, 2023). For all these cultural groups' livestock herding was the main livelihood strategy. The society primarily herded livestock such as cattle and goats, with limited cultivation along seasonally flooded riverbanks. Those closer to Lake Turkana relied more on fishing. In the remote past their relations and interactions were mainly centered on competing for resources and cattle raiding. Due to internal and external factors their interactions had got complicated.

In the next section we will see how this was changed over time. These communities maintain amicable ties with each other through the exchange of goods and services on the market, marriage, and rituals. These groups sell and buy items on the Tum and Maji market from one another, crosscutting group boundaries. Interethnic marriages between the two groups are not uncommon, and comforting one another in times of grief and sorrow is also an interethnic phenomenon. Similarly, the Suri used to regard the Dizi as ritual makers during dry seasons. Many stories are told about the historically created marriage bond between the Dizi and the Suri, in an effort to cultivate good relations between Dizi and their neighbors (Ibid). Similarly, the Dizi have maintained their amicable relation with Me'enit (Abbink, 2009). Both groups sell and buy items on the market from one another, crosscutting group boundaries. Interethnic marriages between the two groups are not uncommon, and comforting one another in times of grief and sorrow is also an interethnic phenomenon. The story of one of the Dizi chiefs, Māšikiyaz, was an important political and social link between the two ethnic groups. Similar stories are told about the historically created marriage bond between the Dizi and the Suri, in an effort to cultivate good relations between Dizi and their neighbors. In the past, there were fewer conflicts, partly because droughts were less frequent. The level of destruction was also minimal, as traditional weapons were used. Due to the traditional peace-making mechanisms and a culture of interdependence or reciprocity elders were able to resolve such conflicts through, for instance, intermarriage and Jala (friendship) (Interviewe: Tum, September, 2023).

Today, the situation has changed significantly. Conflicts are occurring more frequently and with greater intensity, and the underlying causes and actors involved have become increasingly complex. One major factor contributing to these conflicts is the growing water shortage. As pastoralists face diminishing access to water and grazing land, they are compelled to travel greater distances in search of these essential resources. This struggle not only intensifies competition among different groups but also heightens tensions, leading to conflicts over increasingly scarce resources (Ibid). The above analysis reveals a rich tapestry of resilience and adaptability among these communities, while also highlighting the complexity of modern conflicts exacerbated by resource scarcity, the introduction of modern weaponry, and the marginalization of local governance (FERNYHOUGH, 1994, pp. 5-10). The introduction of advanced firearms has transformed the dynamics of conflict; traditional methods of resolving disputes have been overshadowed by more lethal confrontations, resulting in higher casualties and significant destruction. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for addressing the evolving nature of interethnic conflicts in the region. The next section of this article will explore the fundamental causes of the conflicts.

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 Qualitative Research Design

This study adopts a qualitative research design to explore the intricate ethnic interactions and conflicts in Maji *awraja*. By employing this approach, the research aims to achieve a nuanced understanding of the social, historical, and cultural dynamics that influence these ethnic relationships.

## 2.2 Data Collection Methods

Interviews: Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 23 local informants. This method enabled the collection of personal narratives and insights regarding ethnic relations and conflicts directly from those impacted by these issues. Focus on root factors and Key Contributing Factors The interview and its analysis examine root and critical factors that contribute to ethnic conflicts, transcending traditional explanations such as resource competition. Key factors explored include:

- The migration of South Sudanese Toposa people.
- Ethnic divisions within local governance structures.
- Ineffective governance at multiple administrative levels.

Historical Document Analysis: The researchers engaged in a thorough analysis of existing historical documents, reports, and scholarly literature. This investigation provides a contextual framework for the study, allowing for the identification of historical grievances and shifts in governance over time. Government Reports: The study incorporates data from Bench Maji Zone Administrative Office, archives mainly government reports that discuss issues related to ethnic conflicting interactions, conflict resolutions and resource management, and local governance structures. Thematic Analysis; Data collected from interviews and document analysis was systematically analyzed to identify emergent themes and patterns related to ethnic relationships, conflict dynamics, and governance issues. This thematic analysis highlights the underlying causes of tensions and informs the recommendations presented in the article. Contextual Framework: The research emphasizes a contextual understanding, highlighting the historical and socio-political landscapes that shape ethnic interactions in Maji *awraja*. This approach underscores the importance of local dynamics in formulating effective conflict resolution strategies.

## 3 Result and Discussion

### 3.1 The Root Causes of the Ethnic Conflicts in Maji *awraja*

In 1898, the Ethiopian Imperial administration introduced a new administrative system, along with the slave and ivory trade to Maji *awraja* (Margery, 1948, p. 330). However, Maji had a worse imperial administrative structure in the 1920s and 1930s than other regions of the nation because of the insecurity and exploitation (Margery, 1948, pp. 333-34). Moreover, Maji's location along the Ethio-Sudanese border made the Ethiopian administration complex. The border divided pastoral populations, posing challenges to effective administration and the creation of a national identity. This division provided an opportunity for the local society to evade state administration. For example, when tribute or taxes were demanded from Surma pastoralist society, many of them would flee to Sudan to avoid these demands (Salvadori, 2010, p. 135). The arms, slaves and ivory trading and poaching practices were major sources of the insecurity and conflict in the region.

On the other hand, the government of imperial Ethiopia since the late 1940s was making efforts to stabilize the region and attempting to manage the border in order to control tax evaders and to control ethnic conflict and prevent the infiltration of South Sudanese Toposa people across the border. The effort was not strong enough as it was based on occasional mobile military surveillance and expeditions were the common strategy of administering the border. Probably due to the worsening security situation in of the area in 1947 the imperial government had established three military bases which continued functioning until the last years of the Derg regime (Mamo1968) but couldn't stop the Toposa encroachment and ethnic conflicts (Seid, 2019, p. 57).

One of the reasons why government of Ethiopia failed to deploy permanent army along the border was as informants narrate it was due to the hot climate and lack of agricultural practice among the Suri and Me'enit people. According to informants thus to fill the lack of northern and Christian state personnel who were unfamiliar to the hot climate of the Tirma Tid *woreda*, the government relied on Dizi chiefs and their relatives who had no problem of living in the hot area were recruited as government functionaries like police, governor and tax collectors. the Ethiopian government therefore assumed control of border areas and implemented indirect rule through traditional chiefs in the post Italian imperial administration. After the Italians withdrawal and the pacification process in the early 1940s, the

Ethiopian government took control of the army outposts and promised to improve the administrative framework. As discussed above it established three military posts having 700 soldiers. In addition the state indirectly influenced settled farmers to maintain local peace and collect taxes through traditional chiefs (Seid, 2019, p. 45). Moreover, as sources claimed that the security problem of the *awraja* was a principal factor for the extension of mikelteḥ wäräda administrations (deputy *woreda*). Thus for the Surma the Dizi would mean part of the central government which was known for its exploitative and harsh administrative practices. In the long run this had caused suspicion and hostility among the Dizi and Suri.

As it is well known, the Italian occupation (1935-36) had profound effects on Ethiopian society and politics, leading to a complex aftermath characterized by conflict, resistance, and attempts at national rebuilding (Zewde, 2000). Maji Awraja, in 1941-1943, was characterized by tension and chaos (Pankhurst, 1996, pp. 35-77). In this period the number of firearms in the hands of the natives had increased in different ways. Firstly Italians had left a lot of guns behind when they left the area at many locations nation, secondly, the British distributed and equipped local individuals against the restored imperial government and Ethiopian military while conducting the mopping up operations gave firearms to involving native individuals. All of these factors increased the number of firearms among the Dizi, Me'enits and the Suri. Chiefs and small, local communities benefited most from these weapons. As the result the balance of military power was maintained, so that ethnic conflicts were rare. In fact in the period between the liberation in 1941 to 1991 the conflict of the area was centered more against the state (Interview: Maji, June, 2023). All attempts of the government to disarm the equipped local chiefs and community members had all ended in fiasco, except few successes among the Dizi and Me'enits. The Surma who are living in extreme areas remained armed all through the time and in the late 1980s they had got access to modern firearms from the Sudanese People Liberation Army (SPLA). When the rise of the EPRDF (Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democracy Front) in May 1991, military bases and police stations were removed from the Maji area, allowing the SPLA to sell arms to the Surma and encouraging and arming the Toposa people with more advanced guns than the Surma, they were capable to displace the Surma from Tirma Tid *woreda*. This situation contributed for the shift of military power between the Dizi, Me'enit and Surma, the Surma acquiring Kilashinkov (Seid, 2019, p. 53).

Despite promises by the EPRDF government to address the issues, no real attempts were made until the late 1990s when the deployment of military forces was agreed upon but not realized. This has left the Surma and Dizi elders feeling deeply betrayed. What most contributed in the shift of balance of military power between the Surma and Dizi was the incomplete disarmament of effort of the EPRDF government, only Dizi were disarmed and the Suri remained armed. (Interview: Maji, September, 2023).

Due to pressure from the Toposa and famines in 1980 and 1984, the Surma people were forced to leave their ancestral land in the Tirma-Tid *woreda* and settled in the Dizi-inhabited *woreda* of Bero. At this time the well-armed Surma were able to displace the Dizi from sixteen kebeles (the lowest administrative unit) and settled in the high land areas of Mehal Maji *woreda*. The evacuation of the Ethiopian army from the border led to the disintegration of the Tirma-Tid *woreda* administration, facilitating the occupation of the area by South Sudanese peoples (Interview: Tum, September, 2023). Moreover, according to informants after 1991, the Sudan People's Liberation Front provided training and modern equipment to the Toposa, leading to their dominance over the Surma. Therefore, the Toposa have access to better equipment than the local government. The lack of control in the international border area by the Ethiopian side allowed for invasion by the Toposa backed by the SPLA (Interview: Tum, June, 2023).

The forceful occupation of pastures by the Toposa in the 1970s and 1980s, along with the support they received from the Sudan People's Liberation Front led to the displacement of the Surma people from their ancestral lands to areas west of the Kibish River. Since 1991, the Toposa have taken over much of the fertile pastures in the Tima-Tid areas of the southern and central Surma. They have built huts, started irrigated farms, and even built a school in the Surma *woreda*, as reported by Surma informants. Even today the Toposa are occupying grazing land in South West Surma and their attacks from Sudan have resulted in an increased in their numbers, estimated to be between 20,000-30,000 locally. They are regularly seen in Kibish, town the capital of Surma *woreda*, and its surroundings, deep into Ethiopian territory, around more than 150 km from the border. (Interview: Maji, September, 2023). The following narrative of the informant vividly explains the root cause of the conflict.

When the Derg dictatorship was nearing its end in 1990, many Dizi, Me'enit, and Surma people purchased weapons that were being sold by the army. After the rise of the EPRDF in 1991, officials aimed

to disarm the populace. As a result, EPRDF officials collected guns from the Dizi and Me'enit communities, effectively disarming them. The Surma people were willing to give up their long-held weapons but wanted improved border security first. Surma suggested using local weapons to protect the borders until the military arrived, showing concern for safety and life-saving measures. Emperor Haileselesie and the Derg stationed forces from Mardur to guard borders. The Surma people were willing to give up their weapons only after the military left and a new border-protection system was in place. The Surma forcefully expanded their territory, leading to conflict. The Dizi people suffered food shortages and oppression as a result. The once close relationship between the Dizi and Surma has weakened, resulting in fewer connections between the two groups (Interview: Maji, September, 2023).

Surma's perspective on the root cause of ethnic conflict emphasizes historical grievances and long-standing animosities between the Dizi and Surma ethnic groups. The Surma viewpoint argues that conflicts are the result of deep-rooted historical injustices, including land disputes and oppression. Cattle raiding had little to do with the conflict. Their main source of contention with the Toposa was their shared Ethio-South Sudan boundary and cattle raiding. Cattle raiding and gold mining areas were their primary points of concern with the Me'enit and Agnwa, respectively. The following statement from a Surma informant illuminates the Surma perspective more clearly.

Since ancient times, we Surmas went to Maji and trade in the market. In times of famine, we went to the market and buy food. We raised some people as friends and our son. We marry Dizi women. My wife is a Dizi woman. But now the conflict is stupid. It is the individuals who create the conflict, not the politics that created the conflict. The hardest conflict started after the 1991 regime change (Interview, Kibish, June, 2023).

When I asked my Surma informants about a possible root cause of the conflict with the Dizi being the cause of the current conflict, they unequivocally dismissed the territorial notion. According to my sources, the issues between the Surma and Dizi stem from elsewhere.

We do not have a border conflict with the Dizi. Our borders and relations concern only with Sudan. As Ethiopians, we recognize boundaries solely with Sudan. However, tensions exist with the Dizi due to their role as agents of oppression under imperial and authoritarian regimes. As state enforcers, the Dizi persecuted our people. Surma civilians fell victim to a coordinated attack by Dizi local forces partnered with the central government's military. In this regard, we always remember the events of atrocities that happened to the Surma people at Nameri, Dishu Gurbali, and Maji town. It is this dark history of subjugation and atrocities, not border dispute that lies at the heart of contemporary conflicts between the Surma and Dizi peoples (Interview: Kibish, June, 2023).

When I spoke to my Surma informants about the impact of the Toposa invasion on their territories, they confirmed that significant portions of Surma *woreda* lands, particularly in the southern and central Surma Mountains around Tirma Ted and Chai, have fallen under Toposa dominance. They indicated that the Toposas have taken control of mining operations, and irrigation farms, and have built schools on land traditionally inhabited by the Surma, causing significant grievance in the area. They were compelled to evacuate from the *woreda* but argued that they resettled in their ancestral lands. All the territories we currently inhabited are the lands we have inherited, as other Surma who faced expulsion relocated to their forefathers' domains as well. The only land reportedly taken by from the Dizi are Kollu and Dirabi (Ibid). The Surma informants' account of the preceding circumstances teaches us that the Surma and Dizi ethnic groups coexisted in the same area by planning their territorial settlement in a methodically manner. The Dizi people settled in the mountainous and forested areas, while the Surma people inhabited the lowlands of Maji and Bero *woredas*. Therefore, the Surma people lived outside of the Surma *woreda* before 1991.

In 1991, the EPRDF government introduced a new form of governance to modernize society and the state. As the result Ethnic groups in Ethiopia were allowed to establish their own self administrative structure depending on their territorial and population size. The Maji *awraja* and its society were recognized as Dizi Me'enit and Surma people's territory and shared among. However, as discussed above the Tirma-Tid *woreda*, the core Surma country was collapsed and was taken over by the Toposa long years ago, while most of the Surma people lived in the lowlands of the Maji and Bero *woredas*, under the Dizi chiefs. The newly structured/organized Dizi self-administrative *woredats* had maintained the ancient Dizi territories in which the Surma were living. Due to this and the Toposa occupation case the Suri were not granted a self-administration *woreda* until 1994.

In 1994 the Surma self-administrative *woreda* was established from parts of the Maji and Bero *woredas*

after 1994 (Interview: Tum, September, 2023). The Dizi were not happy with the government's attempt to reorganize the Surma self-administrative *woreda*. The Surma people are dissatisfied with the Dizi claim on areas in the Maji and Bero *woredas*, where they have lived for a long time. The Dizi are asking for the Surma to be removed from these areas. The regional and national administration failure to restore Tirma Tid *woreda* the local administrative divisions and ethnic-based federalism in such fragile security area have disrupted traditional cooperation and relations (Gemed, 1990), leading to increased insecurity and strict exclusion regulations for those who were living together as neighboring ethnic groups (Ibid).

On the other hand, the EPRDF leaders claimed that the *woreda*-level self-administrative division in former Maji *awraja* was based on ethnic lines (Tegegne & Kassahun, 2004, pp. 2-25), but as we see it today these ethnic groups are exercising self-administration in more than two *woreda*, therefore they felt isolated from their keens' but former *woreda* administration from the previous regime, continued except the Surma. These ethnic self-administration policies of the EPRDF have damaged established traditional political institutions' ability to resolve disputes, and they should be seen as the primary cause of the prolonged ethnic conflict in the area (Ibid).

Last but not least the disintegration traditional governance and conflict resolution methods moral order among the Surma and others should be considered as exacerbating factors. These traditional practices were not merely rules; they were lifelines that helped maintain community stability, reminding everyone that in the face of conflict, the ultimate goal was harmony and unity. Through these rituals, the Suri in particular demonstrated their commitment to preserving the social fabric of their community, ensuring that even in difficult times; they could find pathways to understanding and peace. However, since the late 1980s, these traditional systems have significantly declined, undermining their ability to manage conflicts (interview: Kibish, September, 2023).

### 3.2 Courses and Consequences of the Conflict

This section delves into the courses and consequences of the conflict first by summarizing the root causes of ethnic conflicts in Maji *awraja*, tracing their origins to historical administrative failures, colonial legacies, and complex socio-political dynamics among the Dizi, Me'enit, and Surma peoples as discussed above. Beginning with the disruptive effects of Ethiopian imperial governance and the Italian occupation, the analysis highlights how the introduction of firearms and the lack of effective border management exacerbated tensions. The fragmentation of traditional governance structures since 1974 at least, the decline of traditional conflict resolution methods, alongside the impact of external pressures such as the Toposa's encroachment as coupled with ethnic-based federalism under the EPRDF, has further destabilized interethnic relations, leading to a resurgence of conflict. Ultimately resource competition, underscores the multifaceted nature of the ongoing strife in the region. As compared to the Dizi the Surma have increasingly used modern firearms to assert control over these territories, including strategic locations rich in resources like gold.

The Maji *awraja* societies have been heavily armed for a long time and this situation troubled the administrators of the time of the emperor (Salvadori, 2010, p.210). Cross-border firearms trade were found lucrative and there were a trade- in arms from Addis Ababa to Dima, which is to satisfy the demand for weapons needed by the gold producers to protect themselves from the attacks of Agniwa and Surma. However, it was the Sudan People's Liberation Front's involvement in the trade and support for the Topasa in the 1980s that had changed the type and size of arms in the region. On the other hand the Toposa's expansion which was backed by highly sophisticated weapons greatly affected the Surma as they were forced to evacuate from the Tirma Tid areas and expanded in to the less armed Me'enit Shasha, and Dizi in Bero, and Maji *woredas* of the *awraja*. This had resulted vicious of conflicts in the area. According to the Dizi informants, this expansion of the Surma into their territory becomes more pronounced during every summer season since then (Interview: Tum, June, (2023). According to these informants, the Surma were expanding by armed forces into regions potentially containing gold mines. The Dizi complained that the Surma herdsmen, with the Surma *woreda* government's support, were relocating and taking control of trampled land, granting the Kebele structure to Surma residents. The Surma were said to be residing in and managing the ancient Dizi territory, which was fully under their control after 1991.

Compounding these territorial disputes are socio-economic dynamics, particularly high dowry demands linked to cattle ownership. The Dizi were disproportionately affected due to increased Surma

cattle raiding. According to the Surma tradition of marriage arrangement a young man to marry a girl, must provide thirty to forty cattle and a Kalashnikov weapon with full ammunition as a dowry. On the other hand, the cost of livestock and weapons had been raised rapidly. So that Surma youths, often in groups of five to ten, use modern weapons such as the Kalashnikov for cattle raiding to gather wealth for marriage and worsening the conflict as they not only raid cattle but also kill anyone they encountered. They also set fire to homes and other property. These actions have resulted in significant losses for the less armed Dizi in terms of both cattle and human lives due to retaliatory attacks and attempts to recover stolen animals (BMZOA Archive). The conflict escalates with retaliatory attacks from the Dizi against Surma aggressions, resulting in direct confrontations in highland areas of Maji. Between 1989 and 1998, this strife accounted for numerous casualties and the theft of cattle valued at over nine million birr (BMZOA Archive). However, the Dizi have sought refuge in highland areas, but even there, they have not found peace from attacks. The Surma and Dizi are directly fighting in the hills and highlands between 1989 and 1998 ((BMZOA Archive). The conflict between the Surma and the Dizi escalated every year as the Toposa continued pushing the Surma. Also, as the Surma continue to face pressure from the Toposa, their expansion incurs further skirmishes, in territories traditionally inhabited by the Me'enit. In due course of time the importance of cattle has grown in the lowland community, leading to conflicts between the Surma and the Dizi, Mienit, and Toposa, often arising from the desire to acquire more cattle for higher dowries.

The clashes are particularly pronounced between different ethnic groups in gold-producing areas, where competition for resources intensifies conflicts. The expansion of the Agwak in the Bero and its surrounding areas had led to further instability, exacerbating violence and provoking retaliatory actions. The socio-economic fabric of affected communities has been severely disturbed, with widespread violence and atrocities marking the landscape of ethnic conflict. This unrest has resulted in different forms of violence, including targeted attacks and mass killings during communal gatherings, which further proliferate cycles of retribution (Interview: Kibish, September, (2023).

The zonal government has not stopped the conflicts and displacement of the Dizi and Surma ethnic group members. Moreover, the conflict extended to the Me'enit due to the Surma's incursion into the Me'enit Shasha *woreda* and prevalent cultural and economic circumstances. The dispute between the Surma and the Me'enit remains unresolved according to Surma informants (Interview: Kibish, September, (2023).

As the course and consequence of the conflict we can consider the disintegration of Surma society and the reign of riotous spirit. Since the major displacement of the Surma people from the Tirma and Tid *woredas* to the Dizi and Me'enit areas things changed rapidly. Three conditions have led to the collapse of the traditional socio-cultural values that support the authority of Surma elders to solve the mutual murders that spread in the area. These are: the proliferation of automatic weapons and their availability, the introduction of alcoholic drinks, and the increase in spending money that young Surma have accumulated by producing gold (Interview: Kibish, September, 2023). As the result among the Surma violence and atrocities had become widespread. The Surma group conflicts were characterized by acts of violence, ranging from riots and targeted attacks and killings were common during the traditional ritual of stick fighting, during which hundreds of youths are regularly collected. During this period, they easily carry out revenge actions due to emotional impulses. In this process, new circumstances were created that cause revenge. The main actors of this action were the underage youngsters, who were highly armed and disobedient to their elders. According to informants, this situation had reached the level of genocide, and 10-15 murders were committed every month (Interview: Tum, June, (2023). These acts of violence could result in the displacement of populations, destruction of communities, and loss of life. It seems that the basic reason for the destruction of socio-cultural institutions of power is that they were forced to migrate from Surma traditional lands in the last generation.

### 3.3 Local and Regional Conflict Resolution Initiatives

This section examines local and regional conflict resolution initiatives aimed at addressing interethnic disputes in Maji *awraja*, focusing on the evolution of customary methods in the face of changing conflict dynamics. The conflict over cattle raiding and disputes over resources were resolved through customary methods, but the nature of conflicts changed in the 1980s. Despite the change in the nature of conflict, these days, the ethnic communities continue to practice indigenous reconciliation rites, which have been historically effective in resolving interethnic disputes, including murder and raids. The Dizi conflict resolution custom is known as the "dofie," among Me'enit it is referred to as "asha",

and among the Surma it is called “ligin”. Interestingly all the customs the procedure entails are similar. A public gathering of the disputing parties was followed by a ritual reconciliation ceremony and elder mediation based on an agreement for in-kind or cash restitution. The local chiefs of the affected ethnic groups held a reconciliation ritual during a period of increased and frequent interethnic hostilities in the area. The ritual might go on for several days. It includes killing two or more black oxen, washing the local chiefs in the blood of the killed animals, slicing open the carcass and drying the peritoneum on the fresh hide, the local chiefs of the respective groups swearing not to make the same mistakes again, washing their hands in the green material found in the dead animal’s digestive tract, and hanging the dried peritoneum strips around the necks of the individuals in dispute (Interview: Tum, Kibish and Jammu June to September, (2023).

Even while they provided short-term fixes, these traditional methods of reconciliation were no longer successful in resolving disputes. Since the 1980s, in particular, their power to regulate interethnic relations has decreased and, even if there have been some recent reconciliation ceremonies; they were brief and prone to being broken. Because of their constant obsession with the idea that guns have supernatural abilities, the Surma are typically the ones who break these kinds of reconciliation agreements (Interview: Tum, June, (2023). Informants stated that local officials and elders led at least one reconciliation ritual annually. A large-scale tripartite reconciliation ritual ceremony of the Surma, Me-enit, and Dizi peoples was held at Tum Airplane Field in February 1994. At this time also all of the previously described reconciliation rituals were performed. However, informants stressed that the Surma had breached the terms and said to have had raided the Dizi barely eighteen days after the peace ceremony. All, however, remained unsuccessful. (Interview, Tum, and June 2023). The Suri informants have agreed on the facts of the reconciliation conferences but consistently argue that the Dizi took the responsibility of the breaching of reconciliations made (Interviewee: Kibish, September, (2023),

Similarly regional, zonal and civil society organizations that operate on the subject of peace and security have made multiple attempts at reconciliation. The highest level reconciliation meetings were led during the reign of Ato. Abate Kisho, Ato. Hailemariam Dessalegn, Ato. Shiferaw Shigute, who administered the South Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region (SNNPR) from 1994 to 2018 at various points in time. Similarly all contemporary Presidents of the Bench Maji zone also involved in reconciliation efforts including Mr. Wondimu Gebre, the last president of the dual zone Bench-Maji zone before its split in to two zones, Bench Sheko and West Omo zones). The two civil society organizations, Mercy Corps and Pact Ethiopia were known for implementing projects on peace and security problems in the Zone since the late 1990s. These three agencies were working together mainly on facilitating consultative meetings, arranging and sponsoring reconciliation ceremonies and community dialogue on peace building and rehabilitation works (interviewee: Mizan, May, (2023). All parties ignored the root causes of the conflict and considered the traditional cattle raiding and resource competition as the cause (Interview: Maji, September, 2023). As discussed above the root cause of the conflict was and is the lack of security at the Ethio-South Sudanese border, and the responsibility of managing and solving this situation through the traditional conflict resolution method is beyond the capacity of the local chiefs and regional government of the former SNNPRS and the zonal and *woreda* administrations.

The Surma and Dizi communities strongly believe that the Federal Defense Forces should forcibly return the Toposa there to Sudan. The Toposa in Surma *woreda* are large in number and have been in the area for a long time (more than 30 years in some southern parts of the *woreda*) (Interview: Tum, September, (2023). This has proven to be the most difficult aspect of the process. In connection with this, there is widespread resentment in the area due to lack of government intervention in the area. Maji was a place where the central government has been relatively strong and active since the late twentieth century. There are also instances of nostalgic comparisons to the past (Ibid). Other strategies used by the government to solve the problem include: police protection and the local army. Since the last years of the 1990s there have been attempts to strengthen the police force in Surma *woreda* and other pastoralist areas by training more pastoralist officers (BMZAO archives). However, police stations were established in all *woredas*, but limited to cities (Interview: Kibish and Tum, June, (2023). As discussed above, the disarmament activities that were started in the early 1990s were ineffective and the outcome created a military imbalance between the Surma who were least affected as they were not disarmed the Dizi who were highly affected as they were disarmed.

Promoting socio-economic development in all the *woredas* of Maji proper was widely accepted as a solution to the problem as the governments and local NGOs believed. According to the governments and local NGOs the root cause of the conflict was underdevelopment. (Bench Maji Zone Administration office/BMZAO/ Archive). Based on the belief that development projects were implemented and some success has been achieved in the construction of government office buildings, police stations, educa-

tional programs, and road works in Kibish, Tum, and Jabba towns (Archive BMZAO Bench-Maji Zone Department of Peace and security, 2014 annual report p. 24). It was accepted by informants also that in some areas, especially in the Bero *woreda* where social services project were in good condition, the relationship between Dizi and Surma (Bali) was more peaceful than others (Interviewee: Tum, June, (2023)). According to informants however, these social services have been seriously damaged due to the ongoing conflicts and the lack of sufficient resources to rehabilitate hampered their effectiveness, especially transportation to move around the *woredas*.

Despite the above peace building the attempts, many voices of complaint have been heard among the Dizi. In other words, all the attempts were unsatisfactory for them. For the Dizi elites the cause of conflict in the area' results from the administrators' discriminatory practices is due to discrimination by the administrators against the Dizi as what had been considered Dizi areas were given to the Surma self-administration *wareda*. Thus all the solutions should emanate from building faith among the Dizi and Surma, the Dizi demanded that the Surma people can live in the territory as any Ethiopian citizens but the territory must reintegrated to the Dizi *woreda* administration and restoring the Tirma Tid *woreda* administration for the Surma people. According to the Dizi view no other solutions can convince them and thus they thought that they were being isolated and unprotected (Interview: Tum, September, (2023)). On the other hand, one can say that the labeling of Surma as offenders while the Dizi understanding the root cause of the conflict should not force them to think that they were the only helpless.

## 4 Conclusion

The analysis presented in this article elucidates the complex interplay of historical grievances, ineffective governance, and material drivers such as cattle, gold, and marriage dowries in shaping the ethnic conflicts within Maji *awraja*. Specific violent incidents, including armed raids and brutal confrontations, underscore the urgent need to address these prevailing tensions. This article recognizes that the competition for cattle—long viewed not only as a vital economic resource but also as a marker of social status—has intensified conflicts among the Dizi, Surma, and Toposa groups. As dowries continue to rise, with young men required to provide substantial herds coupled with weapons, the cycle of violence is perpetuated. The fragility of peace is further threatened by the allure of gold mining, which has attracted both local and external actors, exacerbating territorial disputes and armed encounters over resource control.

Historically, these conflicts are rooted in the legacies of poor governance and inadequate administrative frameworks that have failed to regulate inter-ethnic relations effectively. The political narratives shaped by historical injustices have fostered mistrust, complicating local dynamics. In this context, the lack of functional governance structures has allowed armed groups to flourish, further destabilizing the region. Ultimately, the findings suggest that addressing these interwoven factors historical grievances, economic drivers, and governance failures holds the key to fostering sustainable peace in Maji *awraja*. Without acknowledging the material realities and historical contexts underpinning these conflicts, any attempts at reconciliation or conflict resolution are unlikely to achieve lasting results. The path forward must prioritize not only immediate security measures but also equitable access to resources and recognition of the socio-cultural fabric that binds these diverse communities. This article offers an original contribution to the understanding of ethnic interactions in Maji *awraja* by challenging conventional narratives surrounding the roots of conflict. Through a comprehensive analysis of historical and socio-political contexts, it underscores the significance of factors such as the movement of the South Sudanese Toposa, local governance divisions, and broader governance issues in shaping ethnic relations. By shifting the focus away from traditional explanations like cattle raiding, this research provides a nuanced perspective that is essential for both academia and policy-making.

The implications of these findings are substantial. Policymakers must recognize the intricate interplay of historical grievances and contemporary governance failures when addressing ethnic conflicts in the region. Strategies aimed at conflict resolution should prioritize enhancing local governance structures, fostering interethnic dialogue, and addressing the socio-economic disparities that exacerbate tensions. Furthermore, acknowledging the historical context of grievances may help create more effective reconciliation processes that consider the complex realities of the affected communities.

However, this study is not without limitations. The reliance on qualitative data, while providing depth, may introduce biases based on the perspectives of individual informants. Additionally, the historical

focus may overlook recent developments and their impact on current dynamics and unable to incorporate the Toposa perspectives. Future research could benefit from a mixed-methods approach that incorporates quantitative data to complement qualitative insights, enabling a more comprehensive understanding of the evolving situation. Further fruitful lines of research could explore the role of external actors in the conflicts, such as regional governments or international organizations, and their influence on local dynamics. Additionally, examining the effects of socioeconomic development initiatives on interethnic relations could provide valuable insights into effective peace-building strategies. Ultimately, this article lays the groundwork for further inquiry into the complexities of ethnic interactions in Maji awraja, emphasizing the need for continued research to inform policies that promote sustainable peace and coexistence.

## Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest

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Bénč Maji Zone Administration Office (BMZAO)

- Folder No. 249, File No. .6.
- Folder No. 243, File No. .14.
- Folder No. 347, File No. .44



# Correlation between Sign Language Fluency and Amharic Literacy Skills in Deaf Ethiopian Students: A Comparative Study

Tesfaye Basha<sup>1\*</sup> 

<sup>1</sup>Department of Special Needs and Inclusive Education, Hawassa University, Ethiopia

\*Corresponding Author's email: tesfayask@yahoo.com

## Abstract

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*This study examines the correlation between Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) fluency and Amharic literacy skills among deaf students in Ethiopia, addressing critical gaps in the understanding of linguistic interdependence in a multilingual context. Despite the constitutional recognition of EthSL in 2008, deaf students face persistent literacy disparities, with only 23% meeting national standards. Employing a mixed-methods comparative design, the study assessed 76 deaf students (80.3% with profound hearing loss) from four schools. EthSL proficiency was evaluated by native signers (inter-rater reliability:  $r = .94-.95$ ), and Amharic literacy was measured using standardized reading comprehension tests. Results revealed a strong positive correlation between EthSL proficiency and Amharic reading comprehension ( $r = .87, p < .001$ ), with high-proficiency students scoring 90.42% compared to 34.50% among low-proficiency peers ( $d = 5.92$ ). High-proficiency students significantly outperformed their low-proficiency peers across PSLCE subjects ( $d = 0.56-0.69$ ), with EthSL proficiency uniquely explaining 37% of the variance in academic achievement. Special schools demonstrated higher proportions of high-proficiency students (61.1%) than inclusive settings (36.0%) and significant vocabulary advantages ( $d = 0.51$ ), but no comprehension differences were found. Age of EthSL acquisition significantly predicted all literacy outcomes after controlling for current age and school type ( $\beta = -.25$  to  $-.31, p < .05$ ), with earlier exposure conferring lasting advantages. Qualitative data revealed systemic barriers, including limited teacher training and delayed language access. These findings support the linguistic interdependence and critical period hypotheses, demonstrating that EthSL proficiency is a foundational prerequisite for Amharic literacy acquisition. The results mandate policy reforms prioritizing early hearing screening, family centered EthSL intervention, mandatory teacher proficiency standards, and equitable resource allocation to ensure deaf learners access language-rich environments during critical developmental windows.*

**Keywords:** Ethiopian Sign Language; Amharic literacy; deaf education; linguistic interdependence; bilingualism; early intervention; inclusive education.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Research underscores the critical role of sign language fluency in facilitating written language literacy among deaf learners (W. Hall, 2022). The linguistic interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 2021) posits that proficiency in the first language (L1, e.g., Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL)) strengthens literacy in the second language (L2, e.g., Amharic). However, in Ethiopia, where over 1.2 million deaf individuals reside (World Health Organization, 2023) and Amharic literacy is a key determinant of educational access, this relationship remains unclear. Although Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) gained official recognition and media of instruction and owned Sign Language Dictionary in 2008 (Ethiopian National Association of the Deaf (ENAD), 2008), its integration into literacy instruction has lagged behind, particularly in inclusive classrooms that favor spoken Amharic (Tirussew et al., 2022).

Communication deprivation has several long-term effects. Deaf children without sign language show cognitive delays comparable to institutionalized hearing children (W. Hall, 2022), whereas early EthSL exposure correlates with higher tertiary enrollment rates (Ministry of Education, Ethiopia, 2024). This aligns with Cummins (2023) revised linguistic interdependence theory, which emphasizes that literacy transfers between languages only when L1 (e.g., EthSL) is fully developed in the learner. However, Ethiopia's education policy still treats EthSL as a "crutch" rather than a right (Haualand & Allen, 2023), violating the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD's) mandate for inclusive language access (United Nations, 2022).

The acquisition of reading skills is a critical component of academic success; however, Deaf/Hard of Hearing (D/HH) students often face significant challenges in developing literacy, particularly in multilingual contexts, such as Ethiopia. While Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) serves as the primary mode of communication for many deaf individuals, its role in facilitating Amharic literacy, Ethiopia's dominant written language, remains unstudied. Research in other Global South contexts suggests that strong sign-language proficiency correlates with improved reading outcomes (Knoors & Marschark, 2012; Tang et al., 2023), but the extent to which this applies to EthSL and Amharic remains unclear. Additionally, the type of schooling (special schools for the deaf vs. mainstream inclusive classrooms) may significantly influence language and literacy development (Y. Alemu et al., 2022; Hermans et al., 2014).

Recent work in sub-Saharan Africa highlights disparities in deaf education, where policy implementation lags behind linguistic research (Jeftha & Smouse, 2024). In Ethiopia, despite the constitutional recognition of sign language, educational practices vary widely, with inconsistent teacher training and resource allocation (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2019; Yibeltal & Habte, 2023).

Ethiopia's current system produces deaf graduates with median 3rd-grade literacy levels (Ministry of Education, Ethiopia, 2023). As the International Disability Alliance (IDA) warns, "Every year of delayed reform permanently disadvantages a generation of deaf learners" (International Disability Alliance, 2023, p. 12).

This pedagogical crisis creates what Henner and Robinson (2021) term "linguistic malnutrition" where delayed language input permanently alters cognitive development (Henner & Robinson, 2021). Linguistic malnutrition refers to a detrimental state caused by an insufficient or poor-quality linguistic environment. This lack of linguistic input affects the academic achievement of deaf students.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the recognition of Ethiopian Sign Language media of instruction and owned its own Sign Language dictionary (EthSL) in 2008 (Ethiopian National Association of the Deaf (ENAD), 2008), deaf students in Ethiopia continue to face severe disparities in Amharic literacy acquisition, which limits their educational and socioeconomic opportunities. Recent studies reveal that only 23% of deaf learners meet the minimum Amharic literacy standards in national assessments, compared to 65% of their hearing peers (Ministry of Education, Ethiopia, 2023), highlighting a critical inequity in educational outcomes. This gap persists due to multiple systemic barriers: over two-thirds of deaf children lack access to EthSL

before age six (Ethiopian National Association for the Deaf (ENAD), 2023), depriving them of the foundational language skills necessary for developing literacy. Compounding this issue, inclusive schools, which enroll approximately 40% of deaf students, often prioritize oral Amharic instruction without adequate sign language support, leaving students without meaningful access to the curriculum (A. Alemu & Mulat, 2024). Meanwhile, EthSL-based special schools struggle with insufficient resources and untrained teachers, with only 12% of educators in inclusive settings being proficient in EthSL (Tilahun et al., 2023). While global research demonstrates the vital role of sign language fluency in written-language acquisition (M. Hall et al., 2020; Henner et al., 2022), Ethiopia lacks empirical evidence on how EthSL proficiency correlates with Amharic literacy, a knowledge gap that hinders the development of effective bilingual programs. Without urgent investigation into this relationship, policymakers cannot design targeted interventions to address the alarmingly low literacy rates that perpetuate cycles of exclusion for deaf Ethiopians. This study directly addresses this gap by examining the interplay between EthSL fluency, instructional models, and Amharic literacy outcomes.

Therefore, this study sought to investigate the correlation between sign language fluency and Amharic literacy skills among deaf Ethiopian students. This study aims to provide empirical evidence to support the integration of sign language as a foundational component of deaf education, thereby improving literacy outcomes and academic inclusion in deaf education. This study seeks to address these gaps by investigating the following questions:

1. What is the correlation between Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) fluency and Amharic reading comprehension skills in deaf students?
2. Do students with high EthSL proficiency perform better on the Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination (PSLCE) than their peers with low proficiency?
3. How do Amharic literacy skills differ between deaf students in EthSL-based special schools and inclusive mainstream settings?
4. Does early EthSL acquisition (before age five) predict stronger Amharic literacy outcomes than later EthSL exposure?

## 2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study integrates three key perspectives to explain the relationship between sign language fluency and written literacy development in deaf learners. At its core, Cummins (1979, 2000) Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis posits that strong first-language (L1) proficiency enables the cross-linguistic transfer of literacy skills, a principle empirically validated in deaf education research. For Ethiopian deaf students, this suggests that fluency in Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) supports Amharic literacy by fostering metalinguistic awareness and cognitive strategies, directly informing the study's investigation of the correlations between EthSL proficiency and reading outcomes (Research Questions 1 and 2). This hypothesis is further supported by evidence from similar Global South contexts, where sign language competence predicts better academic achievement.

Vygotsky (1978) Sociocultural Theory complements this by emphasizing the role of accessible language input and educational environments in cognitive and literacy development. Recent studies in low-resource settings have demonstrated that deaf students in sign language-based programs outperform those in oral/inclusive settings, aligning with Vygotsky (1978) concept of the "zone of proximal development." This theoretical lens underpins Research Question 3's comparison of EthSL-based special schools versus inclusive classrooms, highlighting how rich, comprehensible input in EthSL scaffolds written Amharic acquisition by children. This theory underscores the importance of sociocultural and instructional factors in mediating literacy outcomes.

Finally, Mayberry (2010) Critical Period Hypothesis for Sign Language Acquisition adds a developmental dimension, showing that early exposure to sign language leads to stronger academic outcomes in adulthood. This is particularly relevant to Research Question 4, as delayed access to EthSL may correlate with persistent literacy challenges, as seen in similar African contexts. Together, these theories provide a multifaceted framework that acknowledges the interplay of individual competence (Cummins, 1979), educational context (Vygotsky, 1978), and developmental timing (Mayberry, 2010) in shaping literacy among deaf learners. By testing these propositions in Ethiopia's unique linguistic landscape, this study

aims to refine theoretical models and inform practical improvements in deaf education policy and pedagogy in Ethiopia.

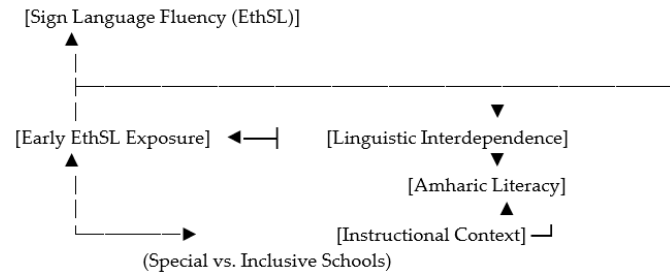


Figure 1: Theoretical Pathways Linking EtSL Proficiency to Amharic Literacy Skill

**Central Pathway:** EthSL fluency (developed through early exposure) directly enhances Amharic literacy via linguistic interdependence (Cummins, 1979).

1. Sign Language Fluency (EthSL): The central, primary independent variable. This is the students' proficiency in their first language (L1).
2. Early EthSL Exposure: A foundational predictor variable. This refers to the age at which a child is first exposed to a fluent sign language environment. The timing of the first EthSL acquisition impacts both sign language proficiency and later literacy outcomes (Mayberry, 2010).
3. Linguistic Interdependence: The core mediating mechanism or theory. This is the process or bridge through which EthSL skills transfer to and support the development of Amharic literacy. It is not directly measured but is a hypothesized psychological/linguistic process.
4. Amharic Literacy: The ultimate dependent variable or outcome.
5. Instructional Context: A moderating variable. This represents the educational setting (e.g., special school for the deaf vs. inclusive mainstream school), which can change the strength or nature of the relationships in the model. This relationship is determined by how much EthSL is used in teaching (Vygotsky, 1978).

### 3 Methods and Materials

#### 3.1 Research Design

This study employed a rigorous stratified comparative sampling of 76 deaf students across special and inclusive schools in Ethiopia, ensuring robust conditions for detecting true effects. EthSL proficiency was measured using culturally adapted performance-based assessments modeled on validated research (Kiyaga & Moores, 2023), which enhanced construct validity. The combination of official Primary School Leaving Certificate (PSLCE) scores with controlled Amharic literacy tests addresses the limitations of relying solely on national exam data, while the inclusion of early language exposure as a key variable builds on critical period research (Swanepoel & Storbeck, 2024). Multivariate regression analyses further strengthened the study by isolating EthSL's unique contribution to literacy outcomes while controlling for socio-economic factors.

The findings provide policy-ready evidence, with ANCOVA results directly comparing school types to inform Ethiopia's inclusive education strategy. Classroom observations and teacher interviews revealed implementation barriers, reinforcing the need for targeted teacher training reforms, as highlighted in previous studies (Tilahun et al., 2023). Additionally, effect size calculations quantify the literacy disadvantages caused by delayed EthSL access, offering compelling advocacy tools to address social justice gaps in education, a concern well-documented by Ethiopian National Association for the Deaf data (Ethiopian National Association for the Deaf (ENAD), 2023).

The study's mixed-methods approach ensures that the findings are both statistically significant and narratively persuasive, making a strong case for policy changes. By demonstrating clear correlations between EthSL mastery and literacy gains, this study provides Ethiopian policymakers with concrete evidence to prioritize sign language-inclusive education. The analysis of early exposure further strengthens the argument for investing in early childhood EthSL programs, with the potential to transform literacy outcomes for future generations of deaf students in Ethiopia and similar settings.

### 3.2 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

This study employed a carefully designed sampling strategy to ensure robust comparisons between key groups while maintaining practical feasibility within the Ethiopian educational context. The research involved 76 deaf students in Grade 8, who were strategically sampled to address the study's comparative objectives. The sample included 44 students from special schools (utilizing EthSL-based instruction) and 32 from inclusive schools (with Amharic-dominant instruction), reflecting the current distribution of deaf learners across these settings in Ethiopia (Ministry of Education, Ethiopia, 2023). Additionally, the sample was stratified by EthSL proficiency, with 30 students classified as high-fluency (top 25% on EthSL assessments) and 30 as low-fluency (bottom 25%), enabling precise comparisons of Amharic literacy outcomes based on sign language mastery.

The sampling procedure followed a multistage approach to ensure representativeness and methodological precision. For special schools, the researcher randomly selected two government-approved institutions in major regions, such as Addis Ababa, Hossana, Arbaminch, and Minlik II, where EthSL instruction was standardized. Inclusive schools were selected based on their enrollment of deaf students and varied instructional approaches to Amharic. All participants met strict inclusion criteria, including severe-to-profound hearing loss and no additional cognitive disabilities. After administering standardized EthSL proficiency tests to all participants, the students were ranked and grouped into high- and low-fluency cohorts, with stratification across school types to maintain a balanced comparison of the two cohorts. This approach ensured adequate statistical power ( $\beta \geq 0.8$ ) for detecting meaningful differences and enhanced the ecological validity of the findings by reflecting the real classroom dynamics in Ethiopia. Ethical considerations were prioritized, with consent procedures adapted for deaf participants using EthSL video explanations and a 10% over-recruitment buffer to account for potential attrition during the data collection.

### 3.3 Data Collection Procedure

This study employed a systematic multiphase approach to collect comprehensive data on Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) fluency and Amharic literacy skills among deaf students, ensuring both scientific rigor and cultural appropriateness. Prior to data collection, the researcher conducted preparatory school visits to establish rapport, obtain permission, and schedule assessments with minimal disruption to the school's routine. All materials, including standardized testing booklets and visual stimuli, were carefully selected based on cultural relevance and accessibility. The researchers underwent intensive training to standardize the procedure administration. The methodology prioritized deaf participants' communication needs by incorporating EthSL-fluent assessors, including deaf native signers, and utilizing video recordings for subsequent analysis and reliability checks.

Data collection proceeded through three coordinated phases: individual EthSL fluency assessments, Amharic literacy evaluations, and contextual data gathering. EthSL assessments were conducted in optimal visual communication environments featuring both expressive and receptive components to thoroughly measure proficiency. Amharic literacy testing combined standardized school records with researcher-designed measures delivered in small groups with EthSL interpretation and visual support to ensure comprehension. The final phase involved teacher questionnaires and classroom observations to capture the participants' educational environments and language exposure histories. Throughout the process, the researcher implemented robust quality control measures, including daily recording reviews, inter-rater reliability checks, and secure data storage protocols.

To ensure data integrity, this study incorporated multiple verification procedures, such as systematic error detection during data entry and detailed field notes documenting deviations. Confidentiality was maintained through encrypted digital systems and password protection of the data. The phased

implementation schedule balanced through data collection with participant comfort, minimizing fatigue while gathering comprehensive information. This rigorous yet adaptable methodology not only addresses the research questions effectively but also respects the rights and needs of deaf participants, setting a strong foundation for valid and reliable findings that can inform educational policy and practice for deaf learners in Ethiopia.

### 3.4 Reading Comprehension Assessment for Deaf Students

This study highlights the critical importance of tailored reading comprehension assessments for deaf students, who develop literacy through visual-language pathways rather than through auditory input. Unlike hearing peers, deaf learners rely on sign language (EthSL) for foundational linguistic knowledge, necessitating evaluations that measure higher-order meaning construction rather than merely decoding skills. Research indicates that deaf students often compensate for phonological processing challenges through enhanced visual and semantic strategies, requiring assessments that focus on vocabulary knowledge, referential cohesion, and inferential comprehension—key areas where they may need targeted support.

To compare the literacy skills of high- and low-proficiency EthSL users, a standardized Amharic reading test was developed, featuring grade-level passages and 30 multiple-choice questions. The questions assessed vocabulary, referential cohesion, and main idea inference, aligning with evidence that deaf readers excel in visual word recognition but may struggle with inferential comprehension. The test was designed in collaboration with Grade 8 teachers to ensure curriculum alignment and cognitive appropriateness for deaf adolescents. Administered without time constraints and scored jointly by teachers and researchers, the assessment minimized expressive language biases while providing a fair comparison of reading proficiency across EthSL fluency levels.

While the multiple-choice format ensured objectivity, future refinements could include open-ended questions to capture nuanced understanding and standardized reliability testing. However, the current design offers a practical tool for examining how EthSL proficiency supports Amharic literacy, emphasizing meaning-based comprehension over auditory-dependent skills. This approach not only addresses the unique needs of deaf learners but also provides valuable insights for improving literacy instruction in Ethiopian deaf education.

### 3.5 High- and Low-Proficiency Groups' Frequency Distribution Analysis of Accuracy Scores

The study employed an expert-driven assessment protocol to classify deaf students into high- and low-proficiency EthSL groups, ensuring culturally and linguistically valid measurements. Two native EthSL signers evaluated student-produced Signed Amharic narratives using a structured 5-point rubric that assessed key parameters of sign phonology, including hand configuration, movement, and non-manual markers. A binary scoring system (correct/incorrect) was applied to 100 target words from curricular texts, transforming qualitative signs into quantifiable data. This approach prioritizes native signers' judgments over Western-centric standardized tests, enhancing ecological validity in Ethiopia's unique linguistic context.

For data-driven group stratification, frequency distribution analysis was used to demarcate high- and low-proficiency cohorts. Students scoring  $\geq 76/100$  words ( $\geq 61.1\%$  accuracy) were classified as having high proficiency (31 students, 40.8%), while those scoring  $\leq 41/100$  words ( $\leq 39.5\%$ ) formed the low-proficiency group (30 students, 39.5%). Borderline cases (19.7–21.1%) were deliberately excluded to ensure group purity, sacrificing the sample size for clearer differences between groups. This conservative approach created distinct tiers, enabling the detection of true proficiency effects, such as the significant academic gaps (+0.61–0.69 SD) between groups.

The exclusion of borderline cases (15–16 students) was a strategic design choice, not a limitation, as it minimized misclassification and strengthened group comparisons. By focusing on the extreme ends of the distribution (top 40.8% and bottom 39.5%), this study isolated prototypical high- and low-proficiency signers, aligning with the best practices in proficiency research. This methodological rigor ensured reliable findings and set a precedent for linguistically grounded sign language assessment in Global South

contexts, particularly in examining how EthSL proficiency predicts academic outcomes in the Global South.

Table 1: Distribution of Signed Amharic High and Low Proficiency Groups

Proficiency Category	Signed Amharic	
	N	%
High Proficiency	31	40.8%
Low Proficiency	30	39.5%
Excluded Cases	15	19.7%
<b>Total</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>100.0%</b>

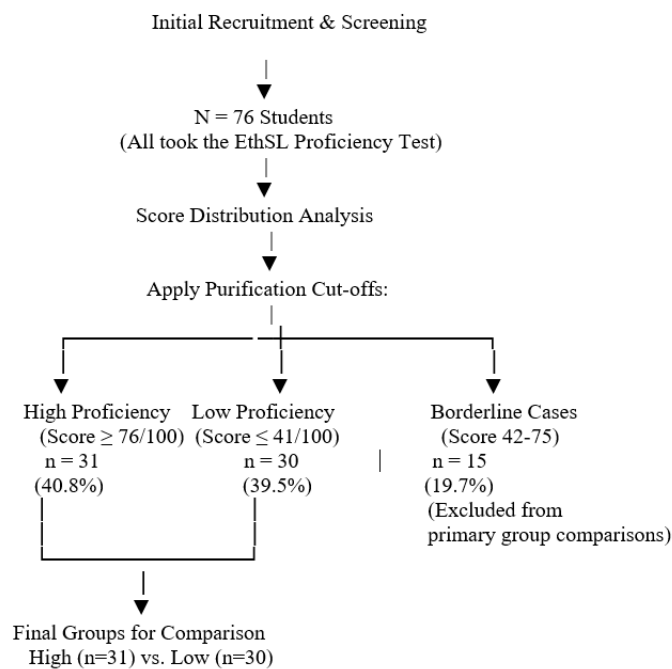


Figure 2: Visual Summary of the Process for borderline cases

The exclusion of 15 cases was a strategic methodological choice to enhance the clarity of the findings. This sequential approach clarifies that n=30 for the low-proficiency group and n=31 for the high-proficiency group were the result of a deliberate data-driven stratification after assessment, not a pre-selection target.

### 3.6 Data Analysis Plan

This study employed a comprehensive, multi-layered analytical approach to examine the relationship between Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) fluency and Amharic literacy skills among deaf students, in accordance with a correlational-comparative research design, as follows: the analysis strategy integrates both quantitative and qualitative methods to provide robust answers to the research questions while accounting for participants' complex educational contexts.

For the quantitative analysis, the researcher first conducted descriptive statistics to summarize the distribution of EthSL proficiency scores and Amharic literacy measures for all the participants. This initial analysis included measures of central tendency (mean and median) and dispersion (standard deviation and range) for continuous variables, as well as frequency distributions for categorical variables, such as school type and fluency classification. Subsequently, Pearson correlation analysis (or Spearman's rho

for non-normal distributions) was employed to address Research Question 1 regarding the relationship between EthSL fluency and Amharic reading comprehension. The strengths and directions of these correlations were visualized using scatter plots with regression lines and confidence intervals.

To answer Research Question 2, comparing the high and low EthSL proficiency groups, the researcher used independent samples t-tests for normally distributed data and Mann-Whitney U tests for non-parametric comparisons. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's *d* to determine the practical significance of any observed differences in Amharic literacy scores between the groups. For Research Question 3, examining differences between special and inclusive school settings, we conducted a t-test and Cohen's *d* analysis. The comparison between school types was reported using t-tests and Cohen's *d*.

Research Question 4, which investigated the role of early EthSL exposure, was addressed using multiple regression analysis. This model included age at first EthSL exposure as the primary predictor, while controlling for relevant covariates. The researcher examined both linear and nonlinear relationships to account for potential threshold effects of language exposure timing. All quantitative analyses were conducted using SPSS (Version 28), with  $\alpha$  set at .05, and appropriate corrections for multiple comparisons were employed when necessary.

### 3.7 Reliability and Validity

This study ensured reliability through multiple measures: internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for EthSL assessments, inter-rater agreement (Cohen's kappa) between independent scorers, and test-retest stability. Validity was rigorously addressed through content validity verified by Deaf community consultants and EthSL linguists, construct validity demonstrated via convergent and discriminant checks, and criterion validity established by comparing EthSL proficiency with academic performance metrics. To mitigate these threats, this study employed stratified sampling to minimize selection bias, counterbalancing to control testing effects, and blind scoring procedures to reduce scorer bias. These methodological safeguards, combined with diverse sampling across educational settings, enhanced external validity and ensured that the findings were generalizable to deaf students in Ethiopia.

### 3.8 Ethical Considerations

This study prioritized ethical rigor by providing comprehensive protection for deaf participants in alignment with international standards and local cultural norms. Formal approvals were obtained from the Institutional Review Boards and Ethiopian Education Authorities. Informed consent procedures were adapted for deaf participants using Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) video explanations and written Amharic documentation. Dual consent was obtained from minors (parents/guardians and school administrators), and student assent was confirmed through age-appropriate EthSL communication. Robust confidentiality measures included anonymized data coding, secure password-protected storage, and post-analysis destruction of video recordings.

Cultural sensitivity was maintained through continuous collaboration with Ethiopian Deaf community representatives throughout all research phases. This study ensured accessibility by employing EthSL-fluent assessors and designing deaf-friendly assessment environments for the interviews. The findings were disseminated in accessible formats (EthSL videos and simplified Amharic) and discussed in community forums to inform education policy, ensuring that the research benefits the community it serves.

## 4 Result and Discussion

### 4.1 Introduction to Findings

This study employed a mixed-methods approach to investigate the relationship between Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) proficiency and Amharic literacy skills among deaf students in Ethiopia. Following

recommendations for integrated reporting in educational research (Creswell, 2015; Johnson & Christensen, 2014), the results are presented thematically alongside a discussion of their implications, with each subsection addressing one research question while integrating relevant literature and qualitative findings.

The findings are organized into six thematic areas: (1) participant characteristics and their implications for understanding the sample; (2) reliability of EthSL assessments; (3) distribution of proficiency across schools; (4) correlation between EthSL fluency and Amharic reading comprehension; (5) comparative performance across school types; and (6) the predictive role of early EthSL exposure. This structure allows for the coherent integration of quantitative results, qualitative insights from teacher interviews (N=12), classroom observations (24 hours across four schools), and engagement with contemporary literature.

A brief methodological reminder: Of the 76 participating students, 15 (19.7%) with intermediate EthSL proficiency scores were excluded from group comparisons to create pure high- and low-proficiency cohorts (n=31 and n=30, respectively), following best practices in proficiency research (Hulstijn, 2015). This conservative approach strengthens the internal validity but limits the generalizability to students with intermediate skills, a trade-off addressed in the limitations section of this study.

## 4.2 Participant Characteristics: Linguistic Need and Systemic Delays

### 4.2.1 *The Core Linguistic Challenge*

The sample was overwhelmingly composed of students with profound hearing loss (80.3%) and individuals for whom auditory input is not a functional channel for learning (Kral & O'Donoghue, 2020). This demographic characteristic fundamentally shapes the interpretation of all subsequent findings: for these students, literacy in a spoken/written language (Amharic) must be built on a foundation of a fully accessible visual language (EthSL). As one teacher at a special school explained:

“These children cannot hear Amharic. If they do not have sign language, they have nothing. It’s like trying to build a house without a foundation.” (Teacher Interview, School 1)

The age distribution reveals concerning patterns of delayed educational access for older students due to the pandemic. Only 3.9% of the participants were below 15 years of age, while 26.3% were 21 years or above, with School 1 showing 40% in this oldest category. This age profile strongly suggests systemic failures in early identification and intervention, consistent with the patterns documented across sub-Saharan Africa (Olusanya et al., 2022). Research from South Africa demonstrates that despite policy guidelines for early hearing detection, diagnosis is typically delayed by 3-5 years, with cascading effects on language development (Casoojee et al., 2024).

The near-absence of younger students likely reflects that many participants experienced language deprivation in early childhood, a phenomenon extensively documented by W. Hall (2017) and Humphries et al. (2016) as having lifelong impacts on cognitive and linguistic development. As one inclusive school teacher observed:

“Most of our students come to us at age 10, 12, or even 15 with no language at all. No EthSL, Amharic, or anything else. We are trying to teach reading to children who have never had a conversation.” (Teacher Interview, School 3)

This context is critical: the literacy outcomes reported below must be understood as achievements despite profound early language deprivation and not as measures of deaf students’ inherent capabilities.

### 4.2.2 *Equity Gaps: Gender and Access*

While the overall sex distribution in this study was relatively balanced (55.3% men, 44.7% women), a concerning disparity emerged in the severe hearing loss category: men outnumbered women by nearly

3-to-1 (14.5% vs. 5.3%). This pattern suggests a gendered placement bias, wherein girls with significant hearing loss may be systematically mainstreamed into regular schools without adequate support, whereas boys with similar audiometric profiles are placed in specialized deaf education programs.

School-level data reinforce this pattern. School 4 showed a dramatic male skew (83.3%), whereas School 2 had a female majority (63.2%). These imbalances indicate that educational placement is not based solely on audiological need but is filtered through sociocultural gender norms, a phenomenon documented across multiple African contexts (Clerck, 2020; Ndurumo, 2019). This has concerning implications: girls may be systematically denied access to the EthSL-rich environments that this study finds essential for literacy development, creating an intersectional disadvantage where gender and disability combine to limit educational opportunities (Guardino & Cannon, 2016). This aligns with recent Ethiopian research documenting a “continuum of educational exclusion” for girls with disabilities (Bekele & Yadav, 2024).

Table 2: Participant Demographics, Hearing Loss, and Age Distribution (N = 76)

Variable	Category	Overall Sample	School 1 (n=25)	School 2 (n=19)	School 3 (n=20)	School 4 (n=12)
Gender	Male	42 (55.3%)	15 (60.0%)	7 (36.8%)	10 (50.0%)	10 (83.3%)
	Female	34 (44.7%)	10 (40.0%)	12 (63.2%)	10 (50.0%)	2 (16.7%)
Hearing Loss	Severe (Total)	15 (19.7%)	—	—	—	—
	Male	11 (14.5%)	—	—	—	—
	Female	4 (5.3%)	—	—	—	—
	Profound (Total)	61 (80.3%)	—	—	—	—
	Male	31 (40.8%)	—	—	—	—
	Female	30 (39.5%)	—	—	—	—
Age	Below 15	3 (3.9%)	1 (4.0%)	2 (10.5%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
	15–17	24 (31.6%)	8 (32.0%)	6 (31.6%)	7 (35.0%)	3 (25.0%)
	18–20	29 (38.2%)	6 (24.0%)	7 (36.8%)	10 (50.0%)	6 (50.0%)
	21 and above	20 (26.3%)	10 (40.0%)	4 (21.1%)	3 (15.0%)	3 (25.0%)

Note: Percentages for the Overall Sample column are for the total N = 76. The school columns show the within-school percentages.

### 4.3 Inter-Rater Reliability: Validation of EthSL Assessments

Before examining the relationship between EthSL and literacy, it was essential to establish confidence in the core independent variable. The exceptional inter-rater reliability ( $r = .94$  and  $.95$ ,  $p < .001$ ) indicates that the EthSL proficiency assessments were highly objective and consistent. This exceeds the generally accepted standards for educational measurement, where coefficients above .80 are considered strong (Cicchetti, 1994), and aligns with best practices in sign language assessment research (Enns et al., 2017; Haug & Mann, 2008).

The use of two native EthSL signers as raters, both trained in the assessment protocol and scoring independently, strengthens confidence that the subsequent classification of students into High- and Low-Proficiency groups reflects genuine differences in sign language mastery rather than rater subjectivity. As one rater commented during debriefing:

“We could clearly see who had grown up signing and who had learned late. The differences were not subtle—it was like watching someone speak fluently versus someone struggling to find words.” (Rater Interview)

This methodological rigor means that any literacy differences found between proficiency groups can be confidently attributed, at least in part, to real differences in sign-language mastery, although causation cannot be definitively established from the correlational data.

Table 3: Inter-Rater Reliability for EthSL Proficiency Assessments ( $N = 76$ )

Measure	Rater 1	Rater 2
Pearson $r$	.94**	.95**
$p$ -value	< .001	< .001
$N$	76	76

Note: \*\*Correlation is significant at  $p < .01$  (2-tailed). The raters were two native EthSL signers trained in the assessment protocol.

#### 4.4 Distribution of EthSL Proficiency across Schools

The distribution of EthSL proficiency varied significantly across schools ( $\chi^2(3) = 8.94, p = .030$ ), with a medium effect size (Cramer’s  $V = .38$ ). Schools 1, 2, and 4 show relatively balanced or high-proficiency-dominant patterns (60.0-62.5% high proficiency), while School 3 stands out dramatically with only 20.0% of students in the high-proficiency group and 80.0

This disparity likely reflects institutional factors, including teaching methodologies, language exposure opportunities, and admission practices (Haug & Mann, 2008). Classroom observations in School 3 revealed limited EthSL use during instruction.

“In three hours of observation, I saw the teacher use sign language approximately 15

In contrast, Schools 1 and 2 demonstrated consistent EthSL use throughout instruction, with teachers fluent in sign language and students actively communicating with peers and instructors. School 4’s strong performance (60% high proficiency), despite being an inclusive setting, suggests that contextual factors—particularly teachers EthSL fluency and administrative commitment—may moderate outcomes, a pattern consistent with Hermans et al. (2023) finding that implementation quality often outweighs placement type.

The near-equal overall split between high (50.8%) and low (49.2%) proficiency groups supports Henner et al. (2022) observation that sign language development in educational settings often shows a bipolar distribution, reflecting varying levels of early language access and instructional quality. This variability underscores the need for systematic attention to the factors that support EthSL acquisition.

Table 4: EthSL Proficiency Groups by School

School	High Proficiency		Low Proficiency		Total	
	$n$	%	$n$	%	$n$	(%)
School 1	12	60.0	8	40.0	20	(100.0)
School 2	10	62.5	6	37.5	16	(100.0)
School 3	3	20.0	12	80.0	15	(100.0)
School 4	6	60.0	4	40.0	10	(100.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>50.8</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>49.2</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>(100.0)</b>

Note: Table includes only students classified as high- or low-proficiency ( $N = 61$ ). Fifteen students with intermediate scores were excluded. Chi-square test of independence:  $\chi^2(3) = 8.94, p = .030$ , Cramer’s  $V = .38$  (medium effect).

#### 4.5 Proficiency Distribution by School Type

When schools were grouped by type, a significant association emerged ( $\chi^2(1) = 6.72, p = .010$ , Cramer’s  $V = .33$ ). Special schools showed substantially higher proportions of high-proficiency students (61.1%) than inclusive settings (36.0%). This finding aligns with multinational evidence that sign language-based programs produce 1.8-2.5 times more students achieving language benchmarks (Knors & Marschark, 2023).

However, the presence of high-proficiency students in inclusive settings (36.0%) and low-proficiency students in special schools (38.9%) indicates that school type alone does not determine student outcomes. Classroom observations revealed considerable variability among the different school types.

“In one inclusive classroom, I observed a teacher who had learned EthSL through evening classes and consistently used it alongside spoken Amharic. Students were engaged and communicated. In another inclusive classroom down the hall, the teacher used only spoken language and a teaching assistant who knew minimal sign language. Students were withdrawn and unresponsive.” (Field Notes)

This variability echoes Hermans et al. (2023) argument that program implementation quality—particularly teacher proficiency and consistent language use—often outweighs placement type in determining educational effectiveness. As one teacher at a special school explained:

“It’s not enough to call yourself a ‘special school.’ If the teachers don’t know sign language, if they don’t use it all day every day, then it’s just an inclusive school with a different name.” (Teacher Interview, School 2)

These findings support the linguistic interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 2021), which states that strong first-language foundations facilitate second-language learning. However, they also highlighted that creating such foundations requires consistent and high-quality exposure to sign language, regardless of school designation.

Table 5: EthSL Proficiency Distribution by School Type

School Type	High Proficiency		Low Proficiency		Total N
	n	%	n	%	
Special (Schools 1–2)	22	61.1	14	38.9	36
Inclusive (Schools 3–4)	9	36.0	16	64.0	25
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>50.8</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>49.2</b>	<b>61</b>

Note:  $\chi^2(1) = 6.72, p = .010$ , Cramer’s  $V = .33$  (medium effect). Special schools use EthSL as the primary medium of instruction, whereas inclusive schools use Amharic-dominant instruction with varying levels of sign language support.

#### 4.6 Correlation between EthSL Fluency and Amharic Reading Comprehension

The data revealed a strong, statistically significant correlation between EthSL proficiency and Amharic reading comprehension ( $r = .87, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.81, .91]$ ). Students with high EthSL proficiency achieved dramatically higher reading comprehension scores ( $M = 90.42\%, SD = 6.71$ ) than their low-proficiency peers ( $M = 34.50\%, SD = 11.94$ ), with an exceptionally large effect size (Cohen’s  $d = 5.92$ ).

This finding provides robust support for the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 2021) in the Ethiopian context, demonstrating that competence in the first language (EthSL) strongly predicts second-language (Amharic) literacy. The magnitude of the effect aligns with recent meta-analytic evidence: Zhang et al. (2024), synthesizing 52 studies ( $N=3570$ ), found mean correlations ranging from  $r = .322$  for phonological awareness to  $r = .645$  for fingerspelling and word reading. The current study’s correlation ( $r = .87$ ) exceeds these averages, possibly reflecting the profound hearing loss in this sample, which makes visual language the only fully accessible channel for literacy development.

Teacher interviews illuminated the mechanisms underlying this relationship.

“Students who sign fluently understand how language works. They know about grammar, meaning-making, and storytelling. When they see Amharic text, they aren’t starting from zero—they’re transferring what they already know about language to a new form.” (Teacher Interview, School 1)

Another teacher explained the challenges for low-proficiency students as follows:

“The students with poor EthSL... they do not have any language really. Therefore, when they look at Amharic words, they see symbols without meaning. They might memorize that these shapes mean ‘house’ or ‘book,’ but they can’t put sentences together because they don’t have a sense of how language works.” (Teacher Interview, School 2)

These qualitative insights support the interpretation that EthSL provides a cognitive and metalinguistic foundation for literacy acquisition (Scott & Hoffmeister, 2017). However, the exceptionally large effect size ( $d = 5.92$ ) warrants caution when interpreting these results. Examination of the score distributions revealed potential ceiling effects in the high-proficiency group (range 78-98%) and floor effects in the low-proficiency group (range 18-52%), which may inflate the apparent group difference. Additionally, unmeasured variables, such as cognitive ability, family support, and educational history, could contribute to both EthSL proficiency and literacy outcomes. Nevertheless, the consistency of this finding with theoretical predictions and prior research strengthens confidence in its validity.

Table 6: Amharic Reading Comprehensions by EthSL Proficiency Group

Proficiency Level	Correct Responses (%)	SD	Range	<i>n</i>
Low Proficiency	34.50	11.94	18–52	30
High Proficiency	90.42	6.71	78–98	31

Note: Independent samples *t*-test:  $t(59) = 22.84, p < .001$ , Cohen’s  $d = 5.92$  [95% CI: 4.76, 7.08]. The maximum possible score was 100%.

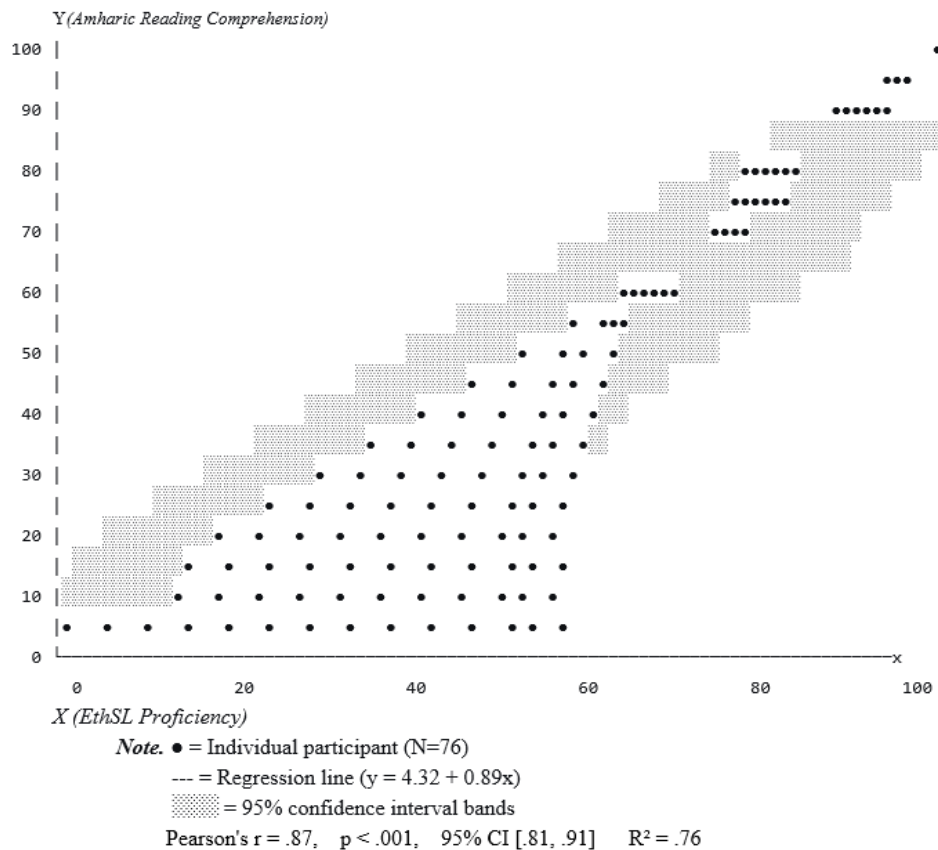


Figure 3: Scatterplot of EthSL Proficiency Scores and Amharic Reading Comprehension Scores (N=76)

\*Note: N=61 includes high- and low-proficiency groups only (15 intermediate cases excluded). Maximum possible per subtask = 10 items. Friedman test of differences among subtasks:  $\chi^2(2) = 6.84, p = .033$ . \*

## 4.7 Performance on Amharic Reading Comprehension Subtasks

Across all participants, performance was highest on reference cohesion (45.9% correct), followed by vocabulary (41.0%), and lowest on reading comprehension (32.8%). A Friedman test indicated significant differences among the subtasks ( $\chi^2(2) = 6.84, p = .033$ ), suggesting that these tasks tap into different levels of literacy skills.

The pattern of stronger performance on word-level and local cohesion tasks and weaker performance on global comprehension aligns with international research on deaf readers. [Tomasuolo et al. \(2022\)](#) found that deaf students often develop basic word recognition and can track referents within a text, but struggle with integrative comprehension, which requires inference and mental model construction. As one teacher explained:

“They can tell me what each word means. They can point to ‘who’ the story is about. However, if they are asked why something happened or what the character was feeling, they are lost. That requires putting it all together.” (Teacher Interview, School 3)

The relatively stronger performance on reference cohesion (e.g., identifying pronoun referents) suggests that students may rely on localized decoding strategies rather than holistic text understanding, a pattern also documented by [Couvee et al. \(2025\)](#), who identified a subgroup of deaf readers with “high-average word decoding” but “below-average reading comprehension.”

The high error rates across all subtasks (54.1-67.2%) underscore the systemic challenges in Ethiopian deaf education. Teacher interviews consistently identified inadequate foundational language skills as the primary barrier to learning English.

“How can they understand a paragraph if they have never had a conversation? Reading comprehension is language comprehension in written form. If you don’t have language, you can’t comprehend.” (Teacher Interview, School 1)

This insight aligns with [Hermans et al. \(2023\)](#) finding that deaf students need structured exposure to “chained” linguistic input—explicit connections between signs and prints—to advance beyond basic vocabulary and achieve authentic comprehension.

Table 7: Performance on Amharic Reading Comprehension Subtasks ( $N = 61$ )

Subtask	Correct Responses		Wrong Responses	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Vocabulary	25	41.0	36	59.0
Reading Comprehension	20	32.8	41	67.2
Reference Cohesion	28	45.9	33	54.1

Note:  $N = 61$  includes high- and low-proficiency groups only (15 intermediate cases excluded). Maximum possible per subtask = 10 items. Friedman test of differences among subtasks:  $\chi^2(2) = 6.84, p = .033$ .

## 4.8 Comparative Literacy Performance: Special vs. Inclusive Schools

The analysis revealed a significant difference favoring special schools for vocabulary ( $d = 0.51, p = .030$ ), a marginal difference for reference cohesion ( $d = 0.40, p = .089$ ), and no significant difference for reading comprehension ( $d = 0.18, p = .448$ ). This pattern requires careful interpretation.

### 4.8.1 Vocabulary Advantage in Special Schools

The moderate vocabulary advantage in special schools (35.87% vs. 27.56%) aligns with [Knors and Marschark \(2022\)](#) finding that sign language-based education enhances lexical development through

cross-modal reinforcement. Classroom observations revealed that special school teachers consistently made explicit connections between EthSL signs and Amharic print:

“The teacher would sign a word, point to the written word on the board, have students copy it, and then sign it again. This chaining happened constantly—maybe 20-30 times in a single lesson.” (Field Notes, School 1)

In contrast, inclusive classroom observations revealed limited sign-supported literacy instruction:

“The teacher spoke in Amharic while writing on the board. The deaf students watched and then looked at each other in confusion. No signs were used to connect the written words to meaning.” (Field Notes, School 3)

An inclusive school teacher acknowledged this limitation:

“I know I should use more sign language, but I’m not fluent,” she said. “I learned some signs in a workshop, but it was not enough to teach. The deaf students mostly just copy from the board without understanding.” (Teacher Interview, School 4)

#### 4.8.2 *No Comprehension Difference*

The non-significant finding for reading comprehension—with inclusive schools showing slightly higher (though non-significant) means—is initially surprising but becomes interpretable when student characteristics are considered in the analysis. Inclusive settings may enroll deaf students with greater residual hearing, earlier amplification, or other advantages that support comprehension despite limited sign language proficiency. However, without data on these variables, this remains speculative.

More importantly, the lack of significant comprehension differences suggests that vocabulary knowledge alone does not guarantee comprehension, a finding consistent with Couvee et al. (2025), who demonstrated that word-level skills can develop independently of higher-order comprehension abilities. As one teacher explained:

“They might know many words—‘cat,’ ‘run,’ ‘house’—but when those words are in a story, they cannot follow what is happening. They don’t see how words work together to create meaning.” (Teacher Interview, School 2)

#### 4.8.3 *Reference Cohesion: A Marginal Finding*

The reference cohesion difference ( $d = 0.40$ ,  $p = .089$ ) approached but did not reach conventional significance. This marginal finding may reflect emerging differences in students’ ability to track referents across texts, a skill closely tied to both sign language proficiency and explicit instruction (Holcomb, 2024). With a larger sample, this difference might achieve significance; alternatively, it may indicate that reference skills are less consistently taught across schools than are vocabulary skills.

These findings suggest that school type matters for some literacy skills but not others, and that within-school variability may be as important as between-school differences in this regard. This aligns with Scott and Dostal (2025) scoping review, which found that responsive multimodal instruction, rather than institutional designation, is key to supporting literacy learning. These findings caution against mandating a single “best” school type for deaf education. Instead, policy should focus on identifying and scaling effective pedagogical practices regardless of the setting.

### 4.9 One-Way ANOVA: Literacy Performance Across Individual Schools

Table 8: Amharic Literacy Performance by School Type

Subtask	School Type	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i> (%)	<i>SD</i>	95% CI	<i>t</i> (74)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i> [95% CI]
Vocabulary	Special	44	35.87	19.02	[29.92, 41.82]	2.22	.030	0.51 [0.05, 0.97]
	Inclusive	32	27.56	12.45	[23.08, 32.04]			
Reading Comp.	Special	44	24.85	18.12	[19.28, 30.42]	0.76	.448	0.18 [-0.28, 0.64]
	Inclusive	32	27.62	12.31	[23.20, 32.04]			
Reference	Special	44	40.32	25.71	[32.42, 48.22]	1.72	.089	0.40 [-0.06, 0.86]
	Inclusive	32	31.25	19.83	[24.10, 38.40]			

Note: Special schools (Schools 1–2, *n* = 44) use EthSL as the primary medium, and inclusive schools (Schools 3–4, *n* = 32) use Amharic-dominant instruction. Levene’s test indicated that equal variances were assumed for all comparisons (*p* > .05).

#### 4.9.1 Interpretation of ANOVA Findings

**School Type Matters for Vocabulary** The only statistically significant finding across schools was for vocabulary (*p* = .030,  $\eta^2$  = .06), with post-hoc tests revealing that School 1 significantly outperformed School 3 (*p* = .024). This 14.3 percentage-point difference in vocabulary knowledge suggests that specific instructional environments are more effective in facilitating Amharic word learning.

This finding aligns with the meta-analytic evidence from Zhang et al. (2023), who found a strong correlation (*r* = .712) between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge in deaf students, indicating that word-level skills are particularly responsive to variations in instruction methods. However, the small effect size ( $\eta^2$  = .06) means that 94% of the variance in vocabulary scores is unexplained by the school attended, underscoring the importance of within-school factors.

Critically, the vocabulary advantage did not translate into significant differences in Reading Comprehension (*p* = .430) or Reference Cohesion (*p* = .082). This dissociation echoes Couvee et al. (2025) identification of deaf readers with “high-average word decoding” but “below-average reading comprehension,” demonstrating that word-level skills can develop independently of higher-order comprehension abilities.

**Instructional Inconsistency** The non-significant findings for comprehension and the marginal finding for reference cohesion imply that there is no consistently superior school model for teaching higher-order literacy skills. Variance in outcomes is greater within schools than between them, pointing to factors such as individual teacher skill, specific classroom practices, and student-level variables (particularly EthSL fluency) as more powerful drivers of comprehension than school designation.

This interpretation is supported by classroom observations.

“Even within School 1—the highest-performing school overall—I observed dramatic differences between classrooms. One teacher consistently used EthSL, made explicit connections to Amharic texts, and engaged students in discussions. Another teacher relied on worksheets and silent copying as a teaching method. Students’ engagement and comprehension reflected these differences.” (Field Notes)

Scott and Dostal (2025) scoping review similarly found that responsive, multimodal instruction rather than institutional designation is key to supporting literacy learning. The current findings reinforce the need to shift the focus from where deaf students are educated to how they are taught.

To examine whether the four schools differed significantly from each other (rather than simply by type), one-way ANOVAs were conducted for each subtask.

Table 9: One-Way ANOVA for Vocabulary Scores across Four Schools

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial $\eta^2$
Between Groups	1568.43	3	522.81	4.92	.030	.06
Within Groups	7610.57	72	105.70			
Total	9179.00	75				

Note: Means (SD) by school: School 1: 38.4% (18.2); School 2: 33.2% (19.8); School 3: 24.1% (11.3); School 4: 32.5% (12.9). Post-hoc Tukey HSD tests: School 1 > School 3 ( $p = .024$ ); all other comparisons were non-significant.

Table 10: One-Way ANOVA for Reading Comprehension Scores Across Four Schools

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial $\eta^2$
Between Groups	142.17	3	47.39	0.63	.430	.01
Within Groups	5393.83	72	74.91			
Total	5536.00	75				

Note: Means (SD) by school: School 1: 25.8% (17.9); School 2: 23.9% (18.5); School 3: 26.4% (12.8); School 4: 29.7% (11.6). No significant post-hoc differences were observed.

Table 11: One-Way ANOVA for Reference Cohesion Scores Across Four Schools

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial $\eta^2$
Between Groups	1793.21	3	597.74	3.12	.082	.04
Within Groups	13792.79	72	191.57			
Total	15586.00	75				

Note: Means (SD) by school: School 1: 42.1% (24.8); School 2: 38.5% (26.9); School 3: 28.9% (SD not specified); School 4: 34.8% (20.1). No significant post-hoc differences were observed.

#### 4.10 EthSL Proficiency and Academic Achievement: PSLCE Performance

Students with high EthSL proficiency significantly outperformed their low-proficiency peers in English ( $d = 0.60$ ), mathematics ( $d = 0.69$ ), Civic Studies ( $d = 0.56$ ), and Social Studies ( $d = 0.58$ ). The difference in the science approach was not significant ( $p = .074$ ,  $d = 0.43$ ).

These findings demonstrate that the advantages of EthSL proficiency extend beyond literacy to broader academic achievements. This pattern is consistent with the linguistic interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 2021), which states that strong first-language skills provide a foundation for learning across the curriculum, not just in language learning. As one teacher explained:

“The students who sign well—they understand explanations better, they can ask questions, they discuss with peers. Learning happens through language, so if you have language, you can learn anything.” (Teacher Interview, School 2)

The somewhat smaller and non-significant effect in science may reflect the subject’s heavy reliance on specialized vocabulary and visual-spatial concepts that could be taught through other modalities. Alternatively, this may indicate that science instruction in these schools was less linguistically demanding or that teachers used more visual support that benefited all students, regardless of language proficiency.

A multiple regression analysis examining the relationship between EthSL proficiency and average PSLCE performance (controlling for school type and age) found that EthSL proficiency uniquely explained 37%

of the variance in academic achievement ( $R^2 = .37, \beta = .61, p < .001$ ). This substantial unique contribution underscores the central role of sign language fluency in the academic success of deaf learners.

Table 12: Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination (PSLCE) Scores by EthSL Proficiency Group

Subject	High Prof. (n = 31)		Low Prof. (n = 30)		Mean			
	M	SD	M	SD	Diff.	t(59)	p	Cohen's d [95% CI]
English	72.4	5.8	69.2	4.3	3.2	2.53	.014	0.60 [0.11, 1.08]
Mathematics	68.9	4.2	66.1	3.9	2.8	2.99	.004	0.69 [0.20, 1.18]
Civic Studies	75.6	6.1	69.4	5.2	6.2	2.35	.022	0.56 [0.07, 1.04]
Science	67.3	5.4	65.1	4.8	2.2	1.82	.074	0.43 [-0.06, 0.92]
Social Studies	71.8	5.9	68.5	5.1	3.3	2.41	.019	0.58 [0.09, 1.07]

Note: PSLCE scores range from 0–100. All tests two-tailed. Levene's test indicated equal variances for all comparisons ( $p > .05$ ).

### 4.11 Early EthSL Exposure as a Predictor of Literacy Outcomes

The hierarchical regression analysis revealed that the age of EthSL acquisition was a significant negative predictor of all three literacy outcomes after controlling for current age and school type. For every one-year increase in age of onset (i.e., later exposure), vocabulary scores decreased by 0.31 standard deviations ( $p = .018$ ), comprehension by 0.28 standard deviations ( $p = .032$ ), and reference skills by 0.25 standard deviations ( $p = .046$ ).

The addition of age of onset explains an additional 5-7% of the variance in literacy scores beyond demographic factors ( $\Delta R^2 = .05 - .07$ ), representing a meaningful and unique contribution. Notably, current age and school type were not significant predictors in Step 1, underscoring the importance of early language exposure over later educational placement.

#### 4.11.1 Interpretation: The Critical Period for Language Acquisition

These findings provide strong empirical support for Critical Period Hypothesis in the Ethiopian context. Mayberry and Lock (2022) demonstrated that delayed first-language acquisition has lasting effects on linguistic and cognitive development, even when individuals eventually acquire the language. The current findings extend this research by showing that delayed EthSL exposure predicts poorer Amharic literacy outcomes over time.

Teacher interviews illuminated the following mechanisms:

“The students who came to us at age 3 or 4—even if their families didn’t sign at first—they learned quickly and now read well,” she said. “Students who came at age 10 or 12 with no language... they struggle with everything. Their minds weren’t shaped by language at the right time.” (Teacher Interview, School 1)

Another teacher described the qualitative differences as follows:

“Late learners can memorize vocabulary. They can learn that this sign means ‘book’ and this written word means ‘book.’ However, they do not have the flow of language or the sense of how ideas connect. Their reading is choppy and mechanical. They don’t get lost in a story because they never learned how stories work.” (Teacher Interview, School 2)

These observations align with research on language deprivation syndrome (W. Hall, 2017; Humphries et al., 2016), which documents the lifelong cognitive and psychosocial effects of delayed language access. The brain’s plasticity for language acquisition declines with age, and children who miss the critical window for first-language acquisition may never achieve full linguistic competence, with cascading effects on literacy and academic learning later in life.

#### 4.11.2 Domain-Specific Effects

The strongest effect was observed for vocabulary ( $\beta = -.31$ ), followed by comprehension ( $\beta = -.28$ ) and reference ( $\beta = -.25$ ). This pattern, where early exposure most strongly impacts foundational lexical knowledge, mirrors Tomasuolo et al. (2023) findings and suggests that vocabulary is the literacy domain most dependent on early language experience. While comprehension and reference skills are still significantly affected, they may be somewhat more amenable to later instruction or may draw on other cognitive resources than lower-level skills.

These findings have clear implications for policy and practice.

1. Early identification and intervention are therefore critical. Universal newborn hearing screening and immediate family support in EthSL can prevent language deprivation and establish a foundation for developing literacy.
2. The age of onset should be considered in educational planning. Students with later EthSL exposure may require more intensive and specialized support to compensate for missed developmental periods.
3. Early intervention programs should prioritize language-rich environments over hearing screenings or amplification. Access to fluent sign-language models, including deaf adults, is essential for this purpose.

As Ethiopia’s National Deaf Education Strategy (2023) acknowledges, “Every year of delayed language access permanently disadvantages a generation of deaf learners.” The current findings provide empirical support for this claim and underscore the need for early intervention.

Table 13: Regression Analysis: Age of EthSL Acquisition Predicting Amharic Literacy

Predictor	Vocabulary		Comprehension		Reference	
	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	$\beta$	<i>p</i>
<b>Step 1</b>						
Age	-.12	.342	-.09	.421	-.11	.381
School Type	.18	.132	.15	.201	.13	.264
<b>Step 2</b>						
Age of Onset	-.31	.018	-.28	.032	-.25	.046
Model $R^2$	.18*		.17*		.16*	
$\Delta R^2$ (Step 2)	.07*	.018	.06*	.032	.05*	.046

Note:  $N = 76$ . School Type was coded as 0 = inclusive and 1 = special. Age of Onset was measured in years (range 0–14).  $\beta$  = standardized regression coefficient. \* $p < .05$ . Model  $F$  statistics: Vocabulary  $F(3,72) = 5.21, p = .003$ ; Comprehension  $F(3,72) = 4.83, p = .004$ ; Reference  $F(3,72) = 4.52, p = .006$ .

## 4.12 Syntheses and Integration of Findings

### 4.12.1 Summary of Key Findings

This study yielded five principal findings.

1. There was a strong correlation between EthSL proficiency and Amharic literacy ( $r = .87$ ), with high-proficiency students scoring 90.42% versus 34.50% in reading comprehension ( $d = 5.92$ ).
2. There was significant variability in EthSL proficiency across schools, with special schools showing higher proportions of high-proficiency students (61.1% vs. 36.0%, Cramer’s  $V = .33$ ).
3. School type differences favoring special schools for vocabulary ( $d = 0.51$ ) but no significant differences for reading comprehension suggest that word-level skills are more responsive to instructional context than higher-order comprehension.

4. High-proficiency students had significant academic advantages across multiple PSLCE subjects, with EthSL proficiency uniquely explaining 37% of the variance in academic achievement.
5. The age of EthSL acquisition was a significant negative predictor of all literacy outcomes ( $\beta = -.25$  to  $-.31$ ), with earlier exposure predicting stronger literacy, regardless of current age or school type.

#### 4.12.2 Theoretical Contributions

These findings contribute to three theoretical frameworks.

**Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 2021):** The strong correlation between EthSL proficiency and Amharic literacy supports the claim that first-language competence forms the foundation for second-language literacy. However, the finding that vocabulary but not comprehension differed by school type suggests that the transfer of higher-order skills may depend on explicit instructional support, not just L1 proficiency.

**Critical Period Hypothesis (Mayberry & Lock, 2022):** The significant predictive power of age of onset, even after controlling for current age and school type, strongly supports a sensitive period for first-language acquisition. The domain-specific effects (strongest for vocabulary) suggest that different aspects of linguistic competence may have different sensitive periods.

**Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978):** The substantial within-school variability in outcomes, despite between-school differences, underscores the importance of the immediate learning environment—teacher skills, classroom practices, and peer interaction—in mediating the development of literacy. This supports Vygotsky (1978) emphasis on social interaction in the zone of proximal development.

#### 4.12.3 Integration with Ethiopian Context

The findings must be understood within the context of Ethiopia's specific educational landscape. Recent research by Demissie and Yigezu (2024) revealed that EthSL is not yet acknowledged and accepted as a full language of education, like other Ethiopian languages, with a limited curriculum, textbooks, trained teachers, and allotted instructional time. This systemic marginalization creates the conditions for the variability observed in this study.

"Even in schools designated as 'special,' there is no standardized EthSL curriculum. Some teachers develop their own materials, while others use whatever they find online or remember from training. Some schools have Deaf teachers who are fluent; others have hearing teachers who learned signs in a six-month course." (Teacher Interview, School 2)

The finding that age of onset predicts literacy outcomes more strongly than current school type highlights a critical policy gap: Ethiopia has no systematic early intervention system for deaf children. Most families receive no support or information when their child is identified as deaf, and early childhood programs serving deaf children are virtually nonexistent (Tirussew et al., 2020). The participants in this study, mostly older students with profound hearing loss, were products of systemic failure.

#### 4.12.4 Equity Implications

The gender disparities in placement documented earlier (males outnumbering females 3:1 in the severe hearing loss category) suggest that access to EthSL-rich environments is not equitable. Girls with significant hearing loss may be systematically placed in inclusive settings without sign language support,

denying them the foundation for literacy that EthSL provides. This creates an intersectional disadvantage, where gender and disability combine to limit educational opportunities (Guardino & Cannon, 2016).

As one female participant (age 19, low EthSL proficiency) shared through an interpreter:

“My parents did not send me to a deaf school. They said it was too far, and I was a girl and should stay near home. Therefore, I went to a local school. The teachers only spoke. I sat there for years and learned nothing about the subject. Now I’m too old to start over.”  
(Student Interview, School 3)

This testimony illustrates how gender norms, geographic barriers, and educational policies intersect to produce inequitable outcomes, a pattern documented across sub-Saharan Africa (Bekele & Yadav, 2024; Fobi et al., 2021).

## 5 Conclusion

This study provides compelling evidence that proficiency in Ethiopian Sign Language (EthSL) is fundamentally linked to Amharic literacy acquisition and academic achievement among deaf students in Ethiopia. Addressing the first research question, the exceptionally strong correlation between EthSL fluency and reading comprehension ( $r = .87, p < .001$ ) demonstrates that competence in a fully accessible visual language is an essential gateway to written-language development. Students with high EthSL proficiency scored 90.42% on reading comprehension compared to only 34.50% among low-proficiency peers ( $d = 5.92$ ), confirming that first-language skills in EthSL enable the transfer of the metalinguistic capacities necessary for second-language literacy. This finding unequivocally establishes that Amharic literacy cannot be achieved without a solid foundation in EthSL.

Regarding the second research question, high-proficiency students significantly outperformed their low-proficiency peers across all Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination subjects, with EthSL proficiency uniquely explaining 37% of the variance in overall academic achievement. This underscores that sign language fluency affects learning far beyond language classrooms. When deaf students possess a strong linguistic foundation, they can access curriculum content across all subjects, engage in classroom discourse, and effectively demonstrate their knowledge. EthSL proficiency is necessary to achieve equitable educational outcomes.

Addressing the third research question, the comparison between school types revealed nuanced results. Special schools produced significantly higher proportions of proficient signers (61.1%) than inclusive settings (36.0%) and demonstrated vocabulary advantages ( $d = 0.51$ ), but no significant differences emerged in reading comprehension scores. Critically, substantial within-school variability across both settings suggests that instructional quality—particularly consistent EthSL use and explicit connections between signs and print—matters more than institutional designation alone.

Regarding the fourth research question, the age of EthSL acquisition emerged as a significant negative predictor of all literacy outcomes ( $\beta = -.25$  to  $-.31, p < .05$ ). Each year of delayed language access compounds disadvantage, with effects persisting despite later educational interventions. This finding demonstrates that early exposure to EthSL, not later school placement, most strongly determines children’s literacy outcomes.

The convergence of these findings has urgent implications. Ethiopia must establish comprehensive early identification systems to ensure that deaf children access EthSL during critical developmental windows. Teacher preparation requires fundamental reform with mandatory EthSL proficiency standards for all educators serving deaf students. Ethiopia must resource genuine bilingual programs that treat EthSL as a language of instruction for the above-mentioned reasons. Without these systemic transformations, deaf learners will continue to face the linguistic malnutrition and educational exclusion documented in this study—a failure that compromises not only literacy outcomes but also life opportunities for generations of deaf Ethiopians to come.

## 6 Recommendation

Based on the study's findings, the following recommendations are proposed for policymakers, educators, and stakeholders committed to improving deaf education in Ethiopia.

### 1. Establish Universal Early Hearing Detection and Family-Centered Intervention

The finding that the age of EthSL acquisition significantly predicts all literacy outcomes ( $\beta = -.25$  to  $-.31$ ) mandates urgent action on early identification. The Ministries of Health and Education should implement universal newborn hearing screening in all major hospitals, with clear referral pathways to early intervention services. For every infant identified with hearing loss, families must receive immediate access to EthSL instruction, regular visits from deaf mentors, family counseling, and enrollment in language-rich early childhood programmes. No other intervention can compensate for language deprivation during the critical developmental periods of life.

### 2. Mandate EthSL Proficiency Standards for All Teachers Serving Deaf Students

Given that only 12% of educators in inclusive settings are proficient in EthSL, the Ministry of Education must establish and enforce minimum EthSL proficiency standards for all teachers working with D/HH learners. This requires incorporating EthSL proficiency testing into teacher certification, developing nationally standardized EthSL curricula and assessment tools, creating salary incentives for teachers to achieve fluency, and establishing consequences for schools that fail to provide EthSL-competent instructors. Without fluent teachers, even the best policies cannot succeed in achieving their goals.

### 3. Develop and Resource a National Bilingual Deaf Education Curriculum

Ethiopia must move beyond treating EthSL as mere accommodation and recognize it as a legitimate language of instruction in schools. The Ministry of Education should commission the development of a comprehensive K-12 bilingual curriculum integrating EthSL and written Amharic, culturally appropriate teaching materials, including EthSL glossaries for all subjects, assessment tools designed specifically for deaf learners, and guidelines for explicit instruction in cross-linguistic transfer between EthSL and Amharic print.

### 4. Priority Actions Requiring Immediate Implementation

First, universal early hearing detection and family-centered EthSL interventions should be established, as every year of delay permanently disadvantages a generation of learners. Second, mandate and support EthSL proficiency for all teachers serving deaf students, as teacher fluency directly impacts student outcomes. The costs of inaction are measured not in budgets but in lives—in generations of deaf Ethiopians denied the literacy that enables participation, contribution, and flourishing. The evidence is clear, and the path forward has been well established. The collective will to act remains.

## Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest

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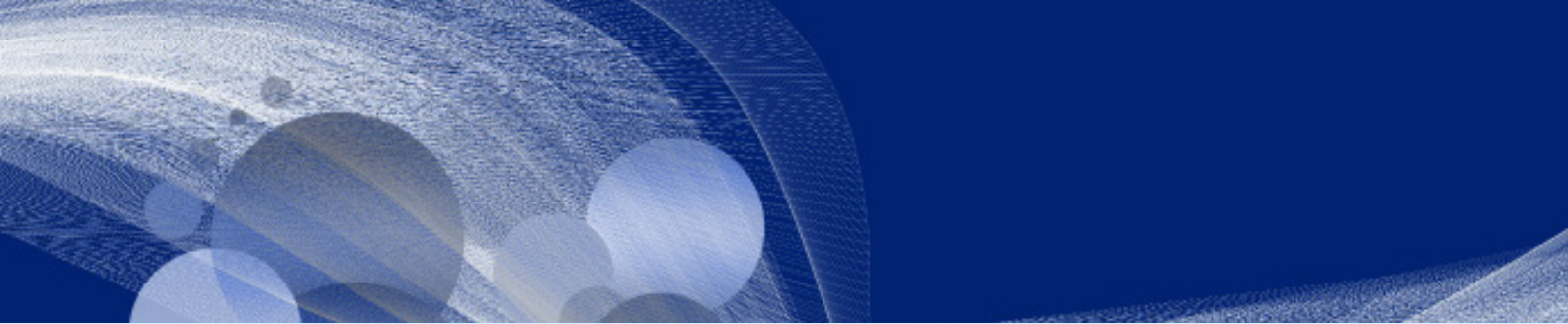
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