

**USING AFAAN OROMOO AS PRIMARY LANGUAGE
OF LEARNING AND TEACHING IN SELECTED
SCHOOLS IN ADDIS ABABA: POLICY,
PROBLEMS AND STRATEGIES**

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis, which I hereby submit for the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy** at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at another university. Where secondary material is used, this has been carefully acknowledged and referenced in accordance with University requirements. I am aware of the University policy and implications regarding plagiarism.

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the challenges that face learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo, and use Amharic as the language of learning and teaching LoLT in selected schools Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. It examines the current teaching strategies used by teachers of multilingual classes to assist learners who speak languages other than Amharic. The study also explores how mother tongue based multilingual education serves the interest of immigrant learners whose primary language is not Amharic. It analyses the possibility of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa to implement new policies that would introduce Afaan Oromoo or any other languages as LoLT in these selected schools in Addis Ababa.

To capture the policy, problems, and strategies of mother tongue based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) in Addis Ababa, this research has been designed as a case study. The author/researcher used the “mixed research designs”, or rather the quan-qual approach with four different measuring instruments for data collection, namely semi-structured interviews; questionnaires; classroom observations and focus-group discussions. Data collected from administrators at education administration offices, learners, teachers, and parents of learners at the Marie and Cheffie primary schools were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively to answer the research questions.

Major findings from this study reveal that using Amharic as the only LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa prevents learners who speak languages other than Amharic from developing psychologically, socially, and cognitively. Emerging from the study is that current teaching strategies used in multilingual classes in Addis Ababa do not facilitate the learning of Amharic and its use as a LoLT at the same time. The research moreover indicates that the government needs to develop and deploy strategies for training present and incoming teachers on how to teach and manage multilingual classes. By focusing on practices in Addis Ababa, this study further contributes to the area of inclusive education by identifying the gap in the manner in which MTB-MLE has been implemented in Ethiopia.

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DEDICATION

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ACRONYMS

ANC	African National Congress
APA	Agence de Presse Africaine
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CIFT	Centre for Innovation in Research and Teaching
CLC	Common Language of Communication
CtC	Child to child readiness
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
EECMY	Ethiopian Evangelical Church Mekane Yesus
EOC	Ethiopian Orthodox Church
EFA	Education for All
ESL	English Second Language
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FL	Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
LEP	Limited in English Proficiency
LLP	Language Planning and Policy (model)
LWC	Language of Wider Communication

IDEA	International Dialogue on Education for All
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOI	Medium of Instruction
MT	Mother Tongue
MTE	Mother Tongue Education
MTB-MLE	Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education
PRAESA	Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa
PIRLS	Progress and International Reading and Literacy Strategy
PPDS	Primary Professional Development Service
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SD	Standard Deviation
SNNPR	Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region
SUP	Separate Underlying Proficiency
TBE	Transitional Bilingual Education
TTI	Teachers Training Institute
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER 1

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study emerged from the interest in children who speak only Afaan Oromoo, and who have migrated from Oromia with their families to settle in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia's capital city. At the beginning of this research in 2015, there were no schools which offered Afaan Oromoo as LoLT (Language of Learning and Teaching) in Addis Ababa. At the time, only Amharic was used as LoLT in all primary schools in Addis Ababa. Learners who could only speak Afaan Oromoo had no choice but to acquire Amharic and also use it as LoLT during their primary education. Moreover, they would not be able to use their mother tongue as a cognitive resource. When the language used for learning is not the language a child uses at home, it becomes an obstacle to learning (Benson 2009; Brock-Utne 2010; Heugh & Skutnabb-Kangas 2010; Mohanty 2009; Nomlomo 2009; Skutnabb-Kangas 2000). This barrier becomes even more difficult when teachers do not get adequate training for different teaching strategies and methods on how to manage and teach multilingual classes.

This chapter contextualises the research, presents the background to the study; the statement of the research problem; the aims and objectives of the study; the research questions; the rationale for carrying out the research; definitions of key terms; ethical procedures and an outline of the structure of the study.

1.2 Contextualisation of the research

The Ethiopian language-in-education policy calls for L1-based teaching and learning for eight years of primary schooling, whereas the national language Amharic (L2) and the international language English (L3) are taught as subjects. To a great extent, this policy represents a theoretically sound approach to language and learning because it builds on the learner's

strongest language for initial literacy (Heugh et al 2010:118). The Ethiopian language-in-education policy is unprecedented in Africa, its wide scope of application and its effective implementation on a regional level makes it one of the best as far as MTE in Africa is concerned. Still, it has been very difficult and challenging to cater for all the language groups in the capital city Addis Ababa. This exemplary model of MTE becomes paradoxical in the case of some immigrant children in Addis Ababa. The focus of this thesis is specifically on children from the Oromia Regional State who speak only Afaan Oromo but are going through their primary studies in selected schools in Addis Ababa.

In 2015/2016 when data for this study was being collected, there were no primary schools in Addis Ababa that used Afaan Oromo as LoLT; but in June 2017, Afaan Oromo was officially declared the second LoLT in Addis Ababa. Pursuant to this declaration, 4 schools that use Afaan Oromo as LoLT were immediately opened along the borders of Addis Ababa and Oromia. Later, in September 2018, 18 more schools were opened in different districts in Addis Ababa to serve the same purpose (see 2.7).

This study focuses on selected primary schools in Addis Ababa which did not in 2015/2016 and still do not, use Afaan Oromo as LoLT. These schools have a considerable number of learners (see 5.3) who have migrated from Oromia and who speak only Afaan Oromo.

1.3 Background to the study

It is important for every child to have access to quality education in order to uphold the cultural values and literature of that society. Language serves as an instrument for economic, social, scientific and political development in every nation. Children also develop cognitively, build their self-confidence and do have a sense of belonging to a society when they speak and understand the LoLT in the classroom (Orman, 2008:116). Moreover, it could be used as an instrument and a symbol of power to dominate others

(Pattanayak, 2001:567; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2001:571; Phillipson, 1988:339).

Language in education encourages oral literature, strengthens social norms and promotes a people's culture. Indeed, language is the medium par excellence for handing down culture to a new generation. In this connection, Mackey (1984:37) states:

Parents have expressed a desire for cultural continuity in the learning of the oral and written storehouses of local lore, the traditional customs and literature of their people, for the rights of families to hand down to their children their own cultural heritage and above all, their language.

Therefore, in order to ensure quality education, the LoLT should be familiar to both teachers and learners.

To preserve culture, wisdom and literature, every part of society needs access to quality education. Studies suggest that children who learn in their first or primary language (usually their mother tongue) are more competent in class and educationally successful than those who learn in an unfamiliar language. Rubagumya (2009: 48-53) suggests that children who learn in their primary language perform better than those who do so in an unfamiliar language. Moreover, proficiency in the mother tongue facilitates learning another language. These children, according to Rubagumya (2009), stand a better chance of learning a second language and connecting their knowledge from school to the experience they have at home and in the community. This would imply that through mother tongue education (MTE) learners can build self-confidence and self-realization. From a psychological and pedagogical point of view, MTE encourages children to build experiences about their culture and society.

Much of the current debate about linguistic human rights is concerned with and revolves around the issue of MTE. This debate is not new. It dates at least as far back as the UNESCO Report of 1953, which highlighted the advantages of MTE (UNESCO, 1953, but see also Cummins, 2001; Bialystok, 2001; Benson, 2002; Hovens, 2002; Kosonen, 2005; King &

Mackey, 2007; Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh, 2007, Heugh, 2009, Alexander, 2009, Heugh, 2010). Although research has it that children who learn in their primary language in the early years of school have significantly better literacy levels, designing language-in-education policies that will reflect these findings remain a challenge in Africa. Children, whose language of instruction is not their home language or mother tongue, are deterred from using their natural creativity, skills and knowledge, because the language that they use in learning does not reflect their immediate environment at home. As a result, their social and cognitive development, which enables them to learn in school is also affected as they struggle to learn the new language and at the same time use it as LoLT.

Except for a short-lived Italian occupation (1936-1941), Ethiopia was never colonised by any European country but there are scholars who view the dictatorial reign of Emperor Haile Selasie from 1941-1974 (see 2.4.1.2) as a period of colonization (Phillipson, 2003:145). The ideology of colonial language policies implicitly influenced Ethiopian education systems for a good number of years. For example, from 1941 to 1991 English played a dominant role in Ethiopian education systems. The language was used as a medium of instruction from upper primary schools and thereafter. It was taught as a subject from Grade three right up to Grade seven. Besides English, Amharic was the national language taught as a subject across the country and also used as a medium of instruction from first to sixth grade until the downfall of the military regime in Ethiopia in 1991.

In general, on the one hand, the language policies of Emperor Haile Selasie and Mengistu Haile mariam of Ethiopia focused on a language-in-education policy that excluded the use of other Ethiopian languages in education and the public sector. Instead, on the other hand, both regimes favoured the development of Amharic as the sole national language in the country (see 2.4.1 for a sociolinguistic overview of the language-in-education policy of Ethiopia). The teaching of Afaan Oromoo, which has the largest number of mother tongue speakers in Ethiopia, was discouraged. However, with the

downfall of the Dergue regime in 1991, the new language policy in 1994 called for the implementation of mother tongue based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) in Ethiopia. The past 20 plus years have seen interesting developments in Ethiopia. The MTB-MLE policy was received enthusiastically by the previously marginalised linguistic groups as a positive and promising development. As a result, Afaan Oromoo, spoken by 34.4 % of the population in Ethiopia (see the Federal Democratic Republic Government of Ethiopia/FDRGE/, the Population and Housing Consensus of 2007), became a LoLT in the Oromia Regional State.

The benefits of MTB-MLE policies have been demonstrated in many case studies with the basic assumption that it is the most effective way of guaranteeing children quality education and of achieving sustainable development. Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh (2007) examined case studies of MTB-MLE from India, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Morocco, Peru, the Navajo people in Arizona, and others. These studies all concur that whilst maintenance of linguistic diversity depends on a host of complex factors, maintaining this diversity has an important influence on the upward, social mobility of great sections of society where mother tongues have previously been undervalued. The process of introducing MTB-MLE is a complicated one and fraught with problems of a diverse nature. It has engaged scholars, pedagogues, language-policy experts, and government officials in an effort to solve some of the African continent's educational problems. The case studies reported on in Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh (2007) describe many of the models of language education currently in place in African countries. In Ethiopia in particular, the multilingual approach of its educational policy and its benefits are highlighted in this report.

However, neither in this study nor in other studies on Ethiopia's educational language policy (see Section 6 for more detail) does the plight of migrant children in selected schools in Addis Ababa receive scholarly attention. This study attempts to contribute to the current body of research by investigating a particular community of migrants in Addis Ababa, namely the Afaan

Oromoo speaking children in selected schools in the Bole sub-city (Ayart district) where only Amharic is still being used as LoLT. The study brings to light the challenges these children are facing and which strategies may be employed to address their problems.

1.4 Statement of the research problem

Language-in-education practices still constitute some of the most detrimental factors contributing to present-day educational predicaments in most African countries (Wiley 2006, Wolff 2003, Kamanda 2002). Africa is still facing challenges of inequality linked to issues such as race, class, language, religion, and gender. Many schools have learners from a variety of cultural, racial, religious, and socio-economic backgrounds, who often speak different home languages and who may have special educational needs. The tension between language policy and planning, between the need for MTE on the one hand and participation in global discourses on the other, has dominated more than two decades of debate regarding MTE language policy in Ethiopia (see for example Heugh, 2009; Heugh, 2010).

The Constitution of Ethiopia 1995 stipulates in Article 5 that:

- (1) all Ethiopian languages shall enjoy equal state recognition;
- (2) Amharic shall be the working language of the Federal Government;
and
- (3) members of the Federation may by law determine their respective working languages (the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic Government of Ethiopia/FDRGE/1994).

The Constitution recognises the use of nationals' languages in the main domains. Each ethnic group was granted the right to use their languages in the development of their cultures, literature, and historical heritage. All nationals are given self-determination, and the right of self-rule as enshrined in Article 39 of the Ethiopian Constitution. The Constitution states in article 39(2) that "Every nation, nationality and people of Ethiopia has the right to speak, to write and to develop its own language; to express, to develop and

to promote its culture; and to keep its history" (Federal Negarit Gazeta, 1995: 5). The Constitution thus guarantees everyone in the country the freedom to use and develop his or her language, culture, wisdom, and history. Some of the previously stigmatised local languages of different ethnic groups gained opportunities to be used as LoLT in primary schools. This means the Constitution lays a foundation for the use of all local languages in MTE, thereby promoting an inclusive or additive approach to education.

Nowadays, the language-in-education policy in Ethiopia is based on a presumed distribution of languages in the various locales of the country, but it does not take into consideration the question of migrant children in selected schools in Addis Ababa. The presence of too many languages makes the effective implementation of the policy challenging in Ethiopia, and particularly in Addis Ababa. According to Bloor & Tamrat (1996), pluralism presents massive difficulties for policy makers and raises many questions to which there are no easy answers. Afaan Oromoo is a case in point. It is the language of the majority ethnic group in Ethiopia (the Oromo).

Out of the more than 80 different languages spoken in Ethiopia, 34.4% of the population speaks Afaan Oromoo. Afaan Oromoo is used as a LoLT only in the Oromia region, a neighbouring region to Addis Ababa. Amharic, which is the common language of communication in Ethiopia, is the language of the Amhara ethnic group, and is spoken by 28% of the total population of Ethiopia; but it is spoken by a majority of the people living in Addis Ababa. Up till June 2017, it had been the only language used in Addis Ababa as a LoLT from Grades 1-8. Given the fact that a majority of the total population (34.4%) speaks Afaan Oromoo, even though some schools have been opened in Addis Ababa which use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT, the language problem still affects some Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in selected primary schools in Addis Ababa.

From a socio- and psycholinguistic point of view, the migration of families from one village to another or from one town to another can interfere with

the natural development of a child's primary language (Kamanda, 2002). It was necessary at the time in 2015, when there were no schools using Afaan Oromoo as LoLT to investigate the challenges faced by children who speak only Afaan Oromoo but are pursuing their primary studies in Addis Ababa. These learners face the dual responsibility of acquiring Amharic, and using it as a LoLT, implying that they cannot use their mother tongue as a cognitive resource. In June 2017, Afaan Oromoo was declared the LoLT2 in Addis Ababa (see 2.7). As was made clear above, this study therefore focuses on some primary schools in Addis Ababa which still do not use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT.

1.5 Aims and objectives

This study focuses on the link between diversity, classroom practice, and implementing the language-in-education policy and planning in the vast swarthes of Ethiopia.

A first aim of this study is to find out which challenges are faced by immigrant children from the Oromia region who speak only Afaan Oromoo, but are studying in Amharic in selected schools in Bole sub-city (Ayart district) in Addis Ababa.

Second, this study aims to investigate which teaching strategies teachers of multilingual classrooms in some schools at the borders of Addis Ababa use to manage children who speak only Amharic, and children who speak languages other than Amharic and are studying in the same class -- given the fact that Amharic is the only LoLT in some schools in Addis Ababa.

The third aim is to investigate the possibility and feasibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo as a LoLT from Grades 1-8 in the primary schools selected as the research site for this study in Addis Ababa. In so doing, the researcher hopes to contribute to a better understanding of the challenges of immigrant learners, and the need for an even more effective implementation of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa.

1.6 Research questions

Flowing from sections 1.3 and 1.4, the following research questions arose:

1. What are the challenges faced by immigrant children from the Oromia region studying in selected schools in the Bole sub-city (Ayart district) in Addis Ababa?
2. How does the current mother tongue education policy in Addis Ababa serve the interests of children whose primary language is not Amharic?
3. What are the teaching strategies employed by teachers of multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa?
4. What are the feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other languages as LoLT in some primary schools in Addis Ababa?

1.7 Rationale

The rationale of this study is the difficulties faced by immigrant learners in the primary schools selected as research sites for this study in Addis Ababa who speak languages other than Amharic but must use the latter as a LoLT. Coming from a different cultural background and speaking an L1 that is not the LoLT, some learners who have migrated from Oromia Regional State and are being taught through primary studies in Addis Ababa, are being denied the privilege of using their L1 in the learning process. So far, research in Ethiopia has been on MTE, language-in-education policies and the different implementation problems of MTB-MLE in different regions (see Chapter 2 (2.7.3.4)). What has been conspicuously absent in most of the research carried out in Ethiopia, is research on immigrant learners from all other regions doing their primary studies in Addis Ababa. This study, therefore, places emphasis on acknowledging and respecting diversity in a multilingual context such as Ethiopia, where all children have the right to learn in their mother tongues as stipulated in the Constitution of 1995 (see Section 2.7.3.2).

Through the lens of an inclusive education as reflected in the Constitution, this study examines the challenges faced by learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo but use Amharic as a LoLT in selected primary schools in Addis Ababa. Education for all (EFA, 2009) is increasingly concerned with linking inclusive education with quality education, which is the cognitive development of the learner on the one hand, and the role of education in promoting values and attitudes of responsible citizenship on the other. The rationale behind this study is therefore to investigate if learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools receive quality education in Addis Ababa. In this regard, the researcher wants to establish whether the politics of recognition in a multilingual context where the rights of minority-language speakers (some Afaan Oromoo speaking learners) are ignored in the process of policy implementation, is brought to light.

1.8 Definitions of key terms used in this study

Additive language learning. A new language is learned *in addition* to the mother tongue, which continues to be developed. According to Baker (2001:198), the learner's total linguistic repertoire is extended.

Afaan Oromoo. Refers to the language spoken by the Oromo people. According to the Oromo legend, Afaan refers to a language, whereas Oromo refers to the man who gave birth to Oromo. In this context, according to Oromo culture, Afaan Oromoo is the language spoken by the Oromo.

Challenges. Within this context, challenges refer to the difficulties/problems that hinder the effective use of Amharic as the LoLT in the classroom.

Code switching. It refers to the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode. In this context, code switching is used mainly for the facilitation of learning in the classroom.

Dominant language. This may refer to a language that is the dominant language used as an official, national or international language (s) in a

multilingual society. It is the language(s) mostly used in all spheres of a nation (Ball, 2010:7).

Language. The system of sounds, words, signs, grammar, and rules for:

- (1) communication in a given speech community for spoken, written, or signed interaction
- (2) storing, acting out, and developing cultural knowledge and values; and
- (3) displaying, analysing, structuring, and creating the world and personal and social identity (Skutnab-Kangas & McCathy 2008:5). Theoretically, language according to Skutnabb-Kangas and McCathy, can also be seen as existing only in practice when being used, created, and enacted.

Language of learning and teaching. This refers to the language(s) used for teaching the basic curriculum curricula of the educational systems. It can be children's first or second languages, or both languages that are used to teach the school subjects in the educational systems of a country. It can also be a foreign language used as a medium of teaching in school (Alidor, 2004:196).

Language planning. This is a socio-cultural process undertaken by an authorising body. It could be a government, schools, communities and/or families who promote language change (Webb, 2009:193).

Language policy. Language policy according to Tollefson, (2002:10) "is a socio-cultural process that includes official acts and documents as well as everyday language practices that express normative claims about legitimate and illegitimate language forms and uses, and have implications for status, rights, roles, functions, and access to languages and varieties within a given policy, organisation, or institution." Language policy can also be the study of how decisions about language are formulated and implemented. It is often considered to be a subset of language planning.

Minority language. Ball (2010:8) defines minority language as ‘language that is not the dominant language of a territorial unit such as a state, because the speakers of the language have less power’ (they have been minoritised), and the language is generally spoken by whatever size of the population. Power relations not numbers constitute the defining characteristic of “minority” language.

Mother tongue. Refers to a language that a child acquires first from his or her parents, siblings or caretakers at home. A child normally attains his/her highest proficiency in the first or primary language. However, mother tongue can have various meanings in different contexts, depending on its functions in the socio-political and historical context of a country. It can be interpreted as the language of primary socialisation in which a child has developed from early childhood. Wolfgang and Piet-Hein van (2007:15-17) point out that the concept ‘mother tongue’ refers to a cultural-political approach. In this interpretation, it is closely related to the formation of regional or national identity. The authors further explain that other interpretations of mother tongue refer to it as an educational concept that intertwines the knowledge of the “real” world in a social construction and language use. It is also ‘the symbolic representation of societal knowledge, culture, values and norms’ (Wolfgang & Piet-Hein van 2007). In this study, however, the concept “mother tongue” refers to a language in which a child can easily understand his or her learning material in an educational setup. It is a child’s first language in which s/he is able to develop his/her linguistic competence and acquire the social norms of the community. With the help of these social norms and language competences, school children can easily deal with concepts and knowledge embedded in the school curriculum.

Mother tongue education. It refers to the use of a child’s first language (primary language) for teaching and learning of the school curricula. It is educational systems in which all or some school curricula are taught and learnt by using one’s mother tongue or first language in or outside the school.

Multilingual education. It refers to the use of many languages in education in multilingual societies. According to Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh (2007:23), multilingual programmes aim at developing communicative proficiency in more than two languages. This means that the need for an individual to become more competent in languages other than one's own language will be promoted by multilingual education. In a multilingual society, the society/a person can be competent in three or more languages.

Mother tongue based multilingual education. A system of multilingual education which begins with or is based on learners' first language or mother tongue.

Primary language. It refers to a language that a child speaks and understands best. This could mean that it is the language that a child first acquires from parents or family members. Primary language can be one's mother tongue, or is identified as a native speaker by others (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988:16; Ball, 2010:8).

Subtractive language learning. Baker (2001:198) defines subtractive language learning as anew, dominant/majority language that is learnt at the cost of the mother tongue or primary language, which is replaced or displaced. The learner's total linguistic repertoire does not grow.

1.9 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters.

- 1) Chapter 1 is the introduction to the study.
- 2) Chapter 2 outlines the historical and socio-political background to the language-in-education policy of Ethiopia.
- 3) Chapter 3 is a review of related literature.
- 4) Chapter 4 presents the methodology used for this study.
- 5) Chapter 5 presents the data collected for this study.
- 6) Chapter 6 contains the data analysis and interpretations.

- 7) Chapter 7, which is the final chapter of the study, focuses on the findings and recommendations of the study.

Chapter One introduces the study with background knowledge on the importance of language of instruction and MTB-MLE. The statement of the research problem and the aims and objectives of the study are also discussed. The research questions, which form the basis for this study, are outlined with a clear justification of why this study needed to be done. Definitions of key terms used, the ethical procedures and, finally, a structure outline of the study are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter Two presents a brief history of Ethiopia with a focus on the socio-political background to the language-in-education policy. This chapter looks at the multilingual language-in-education policy from 1994 and brings out the implementation strategies and problems it has faced since then. The educational structure and curriculum used in primary schools in Ethiopia is also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Three is the review of the related literature consulted for this study. It looks at MTE and the importance of language in cognitive development. The role of language policy and planning in the effective implementation of educational policies is captured from a global, regional and country specific point of view. Theoretical and conceptual frameworks that lead to the analysis and interpretation of this study are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Four consists of the methodology used for this study. It discusses the basic design, the research design, and the different methods used in collecting data for this study. This chapter states the limitations of the study, and the procedures for ethical considerations for the study. Finally, the reliability and validity checks that ensure that the outcomes of this study are valid and reliable, have also been presented.

Chapter Five thematically presents data collected qualitatively by means of interviews with administrators during focus-group discussions. Data collected quantitatively by means of teacher questionnaires and learner

interviews have been represented by means of graphs and tables in this chapter.

Chapter six, which can be considered the most important chapter of this research, analyses and interprets the data presented in Chapter Four. Reference is made to the vast literature, theoretical, and conceptual frameworks that form the basis for this study, facilitated the analysis and interpretation of relevant themes and questions that emerged from the qualitative and quantitative data collected.

Chapter Seven presents the findings and recommendations of the study. It also offers a conclusion to the study; revisits the limitations of the study; and outlines the implications of the study for further research.

1.10 Procedures and ethical considerations

To ensure that the correct procedure for this research was carried out, the researcher observed all the ethical considerations as requested by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Pretoria, South Africa. Ethical clearance was obtained. The purpose of the study was communicated to the participants before the research could proceed. At the beginning of the study, the researcher made sure that all participants signed consent forms before participating in the study. Parents were requested to sign consent forms on behalf of their children, indicating their permission for the learners to take part in the interviews. Learners were also given the choice to withdraw from participation even if their parents had signed consent forms on their behalf.

In addition, all the information obtained was regarded as confidential. To ensure confidentiality, the names of participants have not been used. Finally, permission was granted for the study to be carried out by the Research Committee of the Department of Humanities at the University of Pretoria.

CHAPTER 2

THE HISTORICAL AND SOCIO-POLITICAL BACKGROUND TO THE LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY IN ETHIOPIA

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contextualises the situation regarding the language-in-education policy in Ethiopia. It presents a brief history of the country with a focus on the historical and socio political aspects which have influenced the language-in-education policy from 1908 to 1994. Two major periods in the evolution of language-in-education policy in Ethiopia are discussed. The first period stretches from 1908 to 1991. During this period the Emperor and the military regime embraced the western concept of ‘one nation, one language’ by promoting a monolingual system of education that benefitted only speakers of the dominant language (Amharic). The second period began in 1994 with the declaration of the 1994 constitution, signifying the beginning of a new era for Ethiopia. The country was transformed from a single-party military political system to a self-proclaimed multi-party, multi-ethnic one, from a centrally controlled administrative system to a decentralised one, and from a monolingual mono-cultural education system to a multilingual, multicultural nation (Heugh et al, 2007:44).

This chapter further discusses the language-in-education policy implementation strategies and challenges faced since 1994. Before going into the historical background of Ethiopia, it is vital to present information about the Afaan Oromoo language, specifically looking at its origin and importance.

The Federal Republic of Ethiopia is situated in the Horn of Africa covering an area of 1,127,127 square km. It is surrounded by Sudan to the west, Eritrea to the north, Djibouti to the east, Somalia to the south east and Kenya to the south. Ethiopia has a total land area of about 1.1million square km. It has an estimated population of about 107.53 million people; the majority of whom practise subsistence farming. It is the 14th most populous country in

the world and the second most populous country in Africa after Nigeria (World Population Review, 2018). Ethiopia is divided into nine regional states: Afar, Amhara, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambella, Harai, Oromia, Somali, Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region (SNNPR) and Tigray (Ministry of Education, 2015).

Map 2.1 Map of Ethiopia showing the different constituents/administrative regions.



Source: Sibilu 2015

2.2 Afaan Oromoo language

The word 'Afaan' means 'language', while 'Oromoo' refers to the man who first owned the language. The Oromo people call their language Afaan Oromoo and call themselves 'Ilmaan Oromoo' which means 'sons of Oromo'. Afaan Oromo belongs to the Cushitic language family. Within the Cushitic family, it is grouped under Eastern Cushitic, a family that consists of more than 70 languages (Ali & Zaborski: 1990:97). This language is spoken over a vast area both in Ethiopia and in Kenya as well as in some parts of Somalia. Regarding the number of speakers and the area it covers, Afaan Oromoo is the fourth largest language after Arabic, Hausa and Swahili in Africa (Ali & Zaborski, 1990: 9).

The military government had declined the use of Latin scripts for writing Afaan Oromoo upon the petitions forwarded by Oromoo elders in the mid 1970s. Consequently, adult literacy materials had to be written in Sabean (Amharic) script. According to the Wikimedia Foundation Report of May 2014, the development of written Afaan Oromoo was hampered by the Ethiopian Empire's "Amharization" policy which began in 1942 and continued until 1991 (see 2.4.1.2). This suite of policies made it difficult for any language other than Amharic to be used in schools, printed, or broadcast. Secondly, there were no sufficiently trained teachers to handle the programme, and a lack of competent radio producers to reinforce the "new" languages. Trained teachers who could teach in Afaan Oromoo and manage adult schools, and competent journalists who could communicate in Afaan Oromoo over the radio and television, were not available.

Cooper (1976:67) observes that in the late 1970s, Afaan Oromoo writing was revived. The cause of this revival was associated with the formation of a Pan-Oromo self-help association. On the one hand, the overall objectives of this association were to mobilise the Oromo public for their own development in the areas of education, and to ignore the neglect of their culture. When the association's development demands appeared slightly too challenging in the eyes of the late Emperor, the latter began to perceive it as a threat to his rule. On the other hand, concern for the status of Afaan Oromoo was highly emphasised by the association; it became a unifying and binding factor to the Oromo population. According to Hassen (1998:82), aside from the language, neither religion nor any other issue plays an equal role of unifying the Oromo population. As a result, Afaan Oromoo was instrumental for the then regionally divided, religiously diversified, and socially stratified Oromo in the Empire. After the fall of the military regime, the long-time clandestine Latin alphabet, also called 'Qubee Oromo', became an official writing script in 1991.

In his research on the influence of Evangelical Christianity on the development of Afaan Oromoo in Ethiopia, Sibilu (2015:115-116) gives a

historical analysis of the role of the Ethiopian Evangelical Church Mekane Yesus (EECMY) in the development of the Afaan Oromoo language. He points out that formal education and literacy during the last days of imperial rule was not well disseminated among the Oromoos, mainly because of the language used. It was essentially in the hands of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church (EOC) and, at that time, the EOC was working to establish and sustain the supremacy of Amharic over all other vernaculars of the country, following the policy of the government. Sibilu (*ibid*) maintains that the policy of the imperial regime at that time favoured education through Amharic only, even amongst children who did not speak or understand Amharic. The church was also obliged to teach in Amharic again even in areas where people spoke languages other than Amharic.

According to Bulcha (1997:336-338) cited in Sibilu (2015), “Amharic was the only language used from the very first day of schooling by the Oromo children.... the degrading approach of the teachers as well as the teasing of their Amharic speaking classmates frustrated Afaan Oromoo speaking learners and forced them to drop out from schools.” In the 1960s, it was reported that a whopping 83 per cent of the Oromo children who started school dropped out before they reached sixth grade.

The imposition of Amharic as the only medium of instruction that resulted in an increase in school dropouts also made it difficult for the non-speaking Amharic learners to acquire basic literacy. Cooper (1989:23), cited in Sibilu (2015), also reports that besides the fact that Amharic was the only LoLT all over the country, even in the areas where no one knew it, prior knowledge of how to read and write in Amharic owing to exposure at the EOC traditional schools, was being required for admission to the modern public schools. This also hindered the Oromo children as well as all other non-Amharic children from joining formal schools. The arrival of EECMG missionaries in Ethiopia and the building of new churches and schools where different mother tongues were used as LoLT influenced the use of Afaan Oromoo in literature.

After 1991 and the overthrow of the Dergue, the military regime that was in power at the time (see 2.4.1.3), an alphabet using Latin characters known as “qubee” was officially adopted for written Afaan Oromoo. Soon after, Oromoo became the medium of instruction in elementary schools throughout Oromia in print and broadcast media. The adoption of a single writing system allowed a certain amount of standardisation of the language, and more texts were written in Afaan Oromoo between 1991 and 1997 than had been the case in the previous 100 years (Dereje 2010:97). Today, Afaan (Oromoo language) is one of the mediums of instructions in primary education in Ethiopia that serves the largest ethnic group, with 34% of the country’s population (Population and Housing Census 2007). It is also being offered as a field of study at the Addis Ababa University and some other regional universities to the level of a master’s degree (Dereje 2010, *ibid*).

2.3 Historical background of Ethiopia

2.3.1 Abyssinia

The history of Ethiopia began in the northern part of present day Ethiopia with the establishment of the Axumite Kingdom in Axum (present day Tigray Region) around 1270 (Barnes & van Aswegen 2008:432). The Axumite Kingdom was made up of people who had migrated from south-western Arabia and the Habeshat (the people of the Tigray Region in the north). This became the Ethiopian Empire or Abyssinia ('Al-Habash' in Arabic). Geographically, the Ethiopian Empire included the current state of Eritrea and only the North Region of present day Ethiopia. Bender et al (1976:8) contend that the name, Abyssinia, was used interchangeably with Ethiopia. The present day southern, western and eastern parts were not parts of Abyssinia. Cooper (1989:21) reports that the Axumite Kingdom became very popular around the 10th century, at the time when Christianity was introduced to the area. Various kings at different times sought to ‘unite’ different people under their rule to create the present day Ethiopia. According to Van Aswegen (2008:11), these unifying and modernising

efforts made by the kings to change the country usually arose from external pressure and the need to create a good image internationally.

In 1935 Italy invaded Ethiopia and all attempts by the League of Nations to stop the conquest failed and the emperor at that time, Emperor Haile Selassie was forced to flee and take refuge in England (Mekuria, 1994:99). In May 1936, Mussolini proclaimed Italy's King Victor Emmanuel III emperor of Ethiopia and he ruled from 1936 to 1941. Haile Selassie was later restored to the throne by British and Ethiopian forces in 1941. According to the terms of the Allied peace treaty with Italy, signed in 1947, an agreement was to be reached within a year on the disposition of the former Italian colonies of Eritrea, Italian Somaliland, and Libya. In the absence of such an agreement, however, the decision was left to the United Nations (UN). The General Assembly of the UN voted for the federation of Eritrea with Ethiopia, to be completed by September 1952.

Markakis (2006: 193-195) observes that in December 1960 insufficient powers given to the parliament led to dissatisfaction amongst the members of the imperial guard. This led to an attempt to overthrow Haile Selassie which did not succeed. The emperor, however, increased government's efforts towards economic development and social reforms in the country during this period. In 1963, Haile Selassie played a leading role in the formation of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) with its secretariat in Addis Ababa. In the early 1970s, he continued to play a major role in international affairs. He mediated disputes between Senegal and Guinea, Tanzania and Uganda, and northern and southern Sudan. (Markakis 2006, *ibid*). Nevertheless, he largely ignored urgent domestic problems that concerned inequality in the distribution of wealth, rural underdevelopment and corruption in government. There was inflation, increased unemployment and severe drought in the north from 1972 to 1975.

2.3.2 End of Abyssinia/ the Ethiopian Empire

In February 1974, students, workers, and soldiers began a series of strikes and demonstrations that culminated on September 12, 1974, with the overthrow of Haile Selassie by members of the armed forces (Cooper, 1989: 21). Chief among the coup leaders was Major Mengistu Haile Mariam. A group called the Provisional Military Administrative Council or Provisional Military Government of Socialist Ethiopia, known as the Dergue, was established to run the country, with Mengistu serving as the chairperson. In March 1975, the monarchy was abolished, and Ethiopia became a republic (Cooper, 1989 *ibid*).

According to Sibilu (2015:16), the overthrow of the monarchy and the creation of the republic ushered in a new era of political openness. Ethnic groups like the Oromos, Afars, Somalis, and Eritreans, stepped up their demands for recognition. Most of them questioned the legitimacy of the Ethiopian state and created guerrilla forces to fight for their independence. The liberalisation of politics led to the creation of different political groups with different views of how a new Ethiopia should function.

In 1987, a new constitution was proclaimed and the People's Democratic Republic of Ethiopia declared. The new constitution abolished the Dergue and established a new and popularly elected national assembly with Mengistu as president of Ethiopia. Prolonged drought had hit the country between 1984 and 1986 and plunged the country into famine. The protracted civil war and the government's mistrust of Westerners hampered worldwide efforts to provide food and medical aid to the inhabitants of Ethiopia. An estimated one million Ethiopians died from hardship and starvation during this period (Sibilu, *ibid*).

Eide (2000:105) observes that another civil war broke out in May 1991 between the opposition parties and the government. Mengistu was forced to flee from the country, and the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) took control of Addis Ababa. In June 1994, the

EPRDF, led by Meles Zenawi, set up a national transitional government in Addis Ababa; a new legislative body was put in place and the country was renamed the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. In the month of August, Zenawi was elected the country's first prime minister. He was re-elected in October 2000.

2.4 Sociolinguistic Overview

Ethiopia is a multilingual country comprising over 80 ethnic groups with distinct language varieties and cultural features. The 'working language' of the government, also known as the national language, is Amharic, which is spoken by approximately 28% of the population. English is the most widely spoken foreign language at an estimated 169,726 or 0.3% of the population according to the 1994 census (Wagaw, 1999 cited in Heugh et al 2007:40). There are 10 major ethnic groups (and languages) which have more than a million speakers as presented on Table 2.1. Four major ethnolinguistic groups - Oromo, Amhara, Tigray and Somali – make up approximately 75% of the population. Developing a MLE policy for the country has been a long and difficult road for language policy makers in Ethiopia. From the days of the emperor (1908) when the concept of 'one language-one nation' was aimed at producing a united country to a multilingual, multi-ethnic and multi-cultural nation in 1994.

Table 2.1 Distribution of the population of major ethnic groups of Ethiopia

No.	Ethnic group	Number	Percent
1	Oromo	25,488,344	34.5
2	Amhara	19,867,817	30.1
3	Somali	4,581,793	6.2
4	Tigre	4,483,776	6.1
5	Sidama	2,966,377	4.0
6	Gurage	1,867,350	2.5
7	Welaita	1,707,074	2.3
8	Hadiya	1,284,366	1.7
9	Afar	1,276,372	1.7
10	Gamo	1,107,163	1.5

Source: Sibilu, 2015

2.4.1 Historical development of language-in-education in Ethiopia

Although an overt language policy in Ethiopia was not put in place by past governments, Amharic had been the medium of kings and members of the royal families. Gobana (2014: 31) points out that language in education policies used by the successive Ethiopian governments that ruled Ethiopia prior to 1991 were almost similar. They used and promoted a one language-in-education policy that was aimed at producing an Amharic speaking society (Getachew & Derib, 2006: 37-38).

2.4.1.1 Language-in-education policy before and during the Italian invasion (1908-1941)

In 1908, an elite school was opened in Addis Ababa to teach European languages such as English, French and Italian to men who could negotiate the interests of the country through international languages (Negash, 1990:6). All the Ethiopian Emperors, who ruled the country before the Italian invasion, were determined to unite the various Ethiopian linguistic groups under one national policy. As a result, they developed an implicit language-in-education policy that favoured only the dominant language, Amharic as the only national language. The use of other local languages in the main domains was discouraged. However, all the Ethiopian Emperors that had ruled the country before 1935 had not legally documented the language-in-education policy they used (Getachew and Derib, 2006: 42-43).

During the Italian occupation from 1935 to 1941, Ethiopian languages were introduced as LoLT in various parts of Ethiopia but the language policy was never fully implemented except in Eritrea (Heugh et al, 2007:43). In this regard, Cooper (1989:110) states, “The brief Italian occupation of Ethiopia, for example, saw the only period in which vernacular languages were used as a medium of instruction in Ethiopian schools.” Nevertheless, after the end of the Italian occupation, Emperor Haile Selassie banned the use of various local languages in education when he came back from exile in 1941.

2.4.1.2 Language-in-education policy of Emperor Haile Selassie (1941- 1974)

After the defeat of the Italian forces in 1941, Emperor Selassie regained power and reversed the language-in-education policy. Heugh, et al (2007: 49) point out that the Ethiopian language policy adopted during the Emperor's rule focused on the issues that favoured the use of a monolingual policy in education. According to Heugh et al (*ibid*), Amharic was again proclaimed the only national language and used as a LoLT from Grades 1-6 in order to unite the country. McNab (1989:39) contends that after the change of curriculum in the early 1960s, Amharic became the medium of instruction throughout the elementary school. He further stresses that:

... since then, Amharic not only became the means of accessing political and educational opportunities in Ethiopia, but also became obligatory along with English as a gatekeeper for certificates of examinations and entry into the country's only university; Addis Ababa University, regardless of the majority of non-Amharic speaking students (McNab, 1989:39).

Cohen (2006) characterises the Ethiopian language-in-education policy of the Selassie years as a total immersion where non-Amharic speaking children were made to learn in Amharic from their first day of school. Missionaries were allowed to use other languages for ordinary contacts only with the local population (Negarit Gazeta, 1995). Emperor Haile Selassie promoted the learning of English in Ethiopia. In 1958, English regained its position as LoLT (Roseman, 2018:32). Children of the marginalised groups, who had the opportunity to attend school, were pedagogically and psychologically disadvantaged since they were made to learn through unfamiliar languages. In this regard, Seyoum (1997: 2) argues that the exclusion of one's own language in education and the imposition of another language as a sole national language can be considered a "defecto declaration of a war on the others". The dominance of Amharic at this time was used as a means of blocking accessibility of other linguistic groups to economic and political power (Phillipson, 2003:145).

Emperor Haile Selassie was inspired by the modernity of the West and he needed to push Ethiopia towards modernisation. In this light, he developed the concept of “one nation, one people, one language” in order to create a homogeneous society. The imperial system of governance lasted until 1974 and was considered “the golden age of modern education in Ethiopia” (Negash, 2006:12). The regime systematically applied assimilation policies in which other indigenous cultures and languages were assimilated into the culture and the language of the dominant group (Amhara). Baheru (2002:140) in an official memo brings out the thoughts and convictions of administrators during Emperor Haile Selassie’s regime:

The strength of a country lies in its unity, and unity is born of [common] language, customs and religion. Thus, to safeguard the ancient sovereignty of Ethiopia and to reinforce its unity, our language and our religion should be proclaimed over the whole of Ethiopia. Otherwise, unity will never be attained... Amharic and Ge'ez should be decreed official languages for secular as well as religious affairs; all pagan languages should be banned.

In conclusion, the Emperor’s regime undermined and suppressed the diversified linguistic groups and cultures in Ethiopia in a bid to create and develop a modern and unified Ethiopia.

2.4.1.3 Language-in-education policy of the Dergue (1974-1991)

After the collapse of the Emperor Haile Selassie’s regime in 1974, the Military Junta also known as the ‘Dergue’ seized power and paid lip service to the idea of a change of ideology with regard to the language policy. In actual fact, the military regime systematically discouraged and weakened the use of local languages in education. It continued to uphold a monolingual language policy that benefited only speakers of the dominant group. Amharic was the LoLT from pre-school to Grade 6 and thereafter there was a switch to English as LoLT from Grade 8 to the university. During this time English was also taught as a subject from Grade 3 to Grade 6.

In spite of the fact that the regime recognised the use of local languages in education, they could only be used for literacy campaigns (McNab, 1989:65). The literacy campaign during the military regime in 15 different

ethnic languages had its limitations. There was no fundamental change, neither in the sociolinguistic landscape of the country, nor in the position of Amharic. To begin with, the languages had no developed literary tradition; most of the available materials were only in Amharic. McNab (1989 *ibid*) observed that the corpus available in Afaan Oromoo (mostly religious) was only available in Latin script. Although the Dergue acknowledged support for language and ethnic rights, language-in-education policies remained the same as in the previous government up till 1991 (Heugh et al. 2007, Heugh, 2010).

According to Gobana (2014:39), there was a dramatic volte-face by the military regime who had made many promises to the society that they did not keep; if anything, the status quo was preserved and everything remained the same as in the previous regime. The use of local languages in education, economy, judiciary and mass media was restricted. The use of Amharic was expanded mainly because of the annexation of the diverse multicultural and multilingual nations in the south and south west of the country (Cohen 2001, Smith 2003). Cohen (2001:88) characterises the period of military rule in Ethiopia as “veiled Amharization”. According to Cohen (2006 *ibid.*), during the seventeen years of military rule in Ethiopia, there were no marked changes in policy. Smith (2003) and Cohen (2007) note that whilst Amharic is the language of the Amhara ethnic group which is not even a numerical majority, it has enjoyed official state recognition for decades. Heath (1986) points out that for a language to evolve to such a status, there must be factors such as shifts of national boundaries, or political and religious conditions that have influenced its evolution. Amharic remained the only language in education until 1994.

Cohen, an assistant professor of ESL, Bilingual and Literacy Studies at the University of Loyola, Chicago, takes an interest in the research of minority language-speaking communities and literacy. Smith is an assistant professor in teacher leadership and advanced studies in teaching and learning at the University of Maryland. He takes an interest in eliminating

achievement gaps for learners in multilingual settings (Wikimedia Foundation 2012:3). According to these scholars, the military regime had given very limited rights to the marginalised people to use their languages in education. Children were denied the right to use their home languages in education. They were forced to learn in languages other than their mother tongue.

The military regime was toppled in 1991 and a transitional government, Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) led by Meles Zenawi came to power.

2.4.2 Multilingual language-in-education policy from 1994

In 1991, the transitional government that came to power signified the end of three decades of civil strife and internal war. The country was “transformed from a single party military based political system into a ‘multi-party and multi-ethnic political system” (Heugh et al, 2007:49). From 1991 to 1993, Ethiopia went through significant social and political changes. The EPRDF and opposition parties constituted the Transitional Government of Ethiopia and began to proclaim the right of every Ethiopian nationalist and the different regional states to use and develop their languages and cultures. In 1994, the transitional government became the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) and recognised all Ethiopian languages in the country. The Federal Constitution of 1994 promoted the development and use of the national languages and, as a result, a new educational policy advocated the use of national languages as mediums of instruction. An educational structure and a national curriculum framework was put in place to serve all the nine regions of the country (see sections 2.4 and 2.5).

The Constitution of 1994 declares that all Ethiopian languages shall enjoy equal state recognition and Amharic shall be the working language of the Federal government (FDRE Constitution 1995:78). According to the Education and Training Policy (ETP) 1994, the government takes cognisance of the pedagogical benefits for the child in learning in its mother

tongue, and the rights of nationals/Ethiopians to promote the use of their languages. Primary education will be taught in the different local languages. The language of teacher training for kindergarten and primary education will be the same language that is used/spoken in the area where the school is found.

Amharic shall be taught as a subject country wide as it is the language of common communication; English will be taught as a subject from Grade 1 and later in the education of the learner it will become the medium of instruction for secondary and high school. The language policy for most learners, therefore, is trilingual (multilingual), based on the mother tongue, Amharic as a national language, and English as an international language (ETP 1994:23).

Table 2.2 Language distribution according to the education and training policy

Language	Level of education	Function
L1: Mother tongues (nationality languages)	Primary (grades 1-8) only	Medium of instruction
L2: Amharic (country wide use in oral and written communication)	In practice from grades 3-5 through secondary (starting point not specified)	Subject
L3: English (foreign language)	From grade 1 through university	Subject in primary school. Medium of instruction from grade 9 upward (secondary and tertiary)

(Heugh et al. 2007)

Regarding the teaching of Amharic as a subject for speakers of all languages, irrespective of their own language, there has been a great consistency within the Ministry of Education (MoE) policy across the country. According to MoE, in Ethiopia all the regions should teach the national language as a subject. The policy does not specify the beginning level or grade for this language as a second language (Heugh et al. 2006:6). According to Berhanu (2009:9), following the introduction of the new ETP in 1994, English was taught as a subject in all regions without exception. Apart from this, regional governments had the liberty to implement their own

policies on the medium of instruction (MOI) in grades 1-8. Thus, in some regions local languages are used as MOI in grades 7 and 8, for example in Oromia, Somalia, and the Tigray regions. In other regions, such as Gambella and SNNPR, English is used in non-language subjects, and in yet others (in the Amhara region) English is used partially as MOI to teach Science and Mathematics. From grade 9 onward, however, English becomes the sole official MOI in all the regions. Transition to English as MOI starts at grades 5, 7 or 9, depending upon the region. Table 2.3 summarises the policy in each region, beginning with the reference point of the educational language policy of the MoE.

Table 2.3 Languages of instruction used in primary schools and in primary teacher training schools. By city administration or regional state.

Regional state	MOI at Primary I	MOI at Primary II		MOI TT for Primary I	MOI TT for Primary II
		(Grades 5-6)	(Grades 7-8)		
MoE POLICY	MOTHER TONGUE	MOTHER TONGUE		MOTHER TONGUE	MOTHER TONGUE
Addis Ababa (City admin)	Amharic	Amharic	English	All content subjects	English
Dire Dawa (City admin)	Amharic Af.Oromo Somali	Amharic Af.Oromo Somali	English	All subjects except Civics	Amharic
			Amharic Af.Oromo Somali	Civics	
AFAR	Amharic Afar (ABE)	Amharic	English	All content subjects	---
AMHARA	Amharic Awingi Hamittena	Amharic Awingi Hamittena	English	Sciences & Maths	Amharic Awingi (planned)
			Amharic Awingi Hamittena	All subjects except Sci/Maths	
	Af.Oromo	Af.Oromo	Af.Oromo	All content subjects	
BENISHANG UL GUMUZ	Amharic	Amharic	English	All content subjects	Amharic
GAMBELLA	Nuer Anguak Meshenger	English	English	All content subjects	Nuer Anguak Mesenger
HARARI	Harari Af.Oromo	Harari Af.Oromo	English	Sciences & Maths	Harari Af.Oromo Amharic

	Amharic	Amharic	Harari Af.Oromo Amharic	All subjects except Sci/ Maths		
OROMIYA	Af.Oromo Amharic	Af.Oromo Amharic	Af.Oromo Amharic	All content subjects	Af.Oromo Amharic	Af.Oromo Amharic
SNNPR	Amharic Dawro Gamo Gedeo Gofa Hadiya Kembata Kafinono Kontigna Korete Sidama Silti Wolaita	English	English	All content subjects	Amharic Dawro Gamo Gedeo Gofa Hadiya Kembata Kafinono Kontigna Korete Sidama Silti Wolaita	English
SOMALI	Somali	Somali	Somali	All content subjects	Somali Amharic	English
	Amharic	Amharic	English	Sciences & Maths		
			Amharic	All subjects except Sci/ Maths		
TIGRAY	Tigrinya	Tigrinya	Tigrinya	All content subjects	Tigrinya	English

(Source: Heugh et al., 2007).

It should be noted that the national policy is meant to guide the semi-autonomous regions in their decision-making processes regarding the LoLT. The decision to decentralise educational administration to the regional education bureaus came at the same time as the new policy; it is not possible for all regions to have the same rate or level of implementation. Different implementation strategies have so far been used across the country.

2.4.3 Language-in-education implementation strategies since 1994

The main concern of the MoE has been the realisation of a feasible language policy that would support the equitable delivery of quality education (Heugh et al. 2007:46). Still concerned with the delivery of quality education and with reducing gender disparities in enrolment and retention, the MoE engaged in ongoing monitoring and evaluation of the system, including system-wide assessments of Grade 8 students.

2.4.4 Child-to-Child readiness programme

The Child-to-Child school readiness programme (CtC) was initiated in 2008 by UNICEF in collaboration with the Child-to-Child Trust based in London to better prepare young children of ages 5-6 for primary school (Ethiopia, Education for all, 2015:19). The core of such initiative in Ethiopia is that older primary school children of grades 5-6 (young facilitators) are paired with children of age 5-6. The young facilitators are trained and guided by their teachers. Children are provided with a series of interactive learning games and activities with particular attention to the basic building blocks of early numeracy and literacy.

According to the ‘Education For All 2015’ policy on Ethiopia, the overall goal of the CtC initiative is to increase both the child’s readiness for school as well as the school’s readiness to receive and foster optimal learning environments for its youngest students. The CtC programme has motivated many kids to join and has encouraged the parents to send their kids to the

programme in areas where kindergartens are rarely opened. As a result of this programme, the pre-primary education participation in SNNPR has reached about 20%. Apart from its role in increasing the pre-primary education participation rate, this innovative approach is believed to enhance environmental awareness, communication skills, understanding of various issues, psychological development, and promote the readiness of children for the primary education.

In their research on multilingual education and sustainable diversity, Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh (2010) use the Ethiopian example to showcase many of the models of language in education in place in African countries presently. The approach to multilingual education in Ethiopia has become central to its educational policy as a whole as reflected in student achievement through each model. According to Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh (2010), Ethiopia offers an authentic “laboratory” case study of comparative bi/multilingual education at an international level. Table 2.4 below illustrates that student performance in mathematics and the sciences is far better for those using their mother tongues as LoLT than for those using English as the LoLT.

Table 2.4 Years 2000 and 2004 Grade 8 achievement scores by LoLT.

Year of assess	MOI	N	Mean & Std Dev	Englis h	Maths	Biolog y	Chem	Physic s
2000	MT	1570	MEAN	37.41	42.73	57.85	45.41	
			SD	13.8	16.6	13.7	16.1	
	EN	3529	MEAN	39.07	36.2	42.4	38.0	
			SD	13.70	15.1	16.4	15.2	
2004	MT	3744	MEAN	40.65	42.60	47.30	43.19	39.62
			SD	14.85	15.56	10.57	14.17	11.44
	EN	4265	MEAN	41.43	39.43	35.93	37.28	31.53
			SD	14.49	14.49	12.47	14.07	11.09

(Heugh et al. 2007)

Heugh et al. (2007) further point out that students who learn in their mother tongue can interact with their teachers, with one another, and with the curricular content in ways that promote effective and efficient learning. They

conclude that regions with stronger mother tongue schooling have higher student achievement levels at Grade 8 in all subjects, including English. See Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5 Year 2002 Grade 8 Achievement Scores by MOI and subject

MOI	Language type	No. tested	Mean & Std	English	Maths	Biology	Chemistry
Tigrinya	MT	392	MEAN SD	38.7 13.9	45.3 17.6	56.0 13.3	46.8 15.9
Amharic	MT	580	MEAN SD	34.6 11.8	43.5 16.1	61.2 12.6	45.2 15.9
Oromifa	MT	598	MEAN SD	39.3 15.7	40.3 16.0	55.8 15.4	44.7 16.6
English	FL	3529	MEAN SD	39.3 15.8	36.2 15.1	42.4 16.4	38.0 15.2

Table 2.6 reveals that students who have gone through MT medium primary education have higher mean achievement scores in Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry and Physics, whilst students who have gone through English medium schooling have the lowest mean achievement scores in these subjects. Looking at the 2004 assessment results for English achievement, students learning via Somali and Oromia actually outperformed those learning by means of English. These results conform to the demonstration of Thomas and Collier (2002) that states that a strong foundation in the mother tongue has positive results for overall achievement and for second language competence.

Table 2.6 Year 2004 Grade 8 achievement scores by MOI and subject

MOI & number (N) of students tested	Mean & Std Dev	English	Maths	Biology	Chemistry	Physics
Tigrinya 474,477,472,473,473	MEAN SD	39.06 15.58	44.40 16.54	49.08 11.68	42.98 14.94	39.48 12.57
Amharic 1023,1019,1016,1016,1026	MEAN SD	39.07 13.70	41.30 14.30	48.33 10.50	44.59 15.12	41.79 10.98
Oromifa 1948,1948,1947,1947,1944	MEAN SD	41.61 15.19	42.84 16.83	48.43 11.85	43.59 14.88	39.33 12.06
Somali 305,305,304,305,305	MEAN SD	42.40 14.52	42.63 14.52	36.26 8.23	37.55 11.72	34.53 10.14
English 4277,4270,4248,4254,4276	MEAN SD	39.43 16.14	35.93 12.47	35.93 12.47	37.28 17.7	31.53 11.09

(Heugh et al., 2007)

The findings reflected in Tables 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 reveal that the use of mother tongues as the LoLT for Mathematics and the sciences in upper primary education (Grades 7 and 8) has a positive impact on student achievement scores compared to when English is used as the LoLT (Heugh et al., 2007). The assumption, therefore, that English as the LoLT leads to better achievement in English and other subjects is not confirmed by assessment data. As many scholars have argued, the use of English as the LoLT in African linguistic settings where English is limited to school use does not facilitate the teaching and learning of either English or other subjects (Bamgbose 2005, Brock-Utne 2004, Phillipson 1992). What these researchers did not take into consideration is the plight of some immigrant children (in selected schools) who speak languages other than Amharic and are studying in Addis Ababa. These learners speak only Afaan Oromoo but are compelled to learn and at the same time to use Amharic as their LoLT.

Dereje (2010:153), in his study on the use of Afaan Oromoo as medium of instruction for eight years in primary schools in the Oromia Region, observed that the LoLT has positively influenced an increase in the number of schools, and a steady growth of learner enrolment in general. Dereje (2010 ibid.) observes that the use of the MT in education in Ethiopia has influenced the quality of learning positively, especially in the Oromia Region where Afaan Oromoo is used as the LoLT. Hence, all things being equal, it could be said that the implementation of Afaan Oromoo as the LoLT in Oromia has played a catalytic role in the dramatic growth of school enrolment rate in that region. This can also be attributed to the educational input (such as teachers, educational materials, schools) that had been there for years, and it was only the language factor that was then at odds. The moment the LoLT was switched, school programmes began to show a very high enrolment surge within a decade and a half.

It might have been difficult, if not impossible, to raise school enrolment to this level if matters were left to continue as before. Dereje (ibid.) concludes

that using Afaan Oromoo as a LoLT encouraged active learning in the Oromia Region; schools became child-friendly, and a democratic classroom atmosphere between teachers and students was being nurtured. He recommends further research to be carried out in Addis Ababa where Amharic is the only LoLT in some primary schools despite the presence of immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic. This study fulfils that aim.

Benson & Kosonen, in Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh (2010), analysed the theoretically-sound language-in-education policy in Ethiopia. They observed that the Ethiopian language-in-education policy called for L1-based teaching and learning during the entire eight years of primary schooling, whilst the national language (L2) and international language (L3), were to be taught as subjects. Benson & Kosonen believe that this policy to a great extent represents a theoretically-sound approach to language and learning because it builds on the learner's strongest language for initial literacy; development of reading and writing skills; and academic-content instruction.

Although the successes of the language-in-education policy are enormous, some children still do not benefit from the policy. For example, in Addis Ababa where Amharic is still the only LoLT in the majority of the schools, the result is that many immigrant children do not have instruction in their own mother tongues. Mindful of these learners, this study therefore attempts to investigate the challenges of learners in selected schools in the Bole sub-city (Ayart district) in Addis Ababa who speak only Afaan Oromoo whilst going through their primary studies.

2.4.5 Language-in-education policy problems

The Constitution of 1994 declares that every nation, nationality and people in Ethiopia have the right to speak, write, and develop its own language; to express, develop, promote its culture; and to preserve its history. This meant decentralising educational administration to the regional education bureau level, but policy did not, however, specify how many languages or in which

order they would enjoy priority in governmental support for development. In the absence of such specification, the presumption is that all the regional language bureaus would have the right to find the necessary resources.

The main difficulty from the teachers' point of view is the lack of access to technical and pedagogical vocabulary in the MT, including specialised terms for teaching subject content. For example, words like "photosynthesis" and "equation", and for giving classroom instructions words like "noun" and "phrase" do not have equivalents in the MT. Heugh et al. (2007:71) conclude that the use of English for teacher training negatively influences teachers' MT competences and makes them less likely to believe that the MT can be used in teaching.

Inadequate teaching and learning materials have also been a stumbling block to the smooth implementation of the language-in-education policy in Ethiopia. According to Roseman (2018:90), lack of laboratory supplies, insufficient textbooks, no visual aids, broken or non-existent computers have been the source of ineffective teaching in the classroom. Poor school facilities such as classrooms, desks, quality blackboards, poor lighting systems and the absence of portable drinking water has impacted negatively on the teaching and learning process in the classroom (Roseman, 2018 *ibid*).

Furthermore, public response to the 1994 policy was reportedly mixed at the outset. George (2002:18) observes that in the Oromia region, where support for Afaan Oromoo had generally been strong, practical steps were taken to ensure that Afaan Oromoo was the LoLT in Oromia region. Parents in some regions were not happy about the use of national languages in education. Parents from the SNNPR viewed the national languages in education as a means of bringing down the educational standards of their children. They were not clear on the benefits of the language policy and were outraged by perceived outcomes of its implementation. George (2002) also reports that parents were concerned about the inability of their children to communicate

in Amharic or English as a main reason for them to fail the Grade 8 examinations.

In the same light, Woldemariam (2007:6) observed in her research regarding the challenges of MTE in the North Omo area of Ethiopia, that children who have moved from other regions into this region and speak other languages, have to begin using Gamo (the language used in the North) as their LoLT and thereby face many challenges. She maintains that this group of learners is the most disadvantaged because they are forced to learn in a language that is not their primary language.

According to Woldemariam (2007:32), implementing MTE in this zone has been a complicated and chaotic process. The main problem stemmed from ignoring the attitudes and psychological realities of the societal groups in the area. The process did not involve the community or experts in the field of sociolinguistics, pedagogy, or education. Added to this problem, the lack of interest in MTE and the positive attitude toward the use of Amharic as the only LoLT have also been observed among the students themselves. Woldemariam (2007) noted during interviews with teachers that students often prefer to speak Amharic in the classroom.

Woldemariam 2007 (*ibid.*) goes further to present most students as believers of the philosophy that learning in Amharic is better than learning in their MT. They believe that the latter may restrict their progress and keep them uncivilized and backward. Even if they enjoy the cognitive advantage inherent in the use of MT, they lack the interest and motivation to use it. Few students preferred to learn in their MT, irrespective of the will of their parents.

What this research did not investigate, is the possibility of using Gamo in Addis Ababa as a LoLT. This might also serve as an incentive for learners to migrate to Addis Ababa for their primary education. This study therefore examined feasibility constraints of why languages such as Afaan Oromoo could not be introduced as LoLT before 2017 in Addis Ababa. The research

questions of this study will be discussed in connection to the different theories and conceptual frameworks that form the basis of this research.

The increasing emphasis on English as an international language and language of higher education, has been another problem hindering the successful implementation of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa. The assumption that the earlier English becomes the LoLT, the more successful learners will be in school, in examinations, and in life, is very common amongst Ethiopians (Heugh et al. 2007:72). According to these researchers, Ethiopians aspire to extraordinarily high and virtually impossible levels of proficiency in English, even though English is a foreign language used in very few functional domains. This focus on English has led to a change from the delivery of mass quality schooling to the provision of higher education in English for a small elite.

In the same light, Gobana (2014:197), in his study on the challenges of using Afaan Oromoo as a LoLT in the east Hararge zone, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, observed that the impact of English and the dominance of Amharic has negatively affected people's perceptions toward the use of other languages as LoLT in education in other regions in Ethiopia. According to Gobana (2014:198), people's language choices as LoLT could also be linked to their backgrounds (ethnicity, religion, culture and education). His findings suggest shortages in educational materials like additional reading material, teachers' guides and syllabi in schools. Gobana (2014:189 ibid.) further noticed that students' textbooks written in the MT (Afaan Oromoo) were also inadequate. On top of that, almost all primary schools in the east Hararge zone had no libraries. He suggests that, for a practical implementation of MLE in Ethiopia, the government should begin from the grass roots or local communities and work to the top. In this way, the demands and concerns of each community will be identified as the starting point for the practical implementation of the policy.

Gobana (ibid) concludes that even though the national language policy supports the use of mother tongues in education (Afaan Oromoo in this

case), practical issues in the classroom such as the availability of trained teachers, text books, and the myths about using local languages as LoLT hinder the implementation of MTE in the east Hararge zone in the Oromia regional state. His research did not investigate the possibility of using Afaan Oromoo as another language of learning and teaching in selected schools in Addis Ababa where hundreds of children who speak only Afaan Oromoo are going through their primary education.

Worthy of note is the fact that little or no research has been carried out in Ethiopia on the feasibility of implementing other languages as LoLT in some primary schools where only Amharic is still being used in Addis Ababa. Given the huge presence of immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic, this study recommends further research in this area.

2.5 The educational structure

The educational structure in Ethiopia consists of formal and non-formal education for both public and private education. Formal education includes General education, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and higher education. Before 1994, the educational system had a 6-2-4 structure: six years of primary schooling, followed by two years of junior secondary education, and four years of senior secondary education. National examinations at the end of each cycle (in grades 6, 8 and 12) regulated the selection and advancement of learners from one cycle to the next (World Bank country study, 2005:23).

Following the declaration of the 1994 constitution, the Education and Training Policy created a new 4-4-2-2: eight years of primary schooling (Grades 1-8), followed by two years of general secondary education (Grades 9-10), and two years of preparatory secondary education (Grades 11-12). The eight years of primary education are further divided into a basic education cycle from Grades 1-4, and a general primary cycle from Grades 5-8. The change of structure from a 6-2-4 to a 4-4-2-2 structure stemmed from the similarity the old system had with models in some developed

countries and therefore not especially relevant to the Ethiopian context. The new structure was aimed at raising the standards of education for Ethiopia (World Bank country study, *ibid*).

According to the Ethiopian National Qualifications Framework Taskforce (2008), a primary school leaving certificate examination (regional examinations) is administered in Grade 8 and the general secondary education certificate examination (national examinations) is written in Grade 10. Successful candidates for both Grades 8 and 10 examinations are required to move to the next grade level (MoE, 2008).

Roseman (2018:36) observes that the educational structure of Ethiopia sets the objectives of primary education at the level of providing functional literacy. She further explains that the first cycle (Grades 1-4, children ages 4-10) deals with basic literacy, numeracy, and life skills, whereas the second cycle (grades 5-8, children ages 11-14) deals with general primary education which prepares students for further general education and training. (See section 2.6). General secondary education prepares learners for further education, including technical and vocational options; and preparatory secondary education grooms learners for studies in higher learning institutions (colleges and universities) or in technical and vocational fields.

Secondary education deals with children aged 15-18 and lasts for four years. Secondary education also has two cycles; the first cycle (Grades 9-10) enables students to identify their interests in particular learning areas. The second cycle (Grades 11-12) enables students to choose particular subjects which will prepare them adequately for higher education and future employment. In Grade 10, students are given the opportunity to either proceed to Grade 11 and 12 or enrol into a TVET to learn a trade. Ethiopia has provided free primary and first cycle secondary education for over two decades now.

2.6 Curriculum

After the declaration of the 1994 constitution, the education board formulated a national curriculum based on the objectives of the education and training policy. This curriculum is applicable to both public and private schools in all the regions. The policy emphasised the importance of properly developing the curriculum following sound pedagogical and psychological principles, and taking into consideration international standards and local conditions.

A curriculum is the official educational programme or structure that defines what pupils should learn. Therefore, it is “in the curriculum that the effective teaching and learning of relevant skills, knowledge and values should take place” (Hoppers & Yekhlef, 2012, p.49). It is central to the teaching and learning process. The language in which the curriculum is written and expected to be taught is also a major factor for effective learning and teaching (UNESCO, 2004). “The national, state or local curriculum is translated and transposed to the classroom where it transforms into and becomes tasks, activities, interactions and discourse (Alexander, 2009)”. Key principles guiding the framework include respect for cultural heritage and diversity, equal opportunity for all children, new technology and active participation.

According to the curriculum framework (2009), an educated person should develop knowledge and skills in certain key areas. These areas include:

Language skills: In this area, priority is placed on literacy in the mother tongue. Children can easily acquire knowledge if taught in their mother tongue. Also, knowledge of a federal working language and an international language is developed.

Mathematical knowledge: In this area, developing knowledge in quantifying things and solving problems as well as in science and technology can be linked to training, working and earning a living.

Self-knowledge and self-understanding: In this area, knowledge is developed about the self and about identity which enables people to operate effectively within their society and they understand themselves and their capabilities better.

Knowledge about people and one's society: In this area, knowledge about different people in different societies is developed.

Cultural knowledge: In this area, knowledge is developed in the arts, music and dance.

Health and environmental knowledge: In this area, knowledge is developed about health issues and hygiene.

At the level of primary education, the main goal is to provide basic education which will reflect the cognitive development of learners as they move from one stage to another.

A second goal will be to provide general education that prepares learners for further education, training and future employment.

In the primary curriculum, there are five main learning areas: aesthetics, languages, Mathematics, natural sciences and social sciences. Subjects offered in Grades 1–4 include: Arts and Physical Education, Amharic Mother Tongue, English, Mathematics, and Environmental Science. In Grades 5 and 6 the subjects include: Civics and Ethical Education, Physical Education, Visual Arts and Music, Amharic, Mother Tongue, English, Mathematics and Integrated Science. Subjects offered in Grades 7 and 8 include: Civics, Ethical Education, Mother Tongue, Visual Arts, Music, Amharic, Physical Education, English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Biology, Chemistry and Physics.

The curriculum presents ‘Languages’ (Mother tongue, Amharic and English) as one of the main learning areas in primary education. This area of learning impacts on the discourse and analysis of this study. According to the MoE (2009), studying in one’s mother tongue should begin from Grade 1 because it will facilitate the learning of other subjects. Using learners’ mother tongue as LoLT according to the curriculum of primary education, facilitates their ability to understand and fosters self and psychological development. Learning in a mother tongue will enable learners to switch to a L2 language easily. The case of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and are using Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa leaves a question at this point.

Based on the current education policy, the national curriculum also stipulates that Amharic should be taught as a second language to all learners for whom it is not their mother tongue. For such learners whose mother tongue is not Amharic, it begins as a subject in Grade 3. In this way, learners would have had two years of instruction in Amharic by the time they complete the first cycle. These will provide basic knowledge that will enable them use Amharic as a *lingua franca* in Ethiopia. It is worth noting that the curriculum does not indicate the use of other mother tongues as LoLT in the case where learners do not speak and understand Amharic. This is the case in point in Addis Ababa where Afaan Oromoo speaking learners must learn and at the same time also use Amharic as LoLT.

Stated in the curriculum framework (2009) is the fact that English has become the medium of international communication for various reasons and there is an enormous reservoir of educational materials available for the teaching of English. The MoE goes further to argue that if Ethiopia were to develop an industry based on modern technology and keep abreast of the advances made in science and technology, English must be taught in schools. English is the language of wider communication and it has been the language of international relations and the medium of instruction for secondary and higher education for a long time in Ethiopia. From Grades 1-8, English is taught as a subject and Amharic is used as LoLT; a sudden

switch from mother tongue to English as LoLT in Grade 9 might be a barrier to learning for learners for whom English is a third language. This study focuses on such a group of learners (Afaan Oromo speaking leaners) with the aim of assessing the implications of switching from Amharic to English as LoLT in Grade 9 as stated in the curriculum.

2.7 Recent efforts by the Ethiopian government to include Afaan Oromoo as LoLT2 in Addis Ababa

It is worth noting that in June 2017, Afaan Oromoo was officially declared the second LoLT in Addis Ababa. Data collection for this study was done in **2015/16** whereas the declaration to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT2 was made one year after the researcher had already completed her data collection and analysis process. Introducing Afaan Oromoo as LoLT2 in Addis Ababa is a step in the right direction which unfortunately, was only taken **23 years after the declaration of 1994 constitution (see 2.4.2)**. Nevertheless, this step in the right direction can be considered a happy coincidence. It is indeed heart-warming because the policy makers in Addis Ababa confirmed the crux of this research; the need for **an inclusive language-in-education policy for all children**.

According to Agence de Presse Africaine (APA), the decision to use Afaan Oromoo alongside Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa was only reached after tensions between Oromia and Addis Ababa sparked wide-spread opposition from the public. Section two of a draft letter ‘Proclamation to Determine the Special Interest of the State of Oromia in Addis Ababa’ (2017), states that ‘school facilities providing education in Afaan Oromoo for the Oromo nationalities residing within the administration shall be organised at the expense of the city administration’. In this light, four schools were opened in September 2017 following the declaration in June and eighteen more schools were opened in September 2018.

In the words of the head of the recently opened department of Afaan Oromoo in the Addis Ababa education office, (interviewed on the 13th of

December 2018), “this decision to use Afaan Oromoo in schools in Addis Ababa is a highly political decision. The government was not ready for the effective opening of all these schools. Opening all these schools was just intended to satisfy the demands of the Oromo people”. The political tensions (caused by sensitive issues on land ownership) between Addis Ababa and Oromia seemed to have accelerated the decision to open the schools.

According to the head of the department of Afaan Oromoo, most of these schools lack basic amenities (teaching materials, textbooks, office equipment) and trained teachers for the effective functioning of the schools. Amongst these schools, a case in point is the ‘Edtomojo Primary School’ in Lafto sub-city. The head of department described the state of this particular school in the following words:

There are too many problems in this school from September this year. First is that the school started under a tree with no classrooms. Through the help of the community, some classes were constructed. Now the children sit on the floor with no blackboard. The teachers only teach orally; they cannot even write for the children to see. The condition is very bad. It is just the beginning, I think so, the government is promising to fix the problem.

The above situation and the opening of more than 20 schools within one year confirms the existence and seriousness of the language-in-education problem in Addis Ababa. There is therefore need on the part of the government to ensure effective learning and teaching in these new schools by providing sufficient teaching and learning materials and putting in place proper infrastructure and equipment.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter presents a brief history of Ethiopia from the Ethiopian Empire or Abyssinia around the 15th century to the FDRE in 1994. A sociolinguistic overview of the country with a focus on the historical and socio-political evolution of the language-in-education policy since 1908 is also presented. This chapter evaluates the language-in-education policy since 1994 and highlights the implementation strategies and challenges faced by the government. The chapter also presents the educational structure of the

country with emphasis on the primary and secondary sections which are relevant to the study. The national curriculum formulated after the 1994 constitution brings out details of key learning areas and subjects offered at different stages in primary secondary schools. The importance of languages (mother tongue, Amharic and English) as a key learning area in the curriculum is also discussed in this chapter. Finally, recent efforts made by the Ethiopian government to include Afaan Oromoo as LoLT in Addis Ababa has also been discussed. The next chapter presents an overview of the most important literature relating to the study.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature that is related to this study, and highlights the importance of language policy and planning, particularly for education. It begins with an overview of the role of language in education, and further discusses the importance of first language (L1) in the cognitive development of learners. The importance of MTE from a global and regional perspective in the early years of schooling is also discussed in this chapter. Language-in-education policy in particular and planning in primary schools in general, are also presented. Focus on the Ethiopian education system; policy; strategies and problems are critically examined in the chapter. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks of MTB-MLE that form the basis on which data collected for this study have been analysed and interpreted, are also presented. The chapter concludes with a summary of the vast body of literature reviewed, and the extent to which other scholars have examined and commented on the implementation of MTB-MLE in Ethiopia.

3.2 An overview of language, its importance and language-in-education policies

“Language is not everything in education, but without language, everything is nothing in education” (Wolff, 2006).

A challenge that many countries face today, is to provide quality education that gives priority to the needs of learners, whilst balancing these with other demands in the global era in which we live. Because of the many factors hindering MTE, the problem is being vigorously debated in academic circles worldwide. This study concentrates on the situation in Africa, and specifically in Addis Ababa. Without language, learning cannot be possible, as it is through language that children develop ideas or concepts of the world around them. It is through language that children make sense of the input they receive in the classroom from the teacher and the written texts. It is also through language that children express their understanding of what

they have learnt from this input (Cummins 2000; Gibbons 2002; Probyn 2008; Tsui and Tollefson 2004).

Language-in-education policies vary throughout the continent between the need to promote socio-political cohesiveness by means of an African language, and the need for a European language to assist in the modernisation process (Berhanu, 2009). In many countries of the world, “bilingualism and multilingualism are the norm rather than the exception” (UNESCO, 2003:10). Thus, the question of which language best serves all children with diverse linguistic backgrounds is high on the agenda of many countries today.

Heugh *et al* (2007:127) emphasise that the primary objective of quality education should permit all learners to attain the level of academic proficiency that will ensure success across the school curriculum. The language-in-education policy and practice of every country should therefore support this objective. Scholars argue that the underlying cause of the failure of many governments to identify language-in-education as an important pedagogical aspect, is that the language problem is not only educational; it is also social, political, economical, and cultural (May 2003, Smith 2004, Schiffman 1996, Wiley 2006). Consequently, these scholars argue that people’s linguistic rights are meaningless without other liberties, including political liberty in particular (Wiley 2006:35).

Spolsky (1986:67) argues that, to formulate an acceptable language-in-education policy, that will be feasible, if not for all, then for the majority, policy makers must consider the opinions of people at grass-roots level, in the schools, the villages, communities, and those in political and economic arenas. Supporting and encouraging the language that best serves children with diverse linguistic backgrounds should be the priority of every nation, considering that the basis for all learning is the learner’s ability to understand what is presented. However, issues related to the choice of language of instruction are complex in countries such as Ethiopia, where there are between 70 -- 80 different language varieties (Bender, Cowley,

and Fulas, 1976; Cooper 1976, 1989). Amongst these languages, Amharic, which is the common language of communication though spoken by a minority in Ethiopia, is used as the only LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa (see Chapter 1.2). This section of the study will therefore review related works on language in education, language-in-education policy and planning, and the importance of MTE in the early years of a child. To begin with, a child can only develop cognitively if his/her primary or first language is used as the LoLT in the early years of schooling.

3.3 First language/mother tongue: an important cognitive instrument

Language is without doubt the key to success in the learning process; the transfer of skill and knowledge can only be possible through language (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir 2003). (It is through the mastery of the first language or mother tongue that the basic skills of reading, writing and numeracy are acquired (UNESCO 2010:15). Quane and Glanz (2011:5) define mother tongue in an African linguistic reality as “the language or languages of the immediate environment and daily interaction that nurture the child in the first four years of life.” Moreover, six to eight years of learning in a first/primary language is important for the development of the level of literacy and verbal proficiency that is needed for academic success in secondary school. Cummins (1989:82) concludes that the most important factor in the success of learners in their academic endeavour is the cognitive and linguistic development of the learner in his/her first language.

Quane and Glanz (2011:15) maintain that the existence of many languages within a country, and their right not only to survival but also to development, represent a matter of importance that has to be considered over and above the categories into which these languages fall. According to Thomas and Collier (2002:28), children are most comfortable to learn faster and better in their mother tongue. This serves as a foundation for bilingual and multilingual education in the early years of school for every child. Children can easily learn additional languages if MTE is the base of their early years in school.

Thomas and Collier (2002:30) argue that additional languages could easily be acquired if mother tongue education lays a solid cognitive and linguistic foundation in the child. When children receive formal instruction in their first language throughout primary school, and then gradually switch to academic learning in the second language, they learn the second language quickly. If these children are given a chance to improve on their L1 skills in primary and secondary school, they will emerge as fully bilingual/multilingual learners. If, however, they are forced to switch abruptly from mother tongue to a second language, their self-confidence and motivation to proceed to the next level will reduce leading to poor performances and drop out from school. Language experts would have it that ignoring the learners' first language or MT in the process of implementing the language of instruction is one of the primary causes of poor results, high dropout rates, and the general level of underachievement in multilingual schools (Webb 2002, Nel 2007, Lafon 2008, Vandeyar 2009). Language is crucial in the mental development of a child.

First language skills are intricately linked with all areas of the child's mental development (Cummins 2000, Baker 2006). If the LoLT in school is a language that children understand and speak very well, the child could link his/her experiences from the house and immediate community to what has been taught in school. Thus, a LoLT that is familiar to both learners and teachers will enhance the teaching process and facilitate the understanding of the subject content (Cummins, 2001:160). The use of a familiar language also enhances the use of active learning and teaching techniques in the classrooms.

Learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and are going through their primary education in Addis Ababa have the right to develop a strong cognitive foundation in their academic endeavors in their MT or first language (L1) before switching to a second language (L2). Without this foundation, they may lose self-confidence, leading to a decline in interest for learning and,

consequently, drop out of school. The importance of MTE in the early years of schooling for all children is discussed in the next section.

3.4 The importance of mother tongue education (MTE)

"It must be obvious to all that incomprehensible education is immoral" (Spolsky, 1986).

King and Benson (2004) argue that, "Adoption of a medium of instruction (MOI) that students comprehend is also effective pedagogy." To highlight the importance of MTE, UNESCO proclaimed an International Mother Language Day in 1999. This day was marked for 21 February, and has been observed every year since February 2000. As far back as 1953, UNESCO declared in the following words that the best medium for the child to study is through his/her mother tongue:

It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue. Psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally, he learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium (UNESCO 1953: 11).

Children can learn best in their mother tongue first of all when this language is used as LoLT in school, and then these children become confident and motivated as they learn a L2. Quane (2003) believes that MTE is like a key to the child's mind in a learning environment. It keeps the child at ease and relaxed with the ability to ask questions and discuss freely in the learning process. Akalu (2011:8) maintains that MTE keeps the child at ease with a greater speed of expression and self-esteem. In addition, the child also has greater independence of thought, a firmer grasp of matters, and a longer retention of the subject matter. (Akalu, 2011:8) also comments on the psychological advantage of MTE. He points out that shock (the difficulty of adjustment) resulting from the movement of a learner to a new environment, can be made lighter if the child's MT is used as a LoLT in his/her new school. MTE connects the school and the home, which, in turn, keeps the child psychologically secure. The LoLT plays a vital role in this regard.

The choice of a language or languages of instruction in any educational institution is a big challenge in the development of quality education. In the early years of school, the acquisition of reading and writing involves coding and decoding of data in the classroom. This can only be meaningfully carried out in a language that the child best understands. Dutcher (2003:26) confirms this assertion when she attests that, "children who begin their education in their mother tongue make a better start in life, demonstrate increased self-confidence, and continue to perform better than those who start school in a new language." When children learn through a mother tongue, they are learning concepts and intellectual skills that are equally relevant to their ability to function in the national language (Dutcher 2003). Alexander (2005:42) adheres to this as he points out that being able to use the language(s) of which one has the best command in any situation, enhances learning and not being able to do so discourages the learner and brings down his or her self-esteem. To deny children the privilege of using such a language is tantamount to oppression.

Benson (2009:73) maintains that in order for proper development to take place in learners, they need input and interaction with other people who are competent in the mother tongue. They also need to be involved in different classroom activities that will expose them to the use of that language. Cummins (1976:3) maintains that literacy skills are best acquired through MTE and if this process is disrupted at an early stage whilst children are still learning the mechanics of their native language, they may never be adequately developed academically. Reading, writing and cognitive development contribute significantly to this process. The foundation for these children to become good bilinguals/multilinguals is set and success in their academic struggles throughout primary education is ensured. The acceptance of the multilingual nature of societies, especially the role of local languages in developing countries, has led to the increased attention in multilingual education.

3.5 Mother tongue and bilingual or multilingual education

According to Corson (1990:22), multilingualism is the acceptance and the use of more than two languages in every sector of the community. Similarly, Jessner (2008) defines it as an acquisition of more than two languages, but concludes with what initially seems a confusing twist that it could also mean the ability to speak, understand and write two languages. This therefore implies that bilingualism may be used interchangeably with multilingualism. In fact, Mateene (1999) concurs with Jessner that multilingualism is the ability to read, write and speak in more than one language. This implies that MLE does not only involve speaking more than one language, but includes reading, writing and communicating in those languages. Hornberger (2006:28) states that, "multilingual education is at its best, when education draws out, taking as its starting point the knowledge students bring to the classroom and moving toward their participation as full and indispensable actors in society – locally, nationally, and globally."

Multilingual education (MLE) refers to first language first, that is, beginning school in a primary language or a language that the child understands and speaks best before the introduction of, or transition to, additional languages. According to UNESCO (2003:11), MLE may involve the use of at least three languages in education, that is, the mother tongue; a regional language or national language; and an international language. This includes bilingual education where two languages are used. This further includes educational programmes that use languages other than the first languages of learners as LoLT. Bi- or MLE programmes aim at developing proficiency in two or more languages. This means that bi- or MLE supports and promotes learners to speak, understand and write in more than one language. Bi- or MLE will hereafter be referred to as MLE.

Mother tongue based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) is considered a resource for learning and teaching because it provides learners with more skills to use and improve on their performance. It also provides access to the curriculum and to learning, improve critical thinking abilities, and ensure

greater cognitive flexibility (Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia 1995; Cummins 2000; Thomas and Collier 2002; Garcia 2009; MacKenzie 2009; and Komorowska 2011). According to these scholars, MTB-MLE will enable learners to become valuable assets to their societies because being able to communicate in multiple languages will help people to better understand others from different cultural backgrounds. They will have different perspectives of the world around them; can work and study in other countries; can fit in a large society; and increase job opportunities. This implies that MTB-MLE prepares an individual to confidently participate in a multilingual world. Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh (2010:264) observe that MTB-MLE sets out to empower learners from both majority and minority communities. Indeed, efforts are made to empower both the learners/school and the community at the same time so that one can be used to enrich the other.

According to Jacobson (1990:6), the concurrent approach to bilingual education allows the use of multiple languages in the same classroom. It therefore relates to classroom code switching which allows for the use of more than one language in a single communication. In schools that advocate a concurrent approach to bilingual education, classroom code switching becomes an integral part of interactions among learners and teachers. The concurrent use of multiple languages in a classroom can be characterised by different degrees – or lack thereof – of structure (Jacobson, 1990:6). Teachers can, for example, switch on the one hand between two languages in a largely unstructured way. On the other hand, alternating between two languages can occur systematically. There is a plethora of literature from around the world on the function and advantages of multilingualism in education.

3.5.1 A global perspective on mother tongue and multilingual education

One of the ways to attain quality education is through MTB-MLE. According to UNESCO (2010:12), MTB-MLE is “the use of the learner’s first language

as the primary medium of instruction for the whole of primary school while the learner's second language is introduced as a subject of study in itself to prepare students for eventual transition to some academic subject in the second language." This model allows learners to use their mother tongue as LoLT without any problem only if an additional language is provided. Heugh, 2011:92-101).

UNESCO has played a crucial role in trying to ensure peace across the globe and, among other issues, in attaining quality education for all. The link between the twin ideals of peace and education remains as strong as ever. For example, Martyns (2013:6) points out that in order to bring peace and obtain the objectives of science education, the use of mother tongue medium in education contributed greatly in Sri Lanka. The population of Sri Lanka became so much more calm and peaceful after the introduction of Sinhala and Tamil languages, instead of English, as languages of instruction. MTE in general can be used to heal ethnic differences after ethnic crises. The ability to communicate with someone in the MT is an invaluable step to healing ethnic differences" (Martyns (2013). Mother tongues can also be used as tools for cultivating or fostering a culture of trust and understanding. The transition from English to the national languages as medium of instruction in Science, helped to destroy the great barrier that existed between the privileged English educated classes and the ordinary people in Sri Lanka (Martyns, 2013:6).

Spolsky (1986:71) points out that, to formulate a feasible language in education policy, it will work -if not for all but for the majority. Evidence from research studies in the Philippines and elsewhere – as in the abovementioned example of Sri Lanka – convinced policy makers of the numerous advantages minority language speakers will enjoy if taught in their mother tongue. The benefits of MTB-MLE highlighted in these studies include improved academic skills (Cummins, 2000; Thomas & Collier, 1997; Walter & Dekker, 2011); stronger classroom participation (Benson, 2000; Dutcher, 1995); increased access to education (Benson, 2004) and

development of critical thinking skills (Brock-Utne, 2005). Research has also noted the effect of MLE on cultural pride (Cummins, 2000; Wright & Taylor, 1995); increased parent participation (Cummins, 2000; Dutcher, 1995); and the increased achievement of girls (Benson, 2005; Hovens, 2002). Another major benefit of mother tongue instruction is the foundation that it builds for gaining literacy in additional languages (Cummins, 2000; Thomas and Collier, 1997).

A great part of research has been done on the outcome of literacy related to MT instruction in North America and Europe. Despite this Western focus on language learning studies, it has served for much of the rationale in propagating usage of the mother tongue in education throughout the rest of the world. (Ramirez et al., 1991) Language minority children who were educated in their home language for a majority of their elementary school years performed better in English proficiency than others who were educated only in English or for only a short time in their first language. These findings are reinforced by other research that suggests that strong first language abilities promote cognitive development in children, and permit them to easily negotiate subject matter (Cummins, 2000:87).

Mateene (1999) contends that multilingualism involves the ability to speak, write and read in more than one language. This implies that multilingualism does not mean only an understanding and the ability to speak more than one language, but that it must also include the ability to read and write in those acquired languages. Two contrary views on the function of multilingualism in education may be identified. Mabiletja (2008:15) points out that multilingualism is viewed either as “a barrier to learning and teaching or as a resource for learning and teaching.” Scholars such as Tokuhama-Espinosa, a globally recognised educational researcher at the Harvard University Extension School, holds the philosophy that change starts with one: one student, one teacher (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2003:20). She regards multilingualism as a barrier to learning and teaching because

it prevents learners from being proficient in the language of wider communication.

Tokuhama-Espinosa (2003:21) further believes that by learning more than one language, children can suffer “brain overload” and that multilingualism can cause language problems such as “stuttering or dyslexia.” It is argued that multilingualism will distort the learning process because learners get confused at the end of the day if they cannot acquire the desired skills in any of the languages. Contrary to this view, scholars such as Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995), Cummins (2000), Thomas and Collier (2002), Garcia (2009), MacKenzie (2009) and Komorowska (2011) view multilingualism as a resource for learning and teaching. Among other issues, these researchers view MLE as a means to lower the repetition and dropout rates, facilitate learning and access to the curriculum, encourage critical thinking and enhance cognitive flexibility which will in turn improve on the learning outcome.

According to these scholars, multilingualism in education further provides learners with more skills to use even beyond school level in such way that they will become valuable assets in their societies. The scholars maintain that being able to communicate in multiple languages will help people to understand other people from different cultural backgrounds better. They will have different perspectives of the world around them; can work and study in other countries; can fit into a large society; and have increased job opportunities (de Klerk, 2006; Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995 & Crawford, 1996). This implies that MLE prepares learners to courageously face the challenges of a multilingual world. It means that in future learners will become responsible adults in the workplace, will succeed in their careers, and become more productive. It also implies that they will have more and better opportunities in an interdependent society.

The concept of language “equality” and “inequality”, according to Schiffman (1996:122), has been the sources of conflict about language policies. On the one hand, he cites the case of the United States of America (USA) where

people with the view of assimilation uphold that the key to equal opportunity for non-English speakers is a shift to English as rapidly as possible. These people also believe that language policies that encourage non-English speakers to continue to rely on their native languages, such as bilingual education and bilingual ballots hinder their chances of attaining social equality.

On the other hand, pluralists contend that the United States has always been a multilingual society despite the fact that English has remained a dominant language. The pluralists therefore insist that the achievement of equal opportunity should take into account the fundamental ethno-linguistic diversity of a country. Kymlica et al. (2003:164) concurs with the views of the pluralists when he points out that, “since the state operates within a linguistic and cultural context, it cannot operate neutrally with respect to language and culture” hence the proposals for making local languages compulsory, should be revisited. The success story of bilingual education in Canada shows the importance of multilingual education in school.

Dutcher (1995) stresses the importance of bilingual education, beginning with the first language. She notes that learners in Canada have shown that, when first language instruction is provided along with appropriate second language instruction, the learners can perform better academically. Different multilingual programmes were introduced in different provinces in Canada. In each province multilingual education programmes promoted the right for every child to be taught partially in their L1. For example, in Quebec, a French immersion programme was introduced and 50 per cent of the subjects were taught in English, whilst another 50 per cent were taught in French. According to Dutcher (1995), the study was aimed at investigating the language competence of learners in French immersion schools in Canada. Findings of the study revealed that multilingual education was the key to success for learners in schools which used more than one language. Children in these schools performed better than their counterparts in

schools where only one language was offered. These programmes in Canada have succeeded in making learners multilingual.

Alexander (2009) argues that any attempt to formulate or design an internationally orientated education that will equip learners to think and operate globally must promote linguistic and cultural diversity. He goes further to call for a language policy that will empower and counter social exclusion and the dominance of majority languages. Such a policy must be based on the respect for linguistic diversity and the promotion of multilingualism. Baguingan (1999:2) confirms his concern for linguistic diversity and the effective teaching of reading and writing in a multilingual setting, particularly for students who are speakers of minority languages. Learners from minority-language communities do not possess the background, attributes and skills of the dominant language group. They are distanced from the sources of power and status held by the majority groups who speak the major languages. Baguingan (1999) further states that schools have always been the major institutions, setting national patterns of language use. He goes on to highlight the concern within the Philippines for the effective teaching of reading and writing, particularly for the learners who are speakers of indigenous languages. He states that:

Students from minority language communities do not possess the background, attributes and skills of the dominant language group. They are distanced from the sources of power and status held by the majority groups who speak the major languages (Baguingan, 1999).

3.5.2 Regional perspective

There is clear evidence that quality education which reflects gender equality, inclusion, justice for all and the highest learning achievement can best and most conveniently be achieved through MTE Diversity in most African countries triggered the need for multilingualism in the world today. Greater attention is being paid towards MLE because of the role of indigenous languages in most African countries and the recognition of multilingual societies in the world (Mabiletja 2015:16). A situation where there is a transition from the mother tongue to the use of two or more languages as

media of instruction is the norm. Quane and Glanz (2010:132) point out that investing in African languages and bilingual/multilingual education is part of an educational reform in Africa and in the world at large. They conclude, however, that bilingual/multilingual practices should be carried out with the understanding that teaching experiences and qualifications of teachers plus the quality of teaching material, the learning environment and the overall governance of the school are very important factors that need to be addressed constantly and effectively.

According to Bloch (2002), MLE must be recognised in Africa for the successful and competitive national development of multilingual states. As previously stated, MLE may involve the use of at least three languages in education, that is, the mother tongue; a regional language or national language; and an international language (UNESCO, 2003:11 and 2010:13). In MLE one is encouraged to access education in both one's home language (HL) and a language of wider communication (LWC), which is usually an ex-colonial language in most African countries such as the use of English in Nigeria (Simire, 2003), Tanzania (Brock-Utne, 2005), and South Africa.

Heugh (2006) points out that there are two major language policy design flaws in Africa: first, language education models were originally imported from abroad; second, language programmes were designed in Europe to teach learners writing and reading skills, oral literature and conversational skills. These programmes do not prepare students to learn language, mathematics, science, geography, or history through the second language. Second, African language programme designers have not kept up to date with contemporary research on the cognitive development of children and how children use language to learn all the subjects in all areas of the curriculum. Heugh (2006) further notes that since such programme designs did not originally come from African countries, they do not accommodate the multilingual nature of the continent. The scholar finally assesses the African language policy model operating since the colonial period and its outcomes as follows:

A baffling phenomenon, debated by language scholars in Africa, is the continued use in Africa of language models which cannot offer students meaningful access to quality education. These models..... have succeeded only in providing successful formal education for a small percentage of children, yet they continue to be used as if they could offer lasting educational success for the majority of students..... (Heugh, 2006:7)

According to Gobana (2014:213), the ideology of linguistic homogenisation was not only used by colonisers but also adopted by some African rulers. The view was adopted and implemented in education and other public sectors based on the assumption that a nation state needed a common language for national unity, integration and modernisation. In this same line of thought, some authoritarian rulers had implemented language-in-education policies that focused on a national language and a foreign language as the only languages in education. The rulers implemented a monolingual policy that fiercely restricted education through the marginalised local languages as was observed in Ethiopia prior to 1994. Gobana (2014:213) further observes that, due to colonial supremacy and the use of their languages in African education systems and other domains, the development of the indigenous African languages in education and the public sectors has been restricted. His study revealed that the impact of English and the dominant local language (Amharic in the case of Ethiopia) have negatively affected people's perceptions about the use of mother tongue in education. He concludes that even though the government supports MLE, it is still far from being called a success story because of the myths about using one's mother tongue in education and the practical implementation of this policy on the ground.

According to Burton (2013:156), the preference for English and other European languages stands as a natural barrier to MT instruction from different quarters. This has been noted in multilingual contexts across several continents. In rural Peru, families resisted the use of Quechua (Hornberger, 1998), and in Nepal, parents advocated for the use of English in schools (Davies, 1996). Hornberger (2009) similarly discovered a large number of South African parents who wanted their children in English-

medium schools rather than schools providing instruction in one of the other ten official languages in South Africa.

In his research on the LoLT in Kenya, Schroeder (2004) found that community members believe in the importance of English in education. Most uneducated adults also think that the ability to speak and understand the national or official language (most often English) is a *sine qua non* for educational and economic opportunities. They then assume that the best way to be proficient in this language was to be taught in English at school. As Trudell (2006) explained, these strong values for English are founded on the long-term advantages perceived by parents, teachers, and other local stakeholders.

Despite decades of literacy campaigns by UNESCO and English for All (EFA), attempts to ensure that which is often referred to as the “spread of literacy” in Africa has failed (Triebel 2001:49). This is because, in addition to poverty, a major factor that has ruined the efforts of many and has continued to affect movements to ensure the advancement of literacy in many parts of Africa is the issue of language. Pluddemann (2011:4) points out that African languages have never been used to promote multilingualism in South Africa. He states that multilingualism is only being realised in pilot projects like the Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa (PRAESA). He further indicates that the switch from MT to English in Grade 4 in Township schools contributes to a low level of literacy performance in Grade 6. He therefore recommends that language units be established at the national, provincial, and district levels to support schools in the implementation of additional multilingual policies.

Outside the western context, research has shown similar outcomes even though the methodology has been different. One of the most well-known MTB-MLE initiatives took place from 1970 --1978 in Nigeria. The Ife project showed that students who learned in their MT for six years performed better than students who only learned in their MT for three years. The first group showed no difference in English proficiency from the second group despite

having had fewer years in English as the medium of instruction (Fafunwa 1978, Macauley, 1989). According to Phaswana (2000:117), during the apartheid era in South Africa, Afrikaans and English were used as tools for dictatorship and an unfair distribution of the country's wealth. It was also used as a means through which only whites could enjoy certain facilities in the country.

McLean (1992:152), in a discussion of how language was used as a tool for divide-and-rule in South Africa, pointed out that: "The basis on which black people have been stripped of their South African citizenship and forcibly removed to Bantustans has been their ethnic identity, of which language has been the only index" (McLean, 1992 *ibid*). In the early 1990s, when the apartheid government opened negotiations with political parties in South Africa, the language issue was high on the agenda.

The African National Congress' (ANC) initial position on the language question was in favour of English only. The emphasis on multilingualism came about as a compromise to Afrikaans speakers as has been documented *inter alia* by Alexander & Heugh (1998) and Lafon (2006). Today, the official languages of the Republic of South Africa are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsongo, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996:4). The Constitution requires that all official languages enjoy parity of esteem and equitable treatment. Nevertheless, Maartens (1998; 16) attests that there is a contradiction between the constitutional commitment to empower the indigenous languages, the status of which was diminished by the apartheid regime, and the actual realisation of such a commitment.

The use of language as a tool for divide-and-rule in South Africa can be compared to the Ethiopian case where Amharic has a unifying effect on the people. Ethiopians resort to learning Amharic rather than their MT in order to fit into the socio-economic flow of life in Addis Ababa.

Webb (2002:38) argues that the Department of Education in South Africa needs to reconsider the language-in-education policy because the excessively powerful role of English is without doubt an obstacle to national development and must be curbed. Webb (2002) points out that insufficient MTE in township schools is the reason why black learners in South Africa lack the English language proficiency that is required for effective educational development. He further observes that the switch from MT to English in Grade 4 distorts the cognitive development process in learners. It also reduces the basic language knowledge and linguistic skills that these learners need to build on for effective educational development. Webb (2002) concludes that the use of English as a language of instruction from Grade 4 in Township might be one of the reasons for the high dropout rate, high rate of repetition, low mean marks per subject, and low pass-marks for learners in South Africa.

Wolff (2006:28) points out that in Africa, the link between language and development needs serious consideration. Sometimes the link between the two is acknowledged but with very little understanding of the relationship that exist between the two. Wolff (2006) therefore calls for a closer cooperation between the linguists, educationalists, and economists in formulating what he calls “a language-development-education triangle connection in the future.” Wolff goes further to describe three underlying problems that hinder efforts to overcome the distortion and institutionalisation of viable language policies in Africa. First, it is the lack of information on language in education by key stakeholders. Second, it is the negative attitude regarding African languages by African experts. Wolff (2006) concludes that African universities are not fulfilling their leadership role to promote and develop MTE. If the LoLT is a language that learners speak and understand very well (MT or L1), they will be fully involved and engaged in the learning process.

3.6 LoLT and MLE in Primary Schools

The Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) refers to the language used for teaching the basic curriculum of the education system (UNESCO, 2003:04). Primary education provides the foundation for a child's later education. A sound and purposeful primary education therefore serves as a stepping stone for the child's success in later years. The choice of a language or languages of instruction remains a stumbling block to the development of quality education. Literacy at the earliest stages involves coding and decoding of language data in the form of reading and writing. As stated previously, this can only be meaningfully carried out in a language that learners' best understand. LoLT in primary schools determines to a greater extent the successful acquisition of knowledge and skills at all levels of the education system. It can enhance, discourage, stagnate or even prevent the acquisition of knowledge and skills that are pertinent to development.

Decisions on mediums of instruction play a vital role in shaping the learning activities that take place in the school environment. The LoLT in the classroom has a considerable impact, not only on the school performance of learners and the day-to-day work of teachers, but also on various forms of socio-economic (in)equality. Kuper (2003) underscores the importance of the choice of LoLT. He believes that the nature and quality of educational institutions are determined by the language of instruction and attitudes towards language. Kuper further stresses that positive attitudes towards first language in education are likely to encourage learning in and outside the classroom situation through interactions between learners, teachers and the learning materials. Dutcher (2003:26) confirms this assertion when she attests that children who begin their education in their mother tongue make a better start, demonstrate increased self-confidence through classroom participation and continue to perform better than those who start school in a new language.

When children learn via a mother tongue, they are not only learning this language in a narrow sense; they are learning concepts and intellectual skills that are equally relevant to their ability to function in the national language (Dutcher 2003:26 *ibid.*). According to Stutnabb-Kangas (2000:39), an in depth research shows that the longer indigenous and minority children in a low-status position have their own language as LoLT, the better they also become in acquiring the dominant language, provided, of course, that they have good teaching in it, preferably given by bilingual teachers. Hamers and Blanc (2000:43) postulate that language opens up cognitive frames for its users in the early years of school. Therefore, the use of many languages presents learners with wider cognitive frames than their monolingual counterparts. Young children need a strong foundation in the culture and oral tradition of their people; this can only be possible if they begin learning first in their MT. The communicative competence of the child should be the most important factor that should determine the language of instruction, but this is usually not the case in multilingual countries.

Furthermore, language is the central mediator of learners' acquisition of knowledge, understanding and skills, as well as their social and psychological development (Webb, 2011:7). It therefore implies that if learners do not master the LoLT well enough, they will not develop cognitively, psychologically, and socially according to their potential. Children who are limited in English proficiency (LEP) and have been identified as non-English speaking learners, but who are dominant in a language other than English, should receive instruction in their native language whilst at the same time receiving English as a Second Language (ESL) training (Cummings 1991, Macaulay 1980). Heugh, K. Alidou, H. Boly, A. Brock-Utne, B. Diallo, Y. Wollff, E. (2006:47-73) observed that regions in Ethiopia with stronger mother tongue schooling have higher student achievement levels at Grade 8 in all subjects, including English. These scholars point out that students who learn in their mother tongue can interact with their teacher, with one other, and with the curricular content in ways that promote effective and efficient learning. Investment in learning through

a first language/mother tongue has short-, medium- and especially long-term benefits for overall school performance (Heugh et al, 2006:47-73).

Research has increasingly shown that children can learn a second language or additional language when their mother tongue is the preferred language of instruction throughout primary school (Ball 2010:87-95). He observes that competence in the mother tongue sets a solid linguistic foundation for learning additional languages and achieving academic success. When children receive formal instruction in their first language throughout primary school and switch gradually to academic learning in the second language, they learn the second language quickly. Ball (2010:87-95ibid.) goes further to say that if these children continue to have opportunities to develop their first language skills in secondary school, they emerge as fully bilingual/multilingual learners. On the other hand, if children are forced to switch abruptly from MTE to learning in a L2, they may become discouraged, ineffective or underachieving learners.

According to Trappes-Lomax (1990:90-95), an appropriate language of instruction in primary school is one that enables society to educate its youth. He stresses that such a language should be accepted by all concerned: parents, teachers, learners, and the society. It is rather unfortunate that the acceptance by all concerned is difficult to find in too many parts of Africa. There are relatively few cases that prove the exception. An example is Swahili in Tanzania where there is a universal acceptance of a single language of learning on the African continent (Mchazime, 2001:93). Bamgbose of Nigeria (1993:28) offers a true reflection on the question of language of instruction in primary schools when he points out that:

Whenever everything possible has been done, there will be small languages which cannot feature in formal education. There will also be others which can support the use of initial literacy only in transition to the use of another language as medium of instruction. This is the reality in many African countries.... (Bamgbose, 1993:28).

Dutcher (2003:8) adheres to this point when she points out that the International Dialogue on Education for All (IDEA) has not addressed the

difficulties children face when they begin schooling in an unfamiliar language, when children are expected to learn a new language and at the same time use the language as LoLT. Dutcher (2003ibid.) further stresses that if international policy planners had faced these issues on a global scale, there would have been progress made in this area but, so far, nothing has been done to change the situation. In a country such as Ethiopia, where there are between 70-80 different languages, language-in-education policy and planning becomes a greater necessity (Bender et al., 1976; Cooper 1976, 1989). Introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected primary schools in Addis Ababa calls for an adequate language-in-education planning that will serve the interest of these learners.

3.7 Language-in-education policy and planning

Language use is key to success for any educational system. It enables people to learn, think creatively, communicate freely and change socially. Education is one field in which the language matters of a country can be generally understood (UNESCO, 1953; Cummins, 1981; 2000; Obanya, 1980; 2004; Bamgbose, 1991; 2000; 2007; Adegbija, 1994a; Prah, 2000a; 2000b; 2002; 2005; Batibo, 2005; Molosiwa, 2005; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000; Nyati-Ramahobo, 2000; Reyes & Moll, 2008; Ndlovu, 2009). Language-in-education policy and planning should be considered an aspect of language promotion. It is a strategy for language management; it presupposes the need for programmes and structures within multilingual policy and planning implementation processes. These processes support the acquisition of language competence for speakers who can or cannot speak and understand certain language(s) (Ndlovu, 2013:9).

Language-in-education planning is also called “acquisition planning” (Cooper, 1989:33) or “language planning in education” (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003:217). Language-in-education planning, according to Cooper, (1983:33) “is one type of language planning activity within a typology of approaches which also includes status, corpus and prestige planning.” Language-in-education planning connects directly to the education sector

and it substantially involves formal education structures. In acquisition planning, efforts are geared towards promoting the learning of a language and increasing the number of users – speakers, writers, listeners, teachers or readers (Cooper, 1989:153). The primary goal of language-in-education planning, according to Djité (2008:72), is to define how language learning programmes are to be fashioned to satisfy the demands of different groups learning languages for various reasons and with different backgrounds. The language needs may be the acquisition of the language as a second or foreign language, a language shift, language revitalization and language maintenance. The education sector provides a good platform for the intergenerational transmission of language; schooling remains one of the most important institutions through which a dedication to preserve and encourage language growth is ensured.

Bamgbose (1991:62) maintains that language-in-education policy and planning of every country seems too obvious to require any elaboration. In addition, language-in-education policy and planning determines the success for any educational system, especially considering its centrality in national human resource development planning. In his description of the intricate relationship between language, politics and education, Joseph (2006:46, 49) observes that if language and politics were a country, education would be its capital: “It would be the great centralized and centralizing metropolis where everybody goes through and from which the country is managed and its future course determined.” Language planning focuses more on education because there is a direct link between the language(s) of education and development. The vision a country has for the future can clearly be seen through the language(s) of instruction. Together therewith, the quality of education is determined by the language-in-education policy. The policy system of every country evolves around the education sector and classrooms are used as a converging point for most of the decisions (Djité, 2008:54).

Language-in-education planning decisions in centralised educational systems focus on the role(s) of the mother tongue, second language and foreign language(s) in education. Decisions on these languages often include issues such as: which language(s) will be taught and used as LoLT in school? When, or at what level will the teaching of these languages commence? For how long or how many years should the language(s) be used in learning or be taught? Who is qualified to teach and for whom, and who is supposed or obliged to learn? Which teaching methods and materials will be used and how will they be prescribed? (Bambose, 1991; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; 2003; Tollefson & Tsui, 2004a; 2004b; Ferguson, 2006; Baldauf, 2008). Language-in-education planning decisions involve issues that relate to the use of a language as a medium of instruction (that is, LoLT) and when taught as a subject.

Three major questions are involved in language-in-education planning when it comes to the role of language in education. Which language is to be considered? What will be the purpose of the language? At what levels will the language be used? Language-in-education planning examines the primary, secondary and tertiary levels and determines which language will best serve the different levels. It focuses on the role of MT in the educational process, the choice of second (L2) or foreign language(s) (FL) as curricular subjects or languages of instruction. Decisions about the management of the curriculum and the study of a foreign language are only taken by the policy makers (Cooper, 1989; Bambose, 1991; 2000; Tollefson, 1991; 2002b; 2006; Corson, 1993; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; 2003; Spolsky & Shohamy, 1999; 2000; Tsui & Tollefson, 2004; Spolsky, 2004; 2009; Mansoor, 2005; Shohamy, 2006; Ferguson, 2006; Baldauf, Li & Zhao, 2008).

3.7.1 Top-down language-in-education planning

The traditional top-down approach to language planning allows for the initial planning to be conceptualised and executed at the macro level, with local levels merely carrying out the implementation. Planning at the macro level

relies strongly on education for the implementation and the spread of the particular reform agenda. Language-in-education planning, policy and management across the globe is dominated by top-down policy making by central government education agencies. Top-down language political transformation is usually successful where the (central) authorities have considerable power. Webb (2009:4) questions whether this approach to language-in-education has also been effective in cases where national governments do not have considerable power and cannot, for example, withstand the power of global economic and political forces directed at establishing liberal democracies. Webb (2009) uses South Africa as an example of this situation.

For more than 14 years starting in 1994, the South African government had made considerable progress in supporting its commitment to multilingualism. Using the constitutional stipulations on language for guidance, it had developed a well-articulated national policy framework; several provincial and local authorities had developed language policies for their communities. In spite of this extensive network, however, there has been no language political transformation: the language of official business and the linguistic landscape has remained and, if anything, is increasingly English.

Multilingualism in South Africa does not reflect the use of local languages in the public and private sectors. The social, economic, educational and political value of African languages of yester year has remained unchanged in modern South Africa (Webb, 2009:4). This researcher concludes that it begs the question: "why has linguistic transformation not been successful in post-1994 South Africa." It is worth noting that in recent years, there has been attempts by the government of South Africa to introduce some African languages as mediums of instruction in some schools in South Africa. According to Cape Town Magazine, February 2017, the Department of Basic Education initiated a pilot programme that introduced a third language (Xhosa) into primary schools' curriculum. In 2005, a ministerial report for the

development of African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education declared that some African languages will be used in some universities as mediums of instruction (Department of Education (DoE), 2005).

A top-down approach to language-in-education policy does not always take into consideration the views of the community of speakers and learners of the language and the teachers who are directly concerned. The learners who must speak and learn in the language in schools are usually only seen as implementers of the policy (Alisajahbana, 1971; Karam, 1974; Alexander, 1992; Brann, 1983; Khubchandani, 1984; Hornberger, 2006; 2009; Jernudd & Neustupny, 1991; Webb, 2009; 2010; Benson, 2005; Shohamy, 2006; Trudell, 2006; Lewis & Trudell, 2008; Mwaniki, 2010; Cuvelier, 2010; Du Plessis, 2010). Language-in-education planning, policy and management are fashioned according to the objectives of the government. Syllabi, methodology and teaching material are designed or created and approved to meet the demands of those in power. For example, English was given the status of an official language in Rwanda in 1994 and later replaced French as a LoLT to meet the objectives of those in power.

Despite the multilingual nature of many of the world's countries, top-down language-in-education policies have meant that learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds must use common materials and teachers have to dwell only on the syllabus. Top-down language-in-education policy participants can be defined as "people with all the authority and power who make language related decisions for the rest of the country. These decisions are, more often than not, made with little or no consultation with the people, whose language beliefs or practices are to be modified, changed or confirmed." Language planning in this case is a largely bureaucratic, centralised and government oriented activity.

3.7.2 Bottom-up language-in-education planning

Bottom-up approach to language planning is defined as an alternative to the top-down approach to language planning. It can also be called a “local context planning, bottom-to-top language planning or micro level language planning.” It is essentially community-based, from the grassroots and involves a democratic kind of language planning; it is language planning from below or from the masses and a non-governmental language planning. Bottom-up language planning is said to be self-empowering as it takes into consideration the opinions of individuals and communities before decisions are taken. From this angle, language planning can be seen as people or community planning with emphasis on education, the economic and socio-political development of the people. Language planning and development should empower and free concerned speakers (Baldauf, 2005; 2008; Hornberger, 2006b; 2009; Bambose, 1989; 2000; Chumbow, 1987; Alexander, 1992; Webb, 2002; 2009; Spolsky, 2004; 2009; Shohamy, 2006; Phillipson, 2007; Lewis & Trudell, 2008; Ndhlovu, 2010).

In bottom-up language planning, change can only be accepted from individuals, organizations and other non-governmental institutions that represent the speakers (Phillipson, 2007; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008; Lewis & Trudell, 2008; Ndhlovu, 2010; Webb 2009). Bottom-up language planning is characterised by two processes. Firstly, individuals are conscious of language-related threats that might affect the communities. These threats may be the dominance of a more powerful language, the exclusion of their language from school, any perceived threats to the community’s linguistic identity as well as an intergenerational shift to a dominant language. Grassroots initiatives seek to redress social inequality, injustice or inequity. Bottom-up initiatives therefore occur when communities become aware that they are being dominated, marginalized and disempowered. It usually happens when they realize that their basic linguistic human and educational rights are being denied. Language, then, becomes a converging point for

activism (Hatoss, 2008; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008; Webb, 2009; Ndhlovu, 2010; Du Plessis, 2010).

Current studies in language planning are particularly concerned that bottom-up approaches may be more successful than top-down approaches. They are designed to cater for the needs of those who speak the language, but whose voices are not heard in the corridors of power or in policy-making committees. (Alexander, 1992; Adegbija, 1993; Baldauf, 1994; 2005; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Dauenhauer & Dauehauer, 1998; Webb, 2002; 2009; 2010; Crystal, 2000; Adegbija, 1997; 2001; Strubell, 2001; Heugh, 2003; Benson, 2005; Trudell, 2006; Lewis & Trudell, 2008; Hatoss, 2008. These scholars argue that a mixture of local and internationally motivated strategies will uphold minority groups in multilingual contexts to guarantee their survival and growth. Scholars who share this thinking describe bottom-up approaches as strong foundations for solid programmes. They need support from enabling policies or legislation at the official level. These policies must shift from an assimilation to a multilingual and multicultural policy which promotes ethnic and linguistic diversity. These policies need to encourage and ensure linguistic human rights.

According to Webb (2010), bottom-up promotional activities keep communities on the alert and they become aware of domination, marginalisation and being disempowered, realising that their basic human rights are not recognised meaningfully. In such a scenario, activists in the community will seek instruments for mobilising the community, encouraging them to empower themselves, and to promote their own interests. Often, the language of the community is used for these purposes and in the process, language movements are initiated. This happened with Afrikaans in the case of South Africa, particularly after 1910 (with the rise and expansion of Afrikaner nationalism). Afrikaans was used to gain recognition for the basic rights of the Afrikaans community. Most importantly, bottom-up language planning recognises the communicative needs of the language users in the community.

Scholars argue that the government should not be directly concerned with the formulation and implementation of language-in-education policies. Instead, these processes should be carried out by civil society stakeholders. They should be the linguistic responsibility of the citizens. The civil society and the concerned speakers of the language should be responsible for taking decisions (Alexander, 1992; Baldauf, 1994; 2005; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Dauenhauer & Dauenhauer, 1998; Dorian, 1998; Webb, 2009; 2010; Crystal, 2000; Adegbija, 1997; 2001; Strubell, 2001; Trudell, 2006; Lewis & Trudell, 2008; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008; Baldauf & Hatoss, 2008). In this regard, Pluddemann (2013:45) observes that teachers are placed at the core of language policy and planning activity. Their proximity to the grassroots makes them the primary language policy makers. A pronouncement of whether, or to what extent, a policy has been successful can only be answered with reference to what practically happens in the classroom. Language policies are therefore multidimensional, they go beyond written sentences, and can only be understood by researching actual practices that occur during the teaching and learning process (Pluddemann, 2013 *ibid*).

3.7.3 Challenges in language-in-education policy and planning

Multilingualism poses serious challenges for language-in-education policy makers, especially when it concerns choosing a LoLT. In multilingual settings, the choice of the language of instruction for public educational systems raises the most difficult and complicated educational question: What combination of instruction in the learners' native language(s) and in a L2 or FL will ensure that learners gain both effective content education as well as the L2 or FL skills necessary for higher education and employment? (Tollefson, 1991; 2002; 2006; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, 2003; Prah, 2000a; 2005; Brock-Utne & Hopson, 2005; Tollefson & Tsui; 2004a; Ferguson, 2006).

Secondly, African language programme designers do not always keep up with contemporary research on the cognitive development of children.

These designers do not follow up on how children use language to learn all areas of the curriculum. Heugh (*ibid.*) further stresses that, since such programme designs did not originate in African settings, they do not accommodate the multilingual nature of the continent.

Finally, Bamgbose (1990:98-105) assesses that the negative attitudes towards unsuccessful language policy designs in Africa result in the loss of confidence on the feasibility of multilingual education policies and the marginalisation of indigenous African languages. Bamgbose (*ibid.*) goes further to contend that all the negative attitudes and prejudices against African indigenous languages lead to wrong decisions when it comes to deciding on the medium of instruction in schools. Unfortunately, without solid backgrounds in the sociolinguistic nature of the continent, such uninformed attitudes are common with those in power and many of their expatriate counterparts, notably, economists and social scientists. Such attitudes also influence the attitude of parents, teachers and learners, who have a direct interest in education and quality (Dereje 2010:30).

Language policy practices across Africa seem to be a situation of failing to grasp the right moment at the right time to expand on quality education for the greater part of the population. Baguinan's (1999) concern can be applied to the Ethiopian situation where Afaan Oromoo learners in primary education in Addis Ababa are expected to learn Amharic as a new language and at the same time use it as their LoLT. Gobena (2014:210) states that the language policy in Ethiopia has a negative impact on Afaan Oromoo, even though it is the language spoken by the majority of the population. This language has a low status in Ethiopia, whereas Amharic, which is used as the national and official language, has gained a higher prestige in the country.

The complexity of choosing a language of instruction partly relates to the lack of congruence between home and school language. This means that policy makers at most school systems have to face some difficult planning questions to choose the best language of instruction. It is often the case that

all, or nearly all, the pupils come to school speaking either a local language or a language quite different from the language that schools use. In such situations, “there is a wide range of alternatives” (Spolsky and Shohamy 2000:12). At the one extreme is the submersion approach in which the majority or powerful language is used for all children from the beginning of their school year. On the other extreme, immersion seems to be an acceptable approach in education that helps children to acquire an additional language.

Submersion requires minority children to use the majority language. Hamers and Blanc (2000:43) maintain that “language stimulates cognitive frames for its users.” Hence, the use of many languages provides a variety of cognitive frames from which learners can choose.

3.8 Frameworks of mother tongue based and multilingual education

According to Regoniel (2010), a conceptual framework is used when concepts of literature are connected to investigate and establish evidence that supports the need for research questions. To understand the policy, problems and strategies used in Addis Ababa for the implementation of MTB-MLE, it is important to get an understanding of the previous MLE (multilingual and/or bilingual education) theories and their relevance to the Ethiopian education context. MT and MLE are keys to academic success for learners. This section discusses four ideas that form the conceptual framework for this study, namely:

1. Spolsky’s (2004, 2009) theory of language policy, supported by Ricento and Hornberger’s (2006) language planning and policy;
2. Cummins’ threshold and interdependence theories (1978);
3. bilingual education models by Skuttab-Kangas and Garcia (1995); and
4. additive and subtractive bilingualism (Skuttnabb-Kangas, 1988 & Luckett, 1993).

3.8.1 Spolsky's theory of language policy (supported by Ricento and Hornberger's language planning and policy)

Ricento and Hornberger's (2006) language planning and policy (LPP) model considers actors at the national, institutional, and interpersonal levels. An examination of each level of this LPP model demonstrates reform implementation from the beginning to the end. It begins from the national to the community level, and its interpretation usually influences implementation at the classroom level. Personnel from all three levels (national, institutional, and interpersonal) interpret the language policy goals and objectives, and then negotiate the implementation of the policy process within the different levels.

The LPP model considers language planning and policy implementation as a multidirectional process that considers both top-down and bottom-up language planning models. In this study, the national level refers to the language policy statements issued by the Ethiopian government and executed by administrators at the head of the different education bureaus. From figure 2.1 below, the institutional level refers to parents who form part of the community, and the interpersonal level refers to teachers and learners as actors in the classroom. The dotted lines and concentric circles demonstrate movement and interactions at these different levels of the model in language policy interpretation.

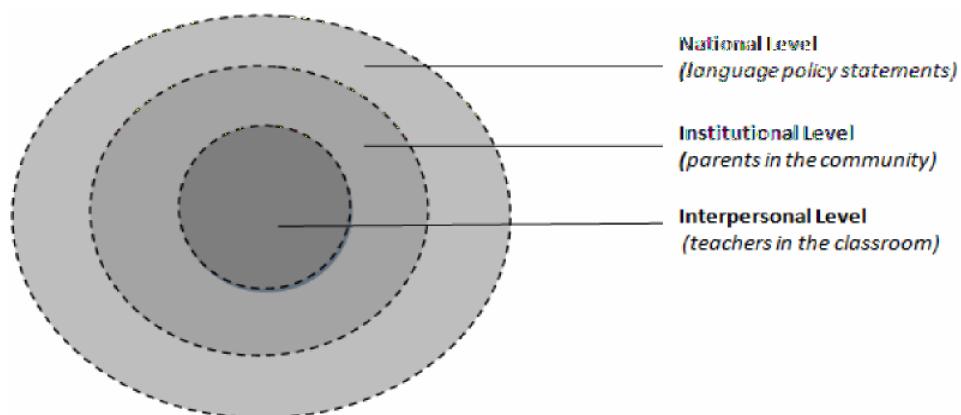


Figure 3.1 Ricento and Hornberger's Language Planning and Policy Model

Source: Ricento & Hornberger 2006

Before Ricento and Hornberger's influential LPP model, Spolsky (2004) had identified three separate but interrelated components that influence language policy: beliefs, practices and management (see Figure 2.2) Spolsky (2009) then proposed a theory of language policy to analyse the choices individual speakers make according to the patterns that are governed by rule and recognised by the speech community (or communities). Spolsky's theory complements and enhances Ricento and Hornberger's theory by assuming that "language policy is a social phenomenon constructed in a variety of domains, including homes and schools." The third assumption dwells on the influence of internal and external forces on language choice. Spolsky (2009) suggested that these may come from within or outside of the above domains and may be language-related or not.

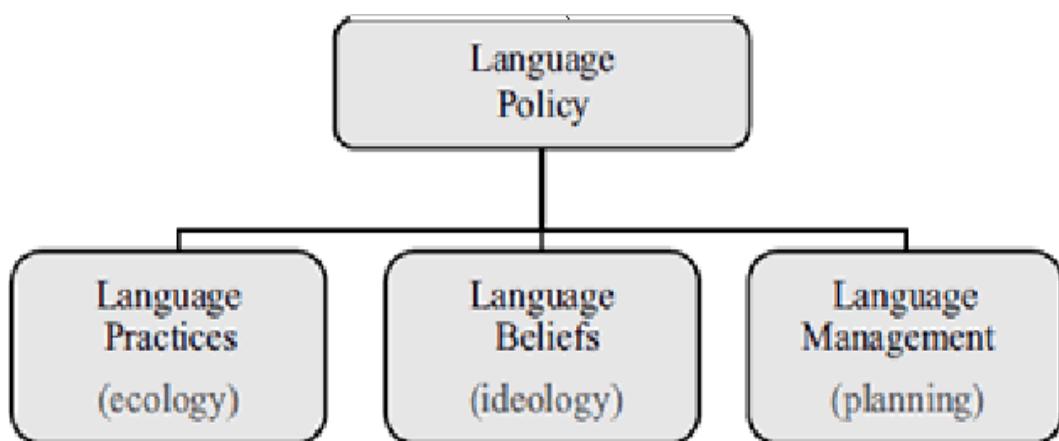


Figure 3.2 Spolsky's language policy components

Source: Spolsky's Language Policy, 2004

The three components of language policy as in the diagram can be analysed in greater detail. On the one hand, beliefs, sometimes referred to as ideology, explain the values held by members of a speech community. Practices, on the other hand, refer to the language selections that people actually make. This is often described in terms of the sound, word, and grammatical choices made within a speech community, as well as the societal rules about when and where different varieties of language should be used. More so, practices are shaped by the complex ecology of

language or, in other words, the interactions between language and the social environment (Haugen, 1972; Spolsky, 2004). They may include decisions made by individuals to use a particular language in one setting, but not in another. Finally, management is defined as any effort(s) made to influence language practices. Sometimes referred to as language planning, this factor stresses on the direct intervention intended to shape the way in which a policy is implemented. While Spolsky (2004) pointed out that language managers can include any person or entity that attempts to affect the language choices of other people, management is most commonly associated with individuals or documents possessing legal authority. An example could include written legislation in support of a particular language policy.

The multidirectional nature of language interpretation and implementation is a necessity, but it is a complicated process. It suggests that language policy is not simply defined by national-level statements. Rather, it is the teachers who are specifically noted for their role in reform implementation. García (2009) points out that:

It is the educator who cooks and stirs the pot. The ingredients might be given at times, and even a recipe might be provided, but if the educator is not in class the pot will not be cooked. It is the educator who makes policy search distinct according to the conditions in which they are served, and thus always evolving the process.

While the role of educators at the interpersonal level of the (Ricento and Hornberger) LPP model is given much attention in theory and practice, considerable less attention has been given to the relationship between teachers, learners, and parents within the same community.

3.8.2 Cummins' threshold and interdependence theories

Most theories and models used in MLE are developed from the bilingualism point of view. These theories focus on learning first in the MT (L1) before transitioning to a L2 which, in most African countries, is English. The data analysis and interpretations in Chapter 5 of this study will also be informed by Cummins' threshold and interdependence theories (1978). These

theories deal with the cognitive effect of different MLE education approaches and the relationship between language-proficiency and academic achievements.

To investigate the challenges faced by learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and are going through their primary studies in Addis Abba, this researcher examined the current teaching methods used in multilingual classes, and analysed the possibilities of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other languages as a LoLT. This study therefore engages critically with these theories in a bid to explore the case in point, which is the learning conditions of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo. Cummins (1978) provides various theories on bi/MLE, as discussed below. They account for the successes and failures of majority and minority language learners alike in various educational programmes. The threshold and interdependence hypotheses form the basis of Cummins' theoretical framework.

3.8.2.1 Cummins' threshold hypothesis

The threshold hypothesis deals with the cognitive and academic outcomes of various programmes relating to bilingual skills (Baker, 1988). It states that there is a minimum level of competence (or threshold) required for a learner to develop in the L1 in order to gain cognitive development when exposed to L2 learning or instruction (Cummins, 1978). This implies that a high level of competence in L1 will lead to a high level of competence in L2. A level of competence below the minimum threshold in L1 will not yield any L2 benefits. This indicates that, if a child were to achieve a high level of bilingualism in both L1 and L2, greater cognitive development will also be reached.

First Language Proficiency	Second Language Proficiency
	Upper Level (Additive Bilingualism / Proficiency Bilingualism) Age-appropriate competence in two or more languages: Positive Cognitive Effects.
	Second Threshold Level/Higer Threshold
	Mid Level (Dominant Bilingualism / Partial Bilingualism) Age-appropriate competence in one but not two languages: Neither Positive nor Negative Cognitive Effects.
	First Threshold Level/Lower Threshold
	Lower Level (Semilingualism / Limited bilingualism) Low level of competence in both languages: Negative Cognitive Effects.

Figure 3.3 The cognitive effect of different types of bilingual education

Source: (Cummins 1981)

The hypothesis suggests that the extent to which a learner develops bilingualism will have either positive or negative consequences for a child. Cummins asserts that those children who perform below average in bilingual competence are “semilingual” because they fail to achieve competence in both languages, and therefore they experience negative cognitive consequences. Yet those who achieve the higher level of bilingual competence are regarded as having achieved “additive bilingualism” because they are competent in both languages, and they experience positive cognitive effects. Then there are learners who are competent in only one language. Cummins (1978) classifies this situation as partial bilingualism. These learners experience neither positive nor negative cognitive effects.

Cummins (1979) maintains that, on the one hand, learners who achieve the higher level of bilingual competence, have acquired relevant cognitive skills that will help them in academic performance. On the other hand, learners who reach only at the lower level of bilingual competence, will not be able to achieve academic success. Cummins (1979) also maintains that the threshold can be different according to the type of bilingual situation and the level of cognitive development of an individual. Cummins (ibid.) developed the threshold hypothesis to explain the situation and the reasons why some

learners achieve cognitive academic growth and other learners do not. This is because the children are either partial bilinguals or have attained a low level of competence in the first language, so they will not acquire the relevant cognitive skills, or they have acquired a high level of competence in the first language and will be able to achieve academic success.

3.8.2.2 Cummins' developmental interdependence hypothesis

The interdependence hypothesis deals with the functional interdependence between L2 and L1. It states that, "the level of competence of L2 of a child depends on or is related to the level of competence the child has in L1 before exposure to L2 for cognitive and academic language proficiency achievement, whereas both languages are independent for surface (communicative) fluency" (Cummins, 1978). The theory describes the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement. It means that the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes developed in the L1 can be easily transferred to the L2 learning or acquisition process.

Cummins (1978) concludes that a child must acquire academic language proficiency in L1 to transfer such skills to L2. This will in turn help a child to attain a high level of competence in both languages. The hypothesis also states that if L1 competence is not sufficiently developed before introducing a child to L2 instruction, both languages may not develop to enable a learner to attain high academic achievement. This also implies that the inability of the learner to acquire cognitive language development in the L1 in a case where a child is sufficiently exposed to a L2, may hinder development in the L1, which in turn will lead to poor development of L2 and poor academic performance (Cummins, 1978).

According to Cummins (2008), after the early years of schooling, academic language proficiency develops from communicative or surface fluency; this is referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS). This implies that surface fluency or conversational fluency is acquired through social interaction or daily communication with speakers of the language,

whereas academic language proficiency is attained through formal education. The immersion programme of Canada revealed that the level of exposure to L2 determines the level of development of the same language at school. Therefore, the mastery of L2 depends on the extent to which learners are exposed to the language outside a school situation. Immersion programmes represent one of the most widely spread and most successful forms of strong bilingual education (Baker, 2001; 2008). The threshold and developmental interdependence hypotheses thus suggest that linguistic factors are very important in understanding the learners' language behaviour in educational contexts. The two hypotheses influenced the distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS), and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as discussed below.

3.8.2.3 BICS and CALP distinction

The distinction between BICS and CALP is now universally accepted. This distinction is important because it indicates to language practitioners and language policy makers the need to differentiate between conversational language skills, and academic language skills, so that valuable language-in-education decisions could be made. In this light, the role of MT or L1 in attaining language proficiency to be able to transfer language skills to L2, is discussed.

To assess the language proficiency of learners, both the surface fluency/conversational fluency (BICS), and the academic language competence/ level of proficiency necessary for carrying out specific academic tasks (CALP), must be taken into consideration. For a LoLT to be used successfully, learners must attain CALP. For learners to succeed in their academic endeavors, there must be an expansion in grammar, vocabulary, and discourse analysis that is far beyond what is required for a mere social conversation.

According to Cummins (2008), BICS has to do with the ability to speak and understand a language or conversational language skills, in contrast with

CALP, which has to do with the ability to use a language to attain academic success or cognitive and academic language skills. As stated by Cummins (2008), it is easier for children to acquire BICS than CALP. He stresses that it takes a very long time for learners to attain CALP. He argues that the learners' conversational fluency may hide their failure to acquire academic language skills. This explains why a significant number of learners and their parents do not know they have not yet acquired the required language skills to reach academic success.

According to Cummins (1984), the theoretical framework above (interdependence theory) applies only to bilingual education programmes. This implies that it may not be useful in other contexts. As a result, Cummins refined the terms "BICS" and "CALP" by developing the continuum model described below:

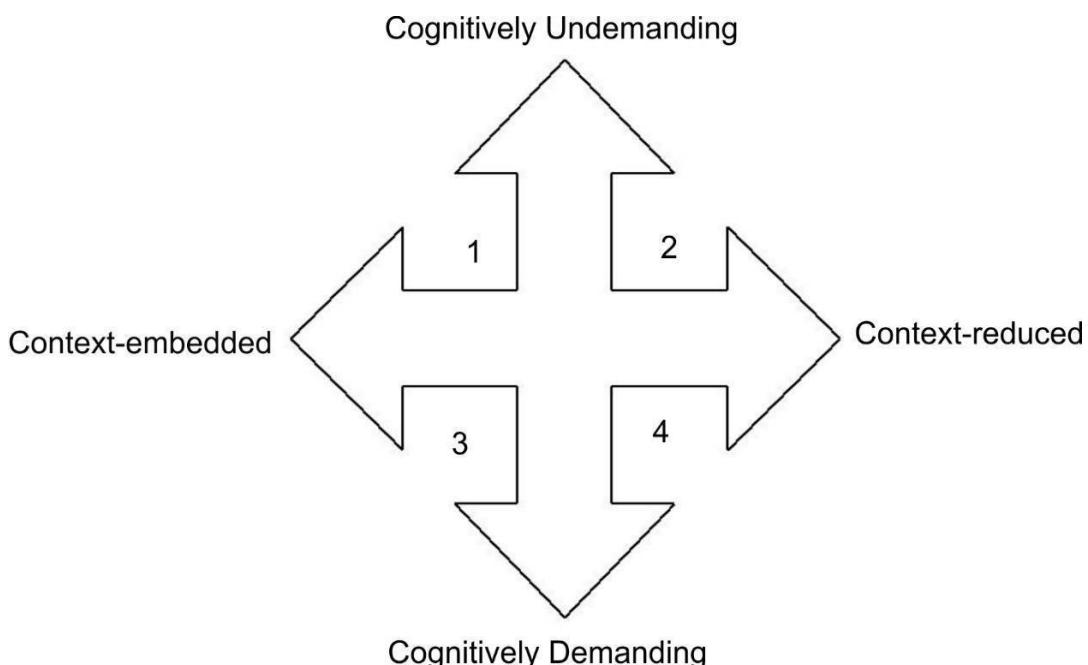


Figure 3.4 The continuum model

(Source: Cummins, 1981)

Figure 2.4 indicates the context-embedded versus context-reduced communication dimensions and the cognitively undemanding versus cognitively demanding communication dimensions. Cummins (1981) uses

this continuum model to explain the situation in a L2 learning classroom. This model offers two dimensions that concern the communicative proficiency of learners in a L2 learning classroom. Cummins (1981), maintains that in a classroom situation where learners do not understand the subject content and cannot communicate well with their teacher, is said to be context-embedded because there are few, if any, cues to support the interaction. The child can, however, reflect more understanding as he/she participates effectively with his/her teachers. According to Cummins (1981), context-reduced is when communication supports are available for learners' interaction. In this situation, learners are able to participate and communicate during lessons; CALP is achieved. In context-embedded communication, only BICS can be achieved because learners do not receive communication supports and are not able to participate during lessons.

Furthermore, Cummins (1981) contends that in a situation where the language is underdeveloped and only conversational language is attained, the situation is cognitively undemanding. Such knowledge may only be necessary for interacting with family and friends, but for academic success, the situation is cognitively demanding. In cognitively demanding communication, learners are required to "analyse" and "synthesise" information before CALP can be achieved. It is vital that language practitioners and language policy makers understand the difference between conversational language skills and academic language skills so that they can make valuable decisions that influence the performances of learners.

Cummins (1981) further acknowledges that some academic language skills require social communication skills to develop. This implies that CALP may develop in non-academic, highly contextualized conversation, which means that CALP requires cognitively demanding communicative skills, whereas BICS requires cognitively undemanding communication.

3.8.2.4 The iceberg representation of language proficiency theory

Cummins (1981) uses the “iceberg” representation of language proficiency theory to distinguish between BICS and CALP. According to the theory, the “iceberg” represents the “visible” language proficiencies of pronunciation, basic vocabulary and grammar, which are manifested or can easily be identified in everyday interpersonal communicative situations. These are above the surface, but the cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) required to manipulate or reflect upon these surface features outside of immediate, interpersonal contexts, is “below the surface” (Cummins, 1981:21).

This theory confirms that learners acquire BICS first, and CALP later, as it takes a shorter period of time to acquire conversational skills (BICS). This theory maintains that children may take two to three years to learn a new language, but for the purpose of academic use, they will effectively need five or more years. Within this theory, the interdependence hypothesis is refined to “Common Underlying Proficiency,” which is discussed below.

3.8.2.5 Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) and Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP)

According to Cummins (1981), separate underlying proficiency (SUP) assumes that the proficiency in L1 is separate from that of L2. Cummins (1981) further indicates that each language occupies a certain amount of space in the brain, which makes it difficult for both languages to develop simultaneously. This implies that there is no direct link between proficiency in L1 and proficiency in L2. CUP, by contrast, assumes that development in one language can promote the development of both languages. According to Cummins (1981), L1 and L2 are processed in the same operating system of the brain. As a result, a learner can develop the reading, writing, listening and speaking proficiencies through both L1 and L2 at the same time. This implies that cognitive and academic literacy skills are transferable between L1 and L2.

3.8.2.6 Criticisms

Cummins' theories have received some criticism from different scholars. . Romaine (1989), for example, argues that the process and the situation of transferring language skills between L1 and L2 is not as easy as Cummins shows. Romaine (1989) further indicates that it is not easy to determine when L1 skills will transfer to L2 and to measure whether the learner has reached CALP or not. She bases her argument on the research conducted in Canada, which revealed that children who were exposed to French for a long time still performed poorly in English in the French-immersion programmes.

The interdependence theory has also received criticism from scholars such as Canale (1984), Genesee (1984), Spolsky (1984), Troike (1984) and Wald (1984). According to Genesee (1984), social factors also play an important role in the school context. Genesee argues that in Cummins' theoretical framework, linguistic factors are considered to be more important than social factors. This implies that, according to Cummins, how learners use language in the schools has nothing to do with how learners use language at home or in the community. According to Spolsky (1984), the problem with Cummins' use of the terms BICS and CALP is that he uses acronyms that are not easy to understand. Spolsky (1984) suggests that Cummins should use full concepts in ordinary language which can be explained and easily understood. The main problem, according to Spolsky, is the way Cummins uses language that is difficult to understand and interpret.

Troike (1984) maintains that the hypothesis -- which states that CALP has to do with the ability to speak and understand a language in a non-academic and highly contextualized conversation, or the ability to attain academic success via cognitive and academic language skills -- is not valid. He argues that not only linguistic factors affect academic language achievement, but also cultural and social factors. He points out that besides linguistic factors, the home and the cultural background of learners can also affect language acquisition and academic achievement.

Troike (1984) however acknowledges instances where the concept CALP has been proven, for example, findings of Finnish immigrants in Sweden and Mexican immigrants in the USA. Generally, critics state that the theory does not consider other factors that affect learner achievement such as cultural, social, political, and attitudinal factors. The theory also ignores the socio-economic factors that distinguishes one school from the other. These factors easily influence academic achievement. It can also be concluded that, this particular theory was designed for transition or an early switch from MT to learning in a language such as English. It simply suggests that a solid foundation in the first language prepares children for learning English. Important to note is the fact that a child must know a native/local language first, as this makes it easier to attain a desired goal of learning in English. This theory shows practical possibilities for MLE and, as a result, it is worth considering together with other factors. Notwithstanding the fact that the theory of Cummins deals with issues relating to language competency, it is also relevant for the choice of language in education that will enable learners succeed in school.

3.8.2.7 Blaming the victim

Cummins (1981) maintains that most teachers of minorities' children consider bilingualism to be a problem that causes confusion in children's thinking, and that it needs to be eradicated. American children were often punished for speaking their home languages in class and around the school. This is a strategy used to make learners feel that their language is inferior or not good enough. As a result, of this kind of treatment, children in bilingual education programmes performed poorly and many of them lost self-confidence and became emotionally destabilised (Cummins, 1981). Despite the bad treatment of these minority language-speaking children that might have caused their failure, the fault is on the attitudes and strategies used to implement their bilingualism. According to Cummins (1981), research findings revealed that the brain is capable of taking in one language only at any point time. Cummins (1981) further explains that the

poor performance of learners is not because of bilingualism, but it is caused by an attempt by schools to eradicate bilingualism.

Cummins (1981) points out that it may take two to three years to acquire conversational skills, but at least five or more years to acquire academic language proficiency. A research by Heugh (2002) in South Africa confirmed this assertion. The findings of this study indicate that learners who perform better in African countries, particularly in South Africa, take a longer time before switching to a L2 in education. According to Heugh (2002:174), many researchers in South Africa reveal that the high failure rate of most of the children is a result of the fact that children “plunge too quickly into English without strong support in the school for their home languages.” Ikome (2011) concurs when she argues that learners in the transitional Grade 4 class are still adjusting to additional learning areas as they have to face different educators for the various learning areas, and are under pressure to work more independently (see 5.8.3.2b). Learners in Grade 4 are therefore faced with two educational challenges: acquiring English as a Second Language (L2), and mastering (amongst other skills) new words in other subjects in a language which is not their MT (Ikome 2011). Research findings such as this should influence the decisions of language planners and policy makers of every nation.

3.8.2.8 Zone of proximal development

Cummins' theory concerns the learners of minorities' school failure, and the relative failure of previous education programmes such as compensatory education and bilingual education. Cummins makes three important statements in relation to these:

1. The first statement is that, “language minority students instructed in the minority language for all or part of the school day perform as well in English academic skills as comparable students instructed totally through English” (Cummins 1986:22).

2. The second statement proposes that, “to the extent that instruction through a minority language is effective in developing academic proficiency in the minority language, transfer of this proficiency to the majority language will occur given adequate exposure and motivation to learn the language” (Cummins 1986:22).
3. The third statement concerns the context of the learner, community and schools, as power and status relationships should be considered. This implies that the home-school exposure to language plays a very important role in children’s academic performance. Children need to be exposed to the LoLT first at home before using this language at school; in this way, academic progress will be achieved. When the language spoken at home is also the LoLT in school, the child is confident, can express him/herself with confidence and is able to fully participate during classroom activities. The third statement also implies that there are languages for minority learners that are regarded as inferior. Speakers of these languages are disadvantaged even before they can go to school because their languages are inferior to the languages of the majority learners.

Cummins (1986) observes that there are four major characteristics of schools that determine the successes or failure of minority language learners; he calls on all institutions to maintain policies and plans that will develop the L1/MT of the child in the school system:

- The extent to which the school incorporates home language and culture into the school curriculum. It implies that if the language and culture of the minority learners are preserved and recognised, the same learners will perform better than if their languages were to be ignored.
- The extent to which parents can be involved in their children’s education. This means that in programmes that do not allow parents to participate in the learners’ schooling, the learners are

likely to perform poorly than in schools that allow parents to participate.

- The extent to which education promotes the learners' inner desire to learn and participate in the classroom; and not just to be passive recipients. This implies that learners must be encouraged to show that they are knowledge seekers by actively being involved in the classroom activities.
- The extent to which the exclusion of minority-language learners can prevent learners from identifying their problem areas. It only seeks to dominate and disable learners who do not speak the dominant language.

The following is a graphical representation of how minority-language learners can understand the root(s) of their problems in the educational system or curriculum of their institutions.

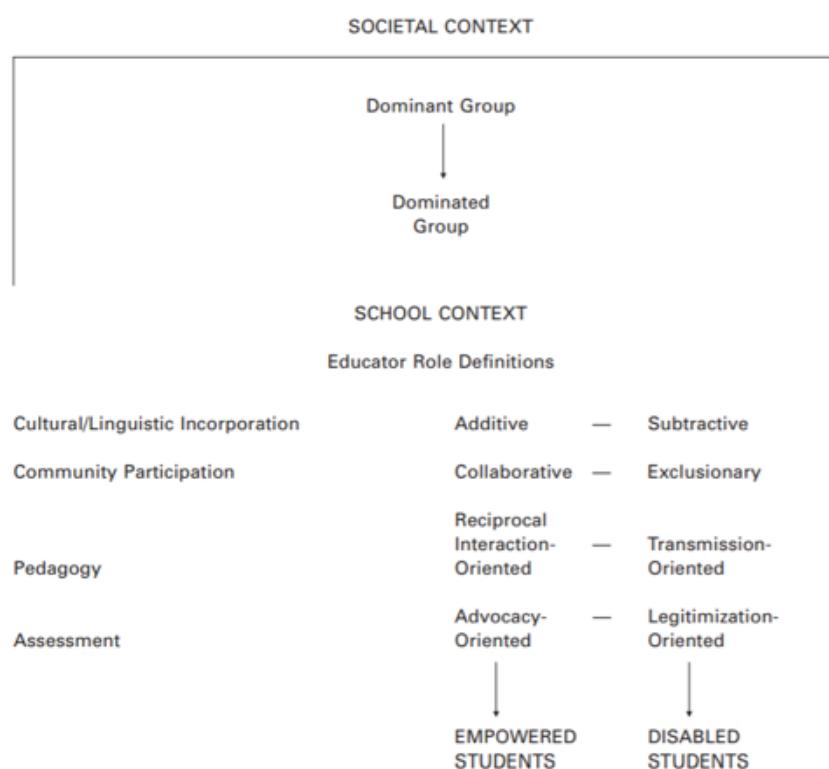


Figure 3.5 Empowerment of minority students: A theoretical framework

Source: (Cummins, 1986)

In conclusion, Cummins' theories of the threshold and interdependence hypothesis clarify the importance of MTE and language proficiency in the early years of schooling for every child, the difference between attaining BICS and attaining CALP and the effect of using a dominant language on minority-language speaking learners. These theories also account for the outcomes of bi/multilingual programmes in primary schools.

3.8.3 Bi/multilingual education programmes (Bilingual education models by Skuttab-Kangas and Garcia)

Bi/MLE programmes can promote different levels of bilingualism among students. Freeman (2004: 42) argues that, "part of the confusion about bilingual education is that the same term is actually used to refer to a wide range of programs that may have different ideological orientations toward linguistic and cultural diversity, different target populations, and different goals for those target populations." A distinction is usually made between strong forms, weak forms and non-forms of bi/MLE (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000: 579).

Skutnabb-Kangas (2000:580) explains that strong forms of bi/MLE "promote (high levels of) multilingualism and multi-literacy for all participants in the programme, regardless of whether these represent linguistic minorities or majorities." Weak forms of bi/MLE employ two different media of instruction. However, they preach monolingualism or at least a strong dominance of the majority language. Those bi/MLE programmes which fall into these categories will be critically evaluated in the following sections.

3.8.3.1 Strong forms of bilingual education

3.8.3.1.1 Immersion bilingual model

Skutnabb-Kangas and Cummins (1988) define an immersion bilingual model as a programme in which linguistic majority children with a high status mother tongue and who are highly motivated choose to be instructed through the medium of a foreign language. Immersion programmes

represent one of the most widely-spread and most successful forms of strong bilingual education (Baker, 2001: 208). In classes where the majority of children speak the same mother tongue and where the teacher is bilingual, the children can, at the beginning use their own language as LoLT before switching to a FL or L2; their mother tongue faces no danger of no development or of being replaced by the language of instruction - an *additive* language learning situation (Skutnabb-Kangas, 614).

In an immersion model the target language which is usually a L2 language is used both as a language subject and as LoLT (Baker, 2006). The focus of this programme is to make children "bilingual and bicultural without loss of achievement" (Baker, 2006:245). Immersion can be done in many ways. There is total immersion (all subjects at all levels are done in L2), partial immersion (50% of the curriculum in MT and 50% in L2), two-way immersion (where both minority and majority learners are found in the same classroom), and there is early, late or middle immersion (depends on the age of the learner) (Baker, 2006). This model has been successful in Canada where English-speaking parents encouraged their children to learn through French. Children developed high-level competence in L2 (French) without replacing their L1 (English). According to Macdonald (1990:93), this model has been a failure in Anglophone countries because children do not have a sufficiently literate background or parental and cultural-environmental support for learning through the L2.

There are different types of immersion programmes. Children enrolled in early immersion programmes are taught through a foreign language from the very beginning of their education at kindergarten level. Delayed immersion, on the other hand, usually starts at some point in elementary school (Freeman, 2004: 45). A further distinction is possible between total and partial immersion. Total immersion occurs when 100 percent of the curriculum is taught through the medium of a foreign language, whereas in partial immersion a foreign language of instruction is employed in 50 to 90 percent of all school lessons (Freeman, 2004: 45). Evaluations of immersion

programs have shown that initially, children's mother tongue competence is lower than that of non-immersion pupils. By grade 5 at the latest, however, immersion children have caught up and no significant difference in mother tongue competence can be detected (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000: 616). French immersion programmes were effectively carried out among English-native speakers in Canada and variations of this form of bilingual education have been applied to different linguistic contexts around the world, such as, for example, Spain, Finland, Australia and the UK (Baker, 2001: 208).

Immersion programmes are strong forms of bilingual education because they encourage additive bilingualism. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000: 612) claims that immersion programmes are the only educational programmes where bilingualism for majority language-speaking learners has been attained on a very high scale. Despite its highly positive outcomes, immersion education has some drawbacks, for example, a majority of immersion students do not effectively communicate in the foreign language which they have successfully acquired at school outside the school. In fact, Baker (2001: 233) claims that "potential does not necessarily lead to production" and that "skill does not ensure street speech." This type of bilingual education, however, promotes both majority and minority languages and aims at multilingualism and multi-literacy.

In the two-way bilingual education immersion models both groups of majority and minority learners learn together in the same class. This model intends to develop bilingual fluency in both languages and to encourage cultural appreciation. An example of this model is bilingual immersion schools in California in the United States. The main objective of this model is to make all learners equally bilingual and bi-literate (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). Such programmes also lead to high levels of proficiency in both L1 and L2, positive intercultural attitudes and behaviour, and better academic achievement in all grades (Baker, 2006). According to Baker (2006), this model includes two-way immersion, developmental bilingual programme, dual language education, bilingual immersion, double

immersion, and interlocking education. This model also achieves additive multilingualism.

3.8.3.1.2 Heritage language education model

Heritage Language Education or “Development maintenance” bilingual education also promotes additive bilingualism. This bilingual education programme offers minority language children instruction in their home, native or heritage language. The majority language is included in the curriculum and taught as a foreign language. Children originating from the same linguistic community are put in the same class to facilitate learning. Heritage Language Education intends to create full bilingualism among minority language children (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000: 601; Baker, 2001: 209); it advocates for the teaching of the majority language and, therefore, aims to create full and additive bilingualism. Furthermore, Wright and Kelly-Holmes (1998) explain that these programmes will have a positive effect not only on minority-language children’s academic achievement but also in boosting their psychological sense of self. Baker (2001: 238) concurs with this claim and maintains that school performance does not decrease among Heritage Language Education children.

Psychologically, MTE builds self-confidence and a sense of cultural identity in learners (Baker, 2001: 238). If majority language competence among pupils enrolled in Heritage Language Education is tested, they perform at least as successfully as their peers from mainstream monolingual schools (Baker, 2001: 239). Baker (2001: 239) concludes that an increase in self-esteem and self-confidence seems to be the reason for the development of intellectual skills.

3.8.3.1.3 Dual language or two-way bilingual model.

A further strong form of bilingual education is the dual language or two-way bilingual programme where a bilingual teacher is supposed to teach a class of approximately the same number of minority and majority language speakers (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000: 618). Both languages become the media of instruction with the aim of creating a balanced type of bilingualism

among pupils (Baker, 2001:212). This educational programme is different from a transitional bilingual education programme because it considers language as a resource rather than a problem in education (Freeman, 2004: 44). Skutnabb-Kangas (2000: 618) argues that, “two way models thus combine in one classroom a maintenance model for minorities and an immersion model for the majority while maximizing peer-group contact in the other language for both groups.” The promotion of additive bilingualism among both minority and majority students in the same classroom undoubtedly increases the strength of this model.

3.8.3.1.4 Plural multilingual model

In the plural multilingual model, learners from different language backgrounds and nationalities use several LoLTs. A typical example of this model is a classroom situation where learners who originally could only speak one language are given the opportunity to learn in many languages. The objective is to assist them become multilingual so that they are able to participate and contribute in the different study areas. This model is also referred to as “the mainstream bilingual or multilingual model” (Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia, 1995). In the plural multilingual model, minority learners use their L1 languages initially as LoLTs and move to the majority languages at a later stage, but learners continue to receive instruction in their L1 as well (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). For example, at this later stage some subjects are learnt through their L1 and other subjects through L2. According to Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia (1995) as well as Baker (2006), this model can also be referred to as the “language shelter model.” The outcomes of this model are additive bilingualism and maintenance. Learners develop their mother tongue first before switching to a second language so they attain positive cognitive effects (Cummins 1981).

MTE emerges as the foundation of all strong forms of bilingual education. Weak models such as submersion and transitional programmes, in contradistinction to strong forms, aim at reducing the language repertoire of

learners by strongly supporting the teaching and use of majority languages. These models are examined in the following sub-section.

3.8.3.2 Weak forms of bilingual education

3.8.3.2.1 Submersion model

Submersion represents a particularly common weak form of bilingual education otherwise described as the “sink-or-swim” model (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000: 582). Baker (2001: 195) explains that “submersion contains the idea of a student thrown into the deep end and expected to learn to swim as quickly as possible without the help of floats or special swimming lessons.” Submersion creates a subtractive language learning environment because the minority student’s mother tongue is ignored and attention is paid on the use and importance of the majority language (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000:582 *ibid.*). In the USA, for example, submersion consists of teaching Spanish native speakers through the medium of English together with native English speakers by a monolingual English-speaking teacher (Baker, 2001:195).

An alternative form of submersion education can consist of teaching “powerless majority children” through the medium of a foreign, often powerful, language. In such cases submersion education demonstrates that the language of instruction is superior to the mother tongues of the children (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). In Addis Ababa, for example, this type of submersion education is found in the schools along the borders where hundreds of children have migrated into Addis Ababa from different regions for their primary education. These learners are forced to use Amharic as LoLT despite the fact that they speak different mother tongues. (Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) points out that these children suffer from “stress, alienation, disaffection and lack of self-confidence in class.” These negative consequences are caused by the extremely high demands which occur in a learning environment where children are constantly under the dual pressure of having to learn curriculum content and at the same time acquire a new language. Submersion education typically affects circumstantial bilinguals,

or immigrant children, who are compelled to acquire the high status language of their host region or country. This scenario often results in “subtractive bilingualism” where the minority language is lost in favor of the majority language.

3.8.3.2.2 Transitional bilingual education model

Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) allows minority language children to go through MTE until they become sufficiently competent in the majority language to fit into mainstream L2 monolingual classrooms (Baker, 2001: 198). Minority children, enrolled in “early-exit” TBE programmes, are transferred to the mainstream classroom after one-three years of MTE only. An example of early-exit TBE is the situation in South Africa where learners in township schools generally receive MTE only for the first three years of primary education. During these years, English is introduced slowly and informally from Grade 1. English language becomes a subject from Grade 2; at this stage, the child may or may not have had oral English classes at pre-school. From Grade 4 upwards English suddenly becomes the medium of instruction.

In TBE, the mother tongue is viewed as a partially valuable instrument in the process of language acquisition (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). It is valued only when needed to facilitate communication and comprehension. Baker (1988) explains that transitional models exist in the United States as well as Europe where language problems of minority group children are cured so they can continue to be educated in English or another majority language. The most widely funded form of bilingual education in the USA is the TBE (Freeman, 2004). The ultimate aim of TBE consists of assimilation and it, therefore, promotes subtractive bilingualism.

The longer minority children in a low-status position have their own L1 language as LoLT, the better they also become in the dominant L2 language, provided, they have good teaching in it, preferably given by bilingual teachers (Stutnabb-Kanga, 2004). Language of instruction must therefore, be treated with utmost attention in the language-in-education

policy and planning of any country. According to Tollefson and Tsui (2004), “medium-of-instruction policies are not only about the choice of the language(s) of instruction, but also about a range of important socio-political issues, including globalization, migration, labor policy, elite competition, and the distribution of economic resources and political power.”

3.8.4 Additive and subtractive bilingualism

Additive (strong forms; see 3.8.3.1) and subtractive (weak forms; see 3.8.3.2) bilingualism are outcomes of bilingual and multilingual models. These two paradigms of bi/MLE are adopted from Cummins (1981) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) and are also used by Luckett (1993). Luckett (1993) refers to those models that relate to a positive attainment of L2 competence and maintaining the L1 competence (immersion, Heritage Language Education, dual language or two-way, and plural multilingual language models) as additive bilingualism and those that result in negative influence on both languages as subtractive bilingualism (submersion and transitional models).

According to Luckett (1993:75), additive bilingualism refers to a situation where a learner maintains L1 and gains competence in L2. She argues that this can only be realised if both L1 and L2 are valued, encouraged and reinforced. In addition to this, Cummins (1979) asserts that additive bilingualism is attained when children reach a higher threshold level in both L1 and L2. Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) and Luckett (1993) believe that advocates of additive bilingualism consider L1 instruction as a right for all children, a resource for learning and an enrichment tool of education. Cummins (1981) and Luckett (1993) are examples of scholars who support the idea that in the additive bilingual approach children work towards positive effects on their social and cognitive development. Luckett (1993:75) believes that if a child maintains his/her L1, it will be easier for him/her to master content in L2. Baker (2006), therefore, refers to additive bilingualism as the addition of a L2 which cannot replace the first language. With additive models, learners are able to attain bilingualism, bi-literacy and biculturalism.

In contrast, the subtractive bilingual approach ignores the use of MT (or L1) in favour of using a L2 as LoLT in some or all of the early years of schooling (Heugh, 2011). This means L2 will be learnt with a pressure to replace the L1. In this scenario, L2 is added to replace L1. In some schools, this includes a situation where MT is removed both as LoLT and as a subject of learning. Luckett (1993) further states that this situation occurs when the L1 of the child is not considered important and is not supported by the education system. L1 is even considered a barrier and deficit to education. As a result, this approach has a negative impact on a child's social and cognitive development. After six years of primary schooling, the child does not attain proficiency in the L2 and will consequently perform poorly.

"Early-exit" transitional and especially submersion programmes result in failure to achieve academic success, bilingualism and bi-literacy. In these subtractive programmes, learners fail to attain proficiency in either of the languages. This situation is evidenced in the failure of the subtractive models in the USA which ended up replacing the Spanish language with English and in South Africa where mother tongue is replaced by English in Grade 4 in township schools.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter focused on reviewing the literature of related studies and linking concepts from different theories to establish evidence that will support the need for the research questions. Cummins' theories as discussed in the chapter touched on the acquisition of language proficiency and the importance of maintaining the L1 in order to be able to transfer language skills to L2. Cummins' theories, supported by Ricento and Hornberger's LPP model, influence decisions taken by language policy planners as well as the planning processes that take place in various departments of the educational bureaus.

In this chapter, bilingual education models were also discussed. These models deal with the implementation of biMLE in different countries, but

most important is the fact that one model may be more relevant in one country than in another. It is determined by the linguistic situation of a country and other factors. These theories and accompanying models will, therefore, help in analyzing and understanding the findings of this study as well as inform the proposed working model for a country such as Ethiopia.

The related literature from around the world highlighted several problems relating to language use in education as experienced in multilingual countries of the world and in Ethiopia in particular. It further indicates that MTB-MLE internationally and locally is implemented by using bilingual or multilingual programmes such as immersion and other MT-maintenance programmes on the one hand, and submersion and TBE programmes on the other hand. Researchers indicate that it depends on the multilingual nature of the country and the aim of the government as to which programme(s) individual countries choose to implement in their education systems. The researchers point out that countries that have succeeded in the implementation of MTB-MLE show a commitment to their success and some countries have failed because of lack of motivation and political will (see section 3.8 in this chapter).

Regionally, literature revealed that most African countries adopt policies that use the languages of the colonial countries such as the use of English as LoLT. As highlighted in the case of South Africa, some follow a TBE programme which emphasises the use of mother tongue only in the first three years of schooling. The literature revealed that education in some African countries is characterised by very poor results because most of the learners do not attain the cognitive academic proficiency level as recommended by Cummins.

The related literature on different studies on Ethiopia indicated that Ethiopia's language-in-education policy theoretically allows the use of all languages as LoLT but, practically, this is not the case. In Addis Ababa, for example, where Amharic is the only LoLT in primary schools, immigrant children who speak languages other than Amharic are expected to learn in

Amharic and at the same time use it as a LoLT. The reviewed literature also revealed that in other regions of Ethiopia where different mother tongues are used as LoLT, the learners and parents feel incomplete and left out because Amharic, according to them, is the only language that has enjoyed government recognition in the past and still has the best prospects for an economic break-through in the future.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a discussion on research methodology in an attempt to develop a methodological framework for this study. The basic design of the study, the research design and the sampling procedures have also been presented.

Designed as a case study, this research has adopted the “triangulating/concurrent data sources” research design and has used four different data collection methods: semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, questionnaires and focus group discussions. This chapter further presents the limitations of the study and the reliability and validity factors that ensure that the data collection procedures produce valid and reliable outcomes. Finally, this chapter states the procedures and ethical considerations of this study.

4.2 Research Methodology

Research, according to Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001:150), “is not a wholly objective activity carried out by detached motivations and values. It takes place within a broader social context, within which politics and power relations influence what research is undertaken, how it is carried out, and how it is reported.” According to Leedy (1997:104), methodology refers to an active framework within which the data are placed so that their meaning may be seen more clearly and be easily analysed.

Leedy (1997:104) goes further to explain that research methodology gives information on the type of data that the research project needs, how that data is collected, organised and analysed. Research methodology is generally used to refer to the research methods, techniques, and procedures that are used in the process of implementing a research design. Research methodology includes the description of the research

instruments, data collection and data analysis methods that are applied in the study.

4.3 Basic design of study

This study is designed as a case study; different sources of evidence are used to investigate a particular contemporary situation. The researcher may choose to use a case study when the phenomenon under study is distinguishable from others. Data can be both qualitative and quantitative and can come from primary research as well as from secondary sources.

The case study research method helps to answer the questions “how” and “why”. It offers a multi-perspective analysis in which the researcher considers not just the voice and perspective of one or two participants in a situation, but also the views of other relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. Case study research opens up the possibility to give a voice to the powerless and the voiceless, such as children or marginalised groups, and, in this case, the immigrant learners whose primary language is different from the LoLT in Addis Ababa. Case studies offer significant insight and understanding of the dynamics of a specific situation (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:75; Holliday, 2010:99).

The use of multiple sources and techniques in the data-gathering process is a unique strength of the case study method. Unlike other research designs, case studies allow different techniques for gathering data to ensure that the researcher collects as much data as possible from a variety of informants. It also helps the researcher to double-check any findings and examine the same issue(s) from different perspectives. The case study design thus permits the researcher to accept or reject the findings of one method over those of another (Bell, 2009:116).

Further, the case study method allows the researcher to probe deeply and analyse the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of a single unit with a view to establish generalisations about the wider population to

which that unit belongs. Researchers such as Leedy & Ormrod (2005), Flyvbjerg (2007) and Gobo (2007) note that sometimes focusing on a single case, because of its uniqueness or exceptional qualities, can promote understanding not just of the particular case but also influence decisions for similar situations.

Another motivating factor for using a case study is the fact that it helps limit the scope of the study. It helps the researcher to focus in detail on the case(s) of study, identifying their unique and common points to produce a rich and detailed description for each of them. Generalisations about other cases within the same area are made known. "Case studies explore, describe and analyse particular bounded phenomena and provide depth and detail. They ensure a generation of thick and extensive descriptions of the phenomenon under study" (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2006; Holliday, 2010; Casanave, 2010). Language-in-education policy and planning demands understanding, investigating and analysing multilingual language policy implementation. To describe these elements of multilingual language policy implementation, language management relies on detailed descriptions of linguistic and social phenomena (Mwaniki, 2004:270).

In the analysis of data generated from case study research, an overall picture of the case(s) is created and conclusions that may have implications beyond the specific case(s) are drawn (Eckstein, 1975; Walton, 1992; Mikkelsen, 1995; Becker, 1998; Silverman, 2000; Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2000). Scholars who argue that one can generalise from a single case study recognise that a case study is ideal for generalisation if the falsification test is used. Through falsification, if one observation does not fit with the proposition of the theory, the theory is considered invalid and must be revised or rejected. These scholars justify their argument with the use of vivid and rich imagery in the proposition that, "All pigs are white." They contend that just one observation of a single black pig will falsify the proposition that "All pigs are black."

The above-named scholars warn that generalisations from case studies should be handled with care, particularly when one single case is studied. Any generalisation is temporal and should be substantiated and be completed by other studies. They also indicate that the strategic choice of case(s) adds to the generalisability thereof (Eckstein, 1975; Walton, 1992; Mikkelsen, 1995; Becker, 1998; Silverman, 2000; Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Flyvbjerg, 2007; Gobo, 2007). To focus on a single case helps the researcher to examine properly the subject in point. The limitation of the scope of study also serves as a motivating factor for the researcher. The case study research design helps the researcher to focus in detail on the case(s) of study and to make generalisations about other cases.

In view of the nature of a case study, this researcher focused on the case of immigrant children in the Ayart district in Bole sub-city in Addis Ababa. They speak only Afaan Oromoo and have migrated from Oromia Regional State. The Ayart district is populated by hundreds of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners who are going through their primary education in the two schools selected for this case study. Despite the presence of children who speak any of the 70-80 national languages other than Amharic in other districts and schools in Addis Ababa, Cheffie and Marie primary schools in the Ayart district were selected for this research.

In terms of a counter argument, the case study method has been criticised for its dependence usually on a single case, which leads to the claim that case study research is incapable of providing a generalised conclusion. However, researchers reject this argument by noting that it is not always the purpose or intent of case study research to provide a generalised conclusion. Importantly, some scholars argue that generalisations could be formed from a single case. In addition, case studies may be central to certain areas of human endeavour such as scientific development through generalisation as supplement or alternative to other methods. These scholars argue that case studies can serve as a foundation for

generalisation, especially if they connect to a theoretical framework. The framework may be adjusted to suit the new results of the case study. (Eckstein, 1975; Walton, 1992; Cohen & Manion, 1994; Mikkelsen, 1995; Becker, 1998; Silverman, 2000; Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Flyvbjerg, 2007; Gobo, 2007). Finally, these scholars note that sometimes researchers focus on a single case because it is unique and cost effective.

4.4 Research Design

According to Mouton (2001:22), a research design guides the researcher on which research methods will produce the best answers to the research questions. This implies that research design has to do with planning and implementing the study properly (Rasinger, 2008:10). According to Leedy (1997:15), “a research design is an imaginary planning for conducting a research project.” Leedy (1997:15 *ibid.*) further states that a research design is an overall framework for the data collection process that will provide a format for the steps in the study. Babbie and Mouton (2001:7) concur with Leedy (1997) by maintaining that research design is a plan or structured framework of how researchers intend conducting a research process in order to answer the research questions. This study adopted the concurrent/triangulation data sources research design.

4.4.1 The concurrent/ triangulation research design

The concurrent/ triangulation research design is the most common approach in mixed method research (see 4.4.1.3 below for more mixed method designs). It helps the researcher to understand, analyse and investigate the research problems. It involves methods of collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data concurrently. In this design, two or more data collected from different sources are combined to understand better the research problem. In this regard, Ridenour and Newman (2008: 88) explained that triangulation is the combination of several data resources or collection strategies in the same design in order to enhance validity.

Concurrent design refers to the time, manner and the place of decision in which data are collected and mixed. This means that, in the processes of combining data, emphasis can be placed on a particular design.

Emphasis can be on both the qualitative and quantitative designs or emphasis can be on just one or the other. Accordingly, the concurrent mixed method of data-collecting strategies can be used to validate one form of data with the other form, to change the form of data or to address different types of questions. In the same way, the collected data can be mixed and triangulated while processing the data for interpretation. In social sciences, triangulation is defined as “the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or different perspectives will facilitate the interpretation of the research problem.”

According to Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998:8), this research method “integrates or connects the qualitative and quantitative research designs.” Leedy, (2001:68) points out that in the triangulation design, the researcher hopes to merge data gathered from different sources to support a particular hypothesis. Leedy (2001ibid.) goes further to explain that both qualitative and quantitative data are collected to answer the same research problem. The qualitative and quantitative data are combined into one large database and the results used side by side to reinforce each other (Creswell & Clark 2007:90).

4.4.1.1 Qualitative research designs

Qualitative research is a primary research in which the researcher collects first-hand information directly from the participants. Cresswell (1994:42) states that, “qualitative research deals with how people make sense of their experiences and how they view the world.” In a qualitative study, the research design includes all the processes of the research from the first stage to the last one. According to Cresswell (1994ibid.), the qualitative research design is flexible, straightforward, unique and evolves throughout the research process. As a result, there are no particular methods to follow

since qualitative research relies on the collection of non-numerical data, such as words and pictures (Johnson & Christensen, 2000:98).

This research method seeks to describe and analyse the culture and behaviour of groups of people (Saville-Troike, 1989:18). Qualitative research design intends to investigate how participants can create meaning of a specific phenomenon. This is done through analysing their perceptions, attitudes, values, feelings and experiences in life with the aim of drawing different conclusions from their perceptions. Qualitative research is directly concerned with experience as "lived", "felt" or "undergone". In qualitative research, a researcher often approaches reality from a constructivist position which allows for multiple meanings of individual experiences (Walliman, 2001; Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Mouton, 2001; Ivankova, Creswell & Clark, 2007; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Holliday, 2010).

According to Silverman (1985, 1993), the aim of qualitative research is to understand the participants' views and to understand how these are explained in concrete activities. These activities in this study include classroom observation, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions. Biklen (1992:53) argues that the qualitative researcher's primary goal is to add to knowledge, not to pass judgment on a setting. Biklen (*ibid.*) further emphasises that the concern for a qualitative researcher should not depend on whether their findings can be generalised or not. For both scholars, the worth of a qualitative study is the degree to which it generates ideas that relate to theory, description, or understanding of a given phenomenon. To this end, the focus of a qualitative research is the authenticity and not its reliability.

4.4.1.2 Quantitative research design

Quantitative research, according to Dörnyei (2007:24), is a data collection method that results primarily in numerical data. The main instrument for data gathering is the questionnaire. The data is analysed firstly by statistical

methods. The quantitative approach is characterised by the use of tables and graphs that show the numerical data. Tables and graphs usually facilitate the interpretation of the data (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:63).

A quantitative approach focuses on the study of variables rather than cases or individuals. This implies that the main aim of the quantitative approach is to identify the relationship between variables. Dörnyei (2007:78) states that quantitative data are analysed statistically, and an objective reality is obtained from a standardised procedure where averages are calculated. This implies that there are procedures to follow to ensure reliability and validity of the data collected.

4.4.1.3 Mixed method research designs

According to Cresswell (2003:217), the connection between the data sets is the reason why mixed methods are used. Cresswell and Clark (2007:87) point out even more reasons for using mixed methods research.

- (a) Triangulation (see 4.4.1 above) - quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously to complement each other and emphasis is given to a particular approach. Cresswell (2003:218) refers to this approach as "concurrent nested strategy." According to Cresswell (2003 *ibid.*), this approach is important because qualitative data provides meaning to quantitative data and participants are focused and not distracted. This approach also ensures that the research data are compatible.
- (b) Embedded – "the need for qualitative data to refine quantitative data or vice-versa. In this case, a sequential explanatory strategy is used" (Cresswell and Clark 2007:87). This implies that qualitative data may be collected first and quantitative data later to refine qualitative data, or vice-versa.

- (c) Explanatory – “secondary data investigate elements of the primary data” (Cresswell and Clark 2007 *ibid*). The main purpose of this type of study is to explain previously identified phenomenon.
- (d) Exploratory – the study is derived from the primary research and it is sequential. Data are collected by using one method and the analysis is done separately. Some questions may then emerge that may be addressed by using another set of data.

In this study, the mixed or concurrent/triangulating research design enabled the researcher to merge qualitative and quantitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. Themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis of administrators’ interviews, classroom observations and focus groups discussions were merged with statistical results from learners’ interviews and teachers’ questionnaires to provide a comprehensible analysis of the research questions.

4.5 Sampling

Sampling refers to the identification and selection of participants for the study from a selected target population. In this study, four factors were considered in deciding the sample size. 1) The objectives and research questions are the main criteria; 2) the time allocated for the study; 3) the resources available to the researcher; and 4) the extent to which the sample is representative of the target population (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Flyvbjerg, 2007; Gobo, 2007). It is worth noting that the sampling size in a case study research is not that important but should reflect the ideas of Patton (1990) as captured in the next paragraph.

According to Patton (1990), “the sample should be large enough to accommodate credibility, given the purpose of evaluation, but small enough to allow for adequate depth and detail for each case in the study.” Rasinger (2008:19) illustrates this point further; he points out that the sample has to

be large enough to represent the population correctly, and to avoid bias the sample should represent all groups.

4.5.1 Sampling techniques

Leedy (1997:88) argues that the sample should be identified and selected carefully in such a way that the researcher is able to identify from the target population the characteristics of those who can respond to particular questions. There are different sampling techniques that one may use in a study. Sampling is determined by the types and the depth of data that the researcher needs. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), there are probability techniques used in a quantitative study and non-probability sampling techniques used in a qualitative study. There is also the random and non-random sampling techniques.

4.5.1.1 Probability and non-probability sampling

In a probability sampling on the one hand, the researcher can identify and specify the sample that will represent the population (Blaxter et al, 2001: 158). There is a random selection of the participants. Probability sampling avoids bias and lends credibility to the researcher. Each member in a population has the chance to be selected to take part in the study. Blaxter et al (2001:158) further argues that the probability sampling technique is suitable when the researcher knows the population in question. According to Blaxter et al. (2001:160), probability sampling constitutes four different forms of sampling: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling.

Non-probability sampling on the other hand is used when the researcher lacks a sampling framework for the population in question or when probability is not considered essential (Blaxter et al, 2001:160). According to Blaxter et al (2001:163), non-probability sampling techniques include 'convenience sampling' (sampling only the most convenient participants.). 'Voluntary sampling' (self-selected sample), 'quota sampling' (convenience

sample within groups of the population), ‘purposive sampling’ (selecting interesting units or cases based on a specific purpose), ‘dimensional sampling’ (multidimensional quota sampling), and ‘snowball sampling’ (building up a sample through informants).

In this study, non-probability sampling techniques were used to select participants. Participants voluntarily accepted to be part of this study without any pressures. In searching for the richest possible data for qualitative and quantitative analysis, the sampling decisions took into consideration the convenience of all participants. Sampling in qualitative research is flexible and continues until there is data saturation (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2006; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Ivankova, Creswell & Clark, 2007; Holliday, 2010; Flyvbjerg, 2007; Gobo, 2007).

4.5.1.2 Purposive sampling

Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001:161) define purposive sampling as “a sampling method that involves handpicking on supposedly typical or interesting cases.” It selects participants of the study among a selected target population, because of some defining characteristics that make them the holders of the data needed for the study. Participants for this study were selected using purposive sampling. The defining characteristics of the participants selected for this study are discussed below:

4.5.1.2.1 Learners/Teachers

Learners selected for this study are children who have migrated from Oromia Regional State whose primary language is Afaan Oromoo, but are using Amharic as LoLT in the two selected primary schools in Addis Ababa. These learners are from Grades 1-3 and are between the ages of 6-25 as reflected in the data collected from the two selected schools used for this research. Teachers formed an important part of this research because they are the implementers of the language-in- education policy and are charged with the modification or confirmation of the learners’ language practices and ideologies. The two school heads and all the teachers of Environmental

Science and Mathematics from Grades 1-3 from the two selected schools formed part of this research group. Teachers were of utmost importance because they have to deal directly with learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo on a daily basis. Teaching and interacting with these learners in class meant they could give an authentic feedback on the challenges these children face in the classroom.

4.5.1.2.2 Administrators/Parents

An important part of the research team was the head of the Addis Ababa education bureau and his collaborators. They form the top managers in the school domain who oversee the formulation, implementation and evaluation of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa. The head of the Oromia education bureau in Addis Ababa and his collaborators also formed an important part of this study because they represent the Oromia region in Addis Ababa and manage the running of all schools in the Oromia region. The head of the Bole sub-city education office and the Ayart district officers were also part of the research group. These middle level managers are tasked with the responsibility to monitor and enforce the successful running of primary schools in the Ayart district. They are responsible for the deployment of teachers and the communication of policy developments to schools. Parents who form part of this study are parents of learners presently in Marie or Cheffie primary schools. They were a valuable source of information on how their children cope with Amharic as the only LoLT in school despite the fact that Afaan Oromoo is the only language they speak at home.

4.5.2 Sample size

In this study, the population includes administrators, principals/teachers, learners and parents. Nine administrators from the Addis Ababa education office, the Bole sub-city education and Oromia education bureau were selected for this study. In both Cheffie and Marie schools selected for this study, the researcher involved learners from Grades 1-3 with a total of 372 learners (see Table 4.3). The reasons for this number of learners include

ensuring the representativeness of the sample and also ensuring that the data were manageable (Babbie, 1990: 16). The participants were selected irrespective of gender and age and each learner had a chance of participating in the study to avoid bias (Blaxter et al, 2001:154). Teachers from both schools who participated in this study were 40 in all (see Table 4.4). A total of 35 parents were also selected for this study.

4.6 Methods of Data Collection

The concurrent or triangulation research design allows for the use of a diverse range of data collection techniques. A combination of four different instruments were used to collect data in this study; namely: interview, classroom observations, questionnaires and focus group discussions. Finally, the quantitatively and qualitatively collected data were integrated or combined, and used for analysis and interpretations. In this study, the mixed or concurrent/triangulating research design enabled the researcher to merge qualitative and quantitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. Themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis of administrators' interviews, classroom observations and focus groups discussions were merged with statistical results from learners' interviews and teachers' questionnaires to provide a comprehensible analysis of the research questions.

4.6.1 Interviews

Nieuwenhuis (2007:87) defines an interview as a two-way communication in which the researcher asks the participant(s) questions to collect data and to learn about the beliefs, opinions, practices and behaviours of the participants. In qualitative research, interviews help the researcher to see the world through the eyes of the participant. The aim is always to obtain rich descriptive data that will help the researcher understand the participant's social reality and cultural background. Importantly, data collected from interviews would probably not be accessible if techniques

such as documentary analysis, observation or questionnaires were to be used instead.

Unlike the other methods of data collection, interviews give room for in-depth probing and clarifications since they involve questioning and discussing issues with participants; this is especially true of unstructured and semi-structured interviews (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Bell, 2009; Wagner, 2010). Interviews, in addition, allow the researcher to follow up on ideas raised and investigate the motives and feelings of the participants.

A further advantage of interviews is that it captures both verbal and non-verbal communication which includes body language and speech mannerisms: the manner in which a response is uttered, the tone of the participant's voice, facial expressions and even eagerness or hesitation to answer some questions can provide information that a written response or questionnaire would not reveal. (Bell, 2009:157). This non-verbal element of interviews allows the researcher to reassure and encourage the respondent who might otherwise not be inclined to answer questions as fully as possible. In fact, visual signs such as nods, smiles and laughter are valuable tools for promoting or drawing out complete responses. However, the personality of the interviewer may affect the results positively or negatively (Walliman, 2001:239).

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with participants in this study (rather than telephone and on-line interviews) because of their distinct advantages. 1) The researcher is in a good position to be able to judge the quality of the responses from the participants. The researcher may sometimes use some of the non-verbal forms of communication mentioned above to ascertain the participant's inner feelings about the subject. 2) The researcher is able to identify gaps and notice if a question is properly understood, and can encourage the participant through appreciation of the responses by verbal and non-verbal means (Walliman, 2001: 238). 3) Face-to-face interviews are relatively cheaper (if compared to telephone and on-

line interviews). It is the only option available in areas with no telephone and cell phone network coverage or internet connections.

Interviews may be used for quantitative data collection but it is particularly suitable when qualitative data is required, hence its use in this study. In qualitative research, interviews are classified as unstructured or open-ended interviews, semi-structured interviews, or structured interviews (Walliman, 2001; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Davies, 2007; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Rugg & Petre, 2007).

4.6.1.1 Unstructured or open-ended interviews

According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:87), “open-ended or unstructured interviews often take the form of a conversation with the intention that the researcher explores with the participant his/her views, ideas, beliefs and attitudes of certain events or phenomena.” Open-ended interviews are normally spread over a period of time and really consist a series of interviews or conversations. In open-ended interviews, participants are free to propose solutions, reject or provide insight into the research topic.

4.6.1.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews, like unstructured or open-ended interviews, are the most used and recommended for qualitative research. The flexible responses from these interviews can add additional information for the researcher (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Wagner, 2010). Both types of interviews allow the researcher to explore the situation under study in depth, enabling the obtention of information which was not predicted from the beginning. An important difference with unstructured interviews though is that semi-structured interviews require the participant to answer a set of predetermined questions.

Semi-structured interviews are commonly used in research projects to corroborate data emerging from other sources. In this study, these interviews were used to support data gathered through classroom

observations and questionnaires. Semi-structured interview schedules are organised around areas of particular interest to the researcher, while still allowing considerable flexibility for the interviewee to express opinions fully. Researchers conducting semi-structured interviews need to be pay attention to the responses of the participants so that emerging lines or new ideas of inquiry are directly related to the issues under investigation and can be identified and used to explore and search for more ideas. Semi-structured interviews can also be called reflective interviews. A list of carefully selected topics is used for prompting during semi-structured interviews. Questions do not require simple yes or no answers. Rather, questions aim at stimulating reflection, which in turn facilitates the interpretation of different ideas that emerge. This element of reflection contributes to the notion that semi-structured interviews are said to be concerned with people's feelings (Davies, 2007:29). The nature of semi-structured interviews creates space for the follow-up of interesting and controversial topics when they arise.

In this study, semi-structured interviews were used to interview administrators and learners and during focus group discussions. Learners were interviewed in randomly selected groups where they could respond to one another's comments as well as to the researcher's questions. Questions for learners highlighted the challenges they faced as they used Amharic as a LoLT in the classroom. The questions also focused on how easily learners understood subject content given the different teaching strategies used in class.

Semi-structured interview questions were used with the teachers, administrators and parents during focus group discussions. These interviews focused on the feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa. The questions also focused on whether MTE in Addis Ababa serves the interest of learners whose primary language is not Amharic. Questions for administrators focused on whether the government was aware of immigrant children from

Oromia Regional State going through their primary studies in Addis Ababa and, if so, whether the government was aware of the challenges learners who speak languages other than Amharic might be facing in the classrooms. Administrators were interviewed individually by the researcher herself in their different offices. In this way, there was privacy which permitted each participant to speak out freely without fear of being quoted anywhere.

Except for interview sessions with administrators who could speak and understand English, there was also a need for an interpreter for the rest of the participants. The interpreter facilitated the use of semi-structured interview questions. It gave the researcher the freedom to probe further into responses when deemed necessary. In this way, the interviewees could elaborate freely upon the issues raised. Responses to interview questions were taken down in a notebook. The researcher was not allowed to do any form of voice or video recording during the interview sessions.

4.6.2 Classroom Observations

An observation is “a systematic method of collecting data that relies on a researcher’s ability to gather data through his or her senses” (O’Leary, 2004:170). It is one of the best methods used for collecting data in a natural environment. Classroom observations allowed the researcher to witness directly what happens in the classroom during the process of teaching and learning.

By using different observation methods, the researcher observed the interactions between teacher and learners, and between learners themselves. In this case, the nature of the research required little or no interaction between the researcher and those she observed since she intended to observe what actually happens in classroom practice. According to a number of scholars (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Walliman, 2001; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Angrosino, 2007; Rugg & Petre, 2007; Davies, 2007; Bell, 2009), observation can be disclosed or undisclosed, participant or non-participant, structured or unstructured.

4.6.2.1 Disclosed and undisclosed observation

Disclosed observation refers to a case where participants know that they are being observed; conversely, undisclosed observation is where the participants are not aware they are being observed. Due to research ethical considerations, researchers are of the opinion that undisclosed observation is ethically wrong because those under observation did not give their consent to being observed or quite simply are not aware that they are being observed (Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Angrosino, 2007; Rugg & Petre, 2007; Davies, 2007; Bell, 2009).

Undisclosed observation does have its merits, for example, when it comes to investigating crime where it is even highly recommended. Yet, for academic research like this one, it is usually un-ethical to adopt undisclosed observation. Consequently, the researcher in this study disclosed her status as a researcher to the participants to be observed and clearly revealed the purpose of this study.

4.6.2.2 Participant and non-participant observations

According to Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Angrosino, 2007; Rugg and Petre, 2007; Davies, 2007; Bell, 2009, a situation where the researcher takes part in the research process and collaborates with the participants is called participant observation. This type of an approach is commonly used in action research projects and participatory action research. Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Walliman, 2001, concur that a participant observation method requires that the researcher becomes a participant in the situation that is observed and may intervene in the dynamics of the situation or even try to alter it. The researcher thus positions him/herself in a particular setting to gain an insider perspective of that setting. The researcher gets completely immersed in the setting to such an extent that nobody can identify him/her as a researcher, unless told. This observation method is common in some ethnographic studies.

Nieuwenhuis (2007:83-84) defines non-participant observation as the “systematic process of recording the behavioral patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them. It is an everyday research activity which allows the researcher to use his/her senses of seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting and intuition to gather data.” According to Walliman (2001:241), non-participant observation is a method of recording conditions, events and activities through the “non-inquisitorial involvement” of the researcher. Nonparticipant observation refers to a situation where the researcher is a complete observer examining the activities from a distance, that is, from an outsider’s perspective. Non-participant observation has no obstructions or distractions from the the observer. It is possible to record whether people behave differently from what they say or claim to be during observations. People can sometimes demonstrate their understanding of a process better by their actions than by verbally explaining what they know (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001; Walliman, 2001; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Angrosino, 2007; Rugg & Petre, 2007; Davies, 2007; Bell, 2009).

Rugg and Petre (2007:110) note that non-participant observation shows the researcher something without the filtering effect of language. The researcher sees or observes real life situations, things that are familiar to the participants but which they might never mention during an interview. It is useful for working out what the respondents often or rarely does, as opposed to what they claim they do. Non-participant observation can reveal characteristics of groups or individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means. For example, interviews reveal how and what people might think of the subject; it does not necessarily reflect what they actually believe. Non-participant observations are therefore useful in discovering whether people do believe in what they say and if they behave in the same way they claim to behave (Bell, 2009:184).

A qualitative data gathering technique informed the use of the non-participant observation technique for this study. This observation method

enabled the researcher to gain deeper insights and understanding of the classes she observed. It was an important data collection method because it provided the researcher with an insider perspective of the classroom dynamics and behaviours of learners and teachers in different settings. It allowed the researcher to listen, watch and experience reality as the learners did. As the researcher got involved in the classroom observations, she built a relationship with the teachers and learners that enabled her to use other data gathering techniques with greater ease. “Observation can be useful for getting a general understanding of the domain as part of the researcher’s initial familiarization” (Rugg and Petre, 2007:113). Offering good observation practices, Nieuwenhuis (2007:84) stresses that during the initial phases of the observation process the researcher ought to adopt a relatively passive role. In this light, the researcher was not aggressive or pompous in her attempt to collect data at the start of the process. Nieuwenhuis further notes that it is good for the researcher to observe events as they occur in the natural setting.

Classroom observations constituted a good measuring instrument used to determine the challenges learners who speak languages other than Amharic face. It revealed the extent to which Afaan Oromoo speaking learners can communicate in Amharic and actively participate during lessons. Classroom observations also portrayed any lack of confidence and self-esteem in these learners. Added to these, classroom observations enabled the researcher to ascertain current teaching strategies teachers of multilingual classes use in Addis Ababa. With the help of an interpreter, detailed notes were taken during observations and used to capture salient points which were in turn used for the analysis and interpretations of the data for this study.

4.6.3 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are one of the most widely used social research technique tools. They have the advantage over other data collecting methods in that they can be used to gather information from a large number of respondents.

According to Wilson and McLean (1994) in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:317), “the questionnaire is a useful instrument which is widely used for collecting survey information, providing structure and often numerical data.” A questionnaire can be relatively easier to administer and straightforward to analyse. Questionnaires therefore offer advantages for the researcher to gather reliable and valid data. A questionnaire enables the researcher to organise, administer and receive feedback from participants without actually having to talk to them.

Economically, questionnaires are a cost-effective method of gathering data from a large number of people in terms of cost and time. The respondents may take some time to check out the facts and ponder on the questions and thereby provide more accurate information (Walliman, 2001:236-237; Wagner, 2010:26). Questionnaires can be delivered personally, by post, email or through research assistants. Postal and email surveys are likely to have lower response rates and possibly poorer answers because the respondents have no direct contact with the researcher, but they may allow a larger number of people to be surveyed. Postal and email surveys can only be possible in situations where the postal services are affordable, reliable and fast and where the participants have access to the internet, are computer literate and are committed.

Questionnaires for teachers (written in Amharic) were delivered personally with the assistance of an interpreter; this helped some of the respondents overcome difficulties with some of the questions that needed clarification. Such concerns were minimized to ensure that the questionnaire was as user-friendly and accessible as possible and could be completed without the help of the researcher. “Delivering questionnaires in person also offers the possibility of checking up on responses if they are incomplete or misunderstood; generally, this leads to a higher response rate and better results” (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001:179; Wagner, 2010:30). 50 questionnaires were handed out to teachers and after a period of two weeks, 40 teachers had filled in and returned the questionnaires. Some of the

questionnaires were answered in Amharic, they were later translated into English and the English version was then transcribed and used during the data analysis stage of this study.

In order to reach a good number of teachers, the questionnaires were designed using both closed and open-ended questions. The closed-ended questions measured separate variables and preferences on the use of Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa, in-service training and on the question of whether or not the policy of free promotion (see 4.7.3) should be discontinued. Open-ended questions gave the respondents the opportunity to formulate answers on their personal attitudes towards introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as a LoLT in Addis Ababa. Teachers' questionnaires also focused on the importance of MTE policy in Ethiopia and how it serves or favours learners whose primary language is not Amharic in Addis Ababa.

While questionnaires are relatively effective in preventing the personality of the interviewer from having effects on the results, they do have certain limitations. They are not suitable for questions which require probing to obtain adequate information, because they only contain simple, one-stage questions that are limited by space. The data obtained from questionnaires is usually a surface assessment of complex constructs such as language ideologies which need to be unravelled and complemented with interviews and focus group discussions which provide rich and in-depth data (Wagner, 2010:26). Most often, questionnaires do not reflect the required response from the completed samples because they are returned by the more literate sections of the population (Walliman, 2001:238). Bearing in mind these limitations of the questionnaire method, the researcher therefore complemented this research method with the afore-mentioned methods including focus group discussions.

4.6.4 Focus Group Discussions

Focus group discussions “generate in-depth qualitative data about a group’s perceptions, attitudes and experiences on a defined topic” (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:90). Additionally, Nieuwenhuis (2007:90) states that the focus group discussion strategy assumes that, “group interaction will be productive to widen the range of responses, activate forgotten details of previous experiences and lessen inhibitions that may otherwise discourage participants to disclose information.” They produce detail and rich data that is difficult to obtain with other research methods. They are also important because they explore the thoughts, feelings and behaviour of participants. Unlike other research methods, focus group discussions call for debates or arguments about the responses being generated during discussions. Participants listen to one another and comment on salient points that need clarification amongst themselves. Focus group discussions generally create a friendly atmosphere in which group members are motivated by other views and values to speak their minds and increase the quality of data.

Group dynamics can also influence the information that will be generated during discussions. Group dynamics therefore become an important dimension of what will be analysed as part of the data generated. Focus group interviews are valuable when in-depth information is needed on how and what people think about particular issues and events – their reasoning about why things happen in a particular way and why they hold the views they do on that particular issue (Law, 2003 cited in Bell, 2009:162). During focus group discussions, participants are able to build on one another’s ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view, which other research methods do not provide. Unexpected comments and new perspectives can be explored easily within the focus group discussions thereby adding value to the research. They also allow the researcher to reach out to as many informants as possible at the same time in one setting (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001:172).

For this study, focus groups were used to generate more qualitative data where the participants had to discuss the issues of language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa and how teachers deal with learners whose primary language is not Amharic in the classroom. The focus groups consisted of parents, principals/teachers and education officials. In the month of August, two sessions for each school was scheduled by the researcher in the afternoons to permit teachers finish lessons and be able to participate. Semi-structured interview questions during discussions allowed for an environment where teachers were able to articulate their experiences with learners in the company of other teachers and administrators. Education officials responded to questions on how language-in-education can possibly affect the learning process of learners whose primary language is not Amharic. Parents availed themselves of the opportunity to project their feelings on the LoLT, the dominance of Amharic both locally and in the wider Ethiopian context, and their inability to assist their children with school work.

The focus group discussions were organised strategically by the researcher to give the interpreter space for direct translations and time for the researcher to take down notes. Beginning with teachers, followed by administrators and finally parents, all groups were given about 30 minutes to respond to the questions. The researcher ensured that all group members were afforded an opportunity to express their ideas by taking turns to avoid dominance by the outspoken members. Responses were recorded in two ways: by taking down detailed descriptions of responses in a notebook, and by ticking in the appropriate box or writing down the responses in short form in the spaces available in the focus group interview schedule.

Limitations of focus group discussions include the fact that participants are required to meet in the same place at the same time. This is particularly difficult if they live in geographically distinct regions. This became a considerable challenge for parents who live far away from Marie and Cheffie schools during this study. To address this problem, the researcher worked with groups of members from the same area to avoid cases where

participants could not make it in time. Through purposive sampling, the researcher ensured that the selected members of each group were representative of the target population in terms of age and gender. Another limitation was that some participants felt uncomfortable to speak freely during discussions. Information collected may be biased through group processes; the domination of the discussions by the more outspoken individuals and the difficulty of assessing the viewpoints of less assertive participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:91).

4.7 Limitations of this research

No research project can be perfect. There will always be further insights that could be gained. This research study had some limitations. The fact that Amharic is the common language of communication in Addis Ababa and used by all in every domain of life, hindered the researcher from communicating freely in English without an interpreter. English was a second or third language to most participants and this made it very difficult for the researcher to probe certain participants for the purposes of this study. The presence of an interpreter during most of the period of the data collection was absolutely necessary which means that some information might have been transmitted wrongly or some facts exaggerated.

Factors such as fatigue, excess emotions and the time of the day might have affected the result of an interview. Besides, the status of the researcher as friend or intruder in the different interview situations had to be neutralised as much as possible to avoid biased results. Some learners were not able to express themselves in a group in which case the researcher was willing to arrange personal interviews for them. Different circumstances under which the interviews were conducted meant different points of views from different groups. There was a possibility that some learners might have experienced 'stage fright' which might have prevented them from expressing themselves or giving out any information.

The use of questionnaires did not permit the researcher to know with certainty if the questions asked were understood or not. Because questions were very specific, there was a danger that the information gained would be minimal. Sometimes, those who return questionnaires could be those who have a positive viewpoint on the issues raised or subject of discussion implying that a real picture of the case in study might not be reflected in the final analysis.

4.8 Reliability and validity of the study

When investigating a certain phenomenon, it is important to ensure that the method one uses for data collection and analysis will ensure valid and reliable outcomes. For this study, reliability and validity were checked by using “strategies for trustworthiness” which include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:35). These strategies are discussed below:

Credibility (Truth value). This ensures that the analysis of whether the explanation fits the description is correct. For this study, credibility was ensured by using the triangulation/concurrent research method by collecting data through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. All the data was merged and used to answer the research questions.

Transferability (Applicability). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985:35) this refers to the “generalizability of inquiry.” It checks on whether or not the results are applicable in another context of the same kind. In this study a review of related literature was used to compare the findings of this study with those of other scholars.

Confirmability (Neutrality). This focuses on the concept of objectivity. It seeks to know whether the results of the research could be confirmed by another. This was also checked through the triangulation/concurrent research method in this study.

Dependability (Consistency). This refers to how sustainable the findings of the research can be. This is to check if the results of the research would be the same if another sample from a similar setting is used. In this study, the results from learners, teachers, administrators and parents from two different schools were used as a case study.

4.9 Procedures and ethical considerations

Researchers are required to follow certain procedures and ethical considerations to ensure the participants' anonymity and confidentiality and to respect their rights and privileges. To ensure the right procedures and ethical considerations were carried out for this study, the researcher began this research process by communicating the purpose of the study to all the participants before proceeding. All participants signed consent forms beforehand. Parents signed consent forms on behalf of their children. Learners were also given the choice to withdraw from participation even if their parents had signed on their behalf. Names of participants have not been used to ensure confidentiality. Permission was granted to conduct the study by the Research Committee of the Department of Humanities in the University of Pretoria, South Africa.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter presents the methodology and basic designs used for this study. It discusses the concurrent or triangulation research design which connects qualitative and quantitative research designs in a mixed method approach. A detailed description of the sampling techniques and the four research instruments, namely: interviews, classroom observations, questionnaires and focus group discussions used for this research has been presented in this chapter. The reliability and validity of the study closed the chapter with a discussion on the procedures and ethical considerations of this study. The next chapter presents qualitative and quantitative data.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents empirical data collected from education officials from the Addis Ababa Education bureau, the Bole sub-city education office and the Oromia regional office in Addis Ababa. Data was also collected from learners, teachers, principals and parents of two government primary schools in the Ayart district. Data from interviews conducted with administrators and their collaborators from the different education bureaus, parents, and data from classroom observations was collected, transcribed and is discussed and presented thematically. Data from interviews with learners and teacher questionnaires was collected, transcribed and presented in graphs and tables. Questionnaires were administered to teachers in Amharic and English because most of the teachers understand some (conversational) English but cannot read and write in English. Interviews with experts from the different education bureaus who speak and understand English very well is presented as raw as possible with no corrections to errors made by the participants. The reason for not correcting mistakes made by participants is to ensure that the meanings of the responses do not change.

Interviews with learners during focus group discussions were done in Amharic and directly translated to English by an interpreter for the researcher to take down detailed notes from all the participants. This was the only way possible because at the beginning of this research, the researcher noticed that tape recording made most respondents anxious and less likely to reveal confidential information. The researcher was later made to understand that the sensitivity of the research topic would not allow video or tape recordings with participants. To avoid situations where participants felt uncomfortable to give their views, the researcher decided to take down detailed notes in order to get the most from the respondents and at the same

time guarantee confidentiality and anonymity. Most importantly, note taking gives the researcher an instant record of the key points of the interview for subsequent reading and evaluation. Note taking also assisted in ensuring that both data collection and analysis were on going, cyclical, non-linear and interactive which is one of the strengths of qualitative research (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001).

Table 5.1 Administrators Demography

Variables	Total	
	Number	%
Ethnic group	Oromo	3 33
	Amhara	6 67
	Others	- -
Academic qualification	Certificate	2 22
	Diploma	4 44
	First Degree	3 33
	M.A & above	- -
Number of languages spoken by Administrators	One	5 56
	Two	4 44
	Three & more	- -
Working experience	0-10	6 67
	11-20	3 33
	21 & above	- -
Gender	Male	9 100
	Female	- -
Age	21-30 years	2 22
	31-40 years	6 67
	41-50 Years	1 11
	50 & Above	- -

5.2 Interviews with experts from education bureaus in Addis Ababa

Interviews were conducted with experts who form the top managers in the Primary and Secondary school domain and oversee the formulation, implementation and evaluation of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa. Three education bureaus in Addis Ababa were involved in this study: the Addis Ababa education bureau, the Bole sub-city education and the

Oromia education bureaus. Nine experts agreed to be interviewed, with a majority of them from the Amharic ethnic group. All three heads of bureaus were degree holders and spoke good English. Surprisingly, all the experts from all the three education bureaus were men between the ages of 31 and 40 (Table 5.1).

The head of the Addis Ababa education bureau and his collaborators were interviewed during working hours in the office of the head of the bureau. This office is also in charge of the education and training programmes of all teachers in this region. The head of the Oromia education bureau in Addis Ababa and his collaborators were also interviewed during working hours. They represent the Oromia region in Addis Ababa and manage the running of all primary, secondary and high schools in the Oromia region. The head of the Bole sub-city education office and the Ayart district officers also formed part of the research group that was interviewed.

These middle level managers are tasked with the responsibility to monitor and enforce the successful running of Primary and Secondary schools in the Ayart District. They are responsible for the deployment of teachers and the communication of policy developments to schools in this District. Consulting these front-line institutions was found to be quite necessary in view of the role they play in facilitating and supporting MTE in Addis Ababa. The head of each bureau and two other experts (these experts oversee the formulation, implementation and evaluation of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa) were interviewed from each education office.

These interviews, firstly, were semi-structured because they allowed for probing and clarification of answers. Secondly, although the researcher had a set of topics to discuss with the experts from the three bureaus, she did not follow a fixed set and order of questions. Instead, she always tried to use some open-ended questions with each bureau which allowed for flexibility as well as permitted her to add other questions based on the actual themes emerging from individual encounters. In presenting the data, the

subheadings indicate some of the questions/topics used to structure the interviews.

5.2.1 Interviews with experts from the Addis Ababa education bureau

5.2.1.1 The importance of first language and the success of MTE in Ethiopia

On the success of MTE in Ethiopia, the head of this bureau believes that MTE in Ethiopia has been a success because in most regions across the country learners study in their first language which is the language they speak and understand best. He argues that unlike other African countries with an early transition from MT to English, Ethiopia is amongst one of the countries whose constitution states that all children will learn in their MT as LoLT up to grades 7 or 8 where primary school ends before transitioning to English as LoLT in Grade 9. The head of the bureau expressed his belief as follows: "Learning in one's language enables the child to understand concepts easily and clearly. It also serves as a means of enhancing quality education." The head of the bureau said this was the reason why in most regions of Ethiopia, MT is being used as LoLT. This policy according to him has recorded a huge increase in the success rate of the learners. A probe on this question asked to know if the increase in the success rate is also evident in Addis Ababa. He admitted that in Addis Ababa an increased number of learners enrol into the university every year due to use of MTE as a foundation in primary school.

Expert 1stressed on the need for a child to study in the MT because "it is the natural language given to a child from birth, meaning that child will grow to speak and understand first in that language." Using one's MT in school according to him is a reflection of the home and the country from which we come from. Moving from general to the specific schools that border Addis Ababa and Oromia region the researcher asked if these experts are aware of the presence of hundreds of migrant children who speak only Afaan Oromoo but who are studying in Addis Ababa through Amharic which is the

only LoLT. According to Expert 1, their office is aware of the presence of many children from Oromia region but this he said has never been a problem to the government because Afaan Oromoo is being used as a LoLT in the Oromia region. He explained that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo are expected to study in Oromia but if they have migrated to Addis Ababa for one reason or the other, it is not a priority problem for the government at the moment.

5.2.1.2 Educational challenges faced by migrant children who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa

Fully aware of the rights of every child to study in their MT, experts from this office responded confidently to interview questions that sought to know if there were any educational challenges children who speak only Afaan Oromoo might be facing in Addis Ababa. The head of the bureau admitted the fact that these learners do face some difficulties but blamed the parents for migrating to Addis Ababa and making these children go through these challenges. According to the bureau head, these children by implication are forced to acquire Amharic and at the same time use it as a LoLT. To him, managing the language in Grade 1 is the greatest problem because Amharic will be a new language to learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and learning in a language you cannot speak or understand can be very uncomfortable. The head of the bureau explained further that these children needed just time, time that will allow them get used to the new language. With Amharic being taught as a subject, he was very certain these learners will gradually acquire the language and used it as LoLT.

According to Expert 1, the time of acquiring the language will be short or long depending on how fast or slow the child can learn the language. On the question of why these children have to be disadvantaged because of a learning condition that is not their fault, Expert 2 said it was the fault of their parents for choosing to migrate to Addis Ababa and forcing their children to study in a language that is not their MT. Expert 2 explained further that learning in a language that is not the language a child speaks at home

means there will be no communication between the teacher and the learner in the classroom. Consequently, the child is unable to ask or answer questions in class and cannot communicate freely with Amharic speaking peers in and outside the classroom.

Expert 2 pointed to a few examples where learners at the beginning of Grade 1 cannot communicate with friends and teachers making them feel “a little uncomfortable” but got comfortable with time and learning in Amharic was easier. Expert 2 reiterated the importance of Amharic over all other languages spoken in Ethiopia because according to him, it is the language used in courts, parliament and even over the radio and television. For this reason, he said the children and their parent insist Amharic is a better language to use as a LoLT. For the future of the child to be guaranteed and for these children to be successful in their academic endeavours the researcher asked to know if any steps have been taken by the government to ensure that effective learning takes place in the classroom through Amharic which is the only LoLT. This question is the subject of the next section.

5.2.1.3 Current teaching strategies used in multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa

On the question of current teaching strategies used by teachers to teach their multilingual classes, the head of the bureau said there were no stated or laid down strategies for these teachers to use in these classes. He went ahead to comment on the fact that teachers who teach in these schools have received no form of training on how to teach bilingual or multilingual classes. However, he believes that the presence of these learners has forced teachers to use skills acquired during their training in the Teachers Training Institutions to improvise in their classrooms. According to Expert 1, one of the current teaching strategies employed by teachers of these schools is to use Amharic learners who speak and understand Afaan Oromoo to translate during lessons.

Secondly, teachers who can speak and understand Afaan Oromoo are called upon to give remedial lessons on the lessons taught and on the alphabet which seems to be the most difficult aspect of the language to internalise. According to Expert 2, learning by association is a natural strategy that has assisted learners who speak languages other than Amharic. The fact that these learners associate with Amharic speaking learners in and outside the classroom helps them to learn the language faster. Expert 2 went further to recommend that teachers could mix the sitting positions of learners in the classroom. One or two Afaan Oromoo speaking learners should sit together with one or two Amharic learners on the same desk. Children who speak and understand the same language should not be allowed to sit together on the same desk.

5.2.1.4 How has MTE served the interest of Afaan Oromoo speaking children in selected schools in Addis Ababa?

On the question of how successful Afaan Oromoo speaking children have been in their academic endeavours in Addis Ababa, the head of the bureau did not hesitate to explain the “automatic promotion” or “free promotion” policy from Grades 1 to 4 in all primary schools in Addis Ababa. He explained that this policy encourages learners to learn and develop a positive attitude towards education by Grade 4. According to him, it is better for a child to be promoted to the next class than to make him/her be held back in the same grade or repeat the class, regardless of how they perform in assessments. Learners can therefore study without fear of failure. In this way, learners feel positive and confident to work harder and succeed.

Expert 2 went ahead to explain that MTE has served the interests of Afaan Oromoo learners in Addis Ababa because in just a few years these children are able to communicate freely in the markets and shops as well as use the different means of transportation around Addis Ababa comfortably. Expert 2 believes that it is an added advantage over their peers who cannot communicate in Amharic. He reiterated that these children become bilinguals in their own right as Amharic becomes a second language. Expert

2 further explained that MTE has served the interests of Afaan Oromoo children in Addis Ababa because being able to speak, understand and use Amharic in school and around the town of Addis Ababa has been a source of joy to the learners and their families. He reiterated the fact that Amharic is the common language of communication in Ethiopia and the language used in courts, ministries and over the radio and television in Addis Ababa. These children according to him enjoy an added advantage because enrolling into primary school in Addis Ababa gives them a chance to learn Amharic and communicate freely with everybody and everywhere in Addis Ababa. Future employment and other opportunities in Addis Ababa keep the children and their families very happy.

The researcher went ahead to find out how Afaan Oromoo learners perform in Grade 8 after the first regional exams which is written in Amharic. The head of the bureau admitted that the results of learners who speak Afaan Oromoo usually fall behind their Amharic speaking mates. Most of them repeat Grade 8 and in Grade 10 a majority of them are not successful in the national exams and are forced to enrol into vocational schools and learn different trades. Expert 1 explained that after graduating from vocational school they are able to find employment in Addis Ababa where they can work and help their families. A few of these learners succeed in Grade 10 and after high school enrol into the university. On the question of how successful or how easily these learners are able to acquire English and use it as LoLT in Grade 9 just after four years to enable them compete in the national exams in Grade 12, and mindful of the fact that English is their 3rd language; the head of the bureau explained that most of these learners perform poorly but are allowed to enrol into the university. Probing further, the researcher asked why learners who are not successful are allowed to register into the university. The head of the bureau said it was a decision taken by the government (on which he would prefer to remain quiet and make no comment).

5.2.1.5 Possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as a LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa

On the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa, the head of the bureau said it was almost an impossibility because it would mean choosing one amongst many other languages spoken by immigrant children in Addis Ababa. Besides, selecting any one language would mean discriminating against other regions. The head of the bureau commented on the silence from the community on this issue. According to him, this silence can be attributed to the fact that Addis Ababa is a haven for opportunities and a guarantee for the future. Most families that have migrated from Oromia to Addis Ababa in search of better opportunities for their families and for their children think it is better to study Amharic. To them, learning in Amharic and communicating freely in Amharic will give their children a better chance of finding employment.

On the question of why Afaan Oromoo a language spoken by the largest number of learners in Addis Ababa would not be considered as a LoLT by the government, Expert 1 explained that besides educational reasons there were stronger political reasons why Afaan Oromoo could not be used in Addis Ababa. Some of these reasons he said were very sensitive and could not be discussed openly. That said, the head of the bureau mentioned costs as one of the key reasons as he explained that introducing another LoLT in Addis Ababa would be very expensive for the government. This would mean building more schools, training and employing more teachers, and providing teaching and learning materials to these schools. The process of building, training and setting aside finances for the implementation of such a policy would be too long and detrimental to both the government and the learners. The head of the bureau insisted that the building of new schools and the training of teachers can only be a combined effort from the Oromia and Amhara Regions without which the government is not prepared to bear the cost alone.

According to Expert 2, instead of introducing another language as LoLT in Addis Ababa, learners who speak languages other than Amharic should get used to Amharic by learning how to speak and write from their peers in school. On the question of how possible it was for the government to introduce a two-stream system where Afaan Oromoo and Amharic would be used as LoLTs in the same school, Expert 2 said it would be very complicated to manage especially with the presence of other migrant children who speak languages other than Amharic and Afaan Oromoo. In such a scenario, peer pressure might force some learners to cling to their friends and learn in a language that is not their first language. The head of the Addis Ababa education office concluded with a promise to call on the government to find a lasting solution to these problems.

5.2.2 Interviews with experts from the Bole sub-section education bureau

5.2.2.1 The importance of first language and the success of MTE in Ethiopia

On the importance of studying in one's first language and the success of MTE in Ethiopia, the head of this bureau believes that MTE in Ethiopia has largely been a success since 1994 when the government instituted the right for all to be educated in their MT. He insisted on using one's first language as LoLT in primary school because it is the language the child will use to communicate knowledge, skills and experiences from his/her community. The bureau head went further to explain that these experiences, norms and values will help learners to build links between what they know from the society and what they learn in the classrooms or school environment. As a result, they become successful in their academic achievement since they have strong foundations in their first language.

According to Expert 1, it is important for the child to begin school in their first language because parents can actively participate in helping the child at home. He goes ahead to give an example of how parents can guide their

children to do homework or other independent learning at home if they speak the same language that is used in school. Expert 2 was of the opinion that using first language in school instils confidence and the zeal to study in the child. He points out that if a child has self-confidence he can ask and answer questions in class and communicate freely with peers. This he says is “a stepping stone to success in academics.”

The bureau head points out that this success has not been evident in all the regions because Grade 10 and 8 results show a higher success rate for learners in regions where exams are written in the MT than in regions written in English. Besides the poor performances of learners writing in English, the head of the bureau also commented on the dominance of Amharic over all other languages in Ethiopia. According to him, Amharic is considered by many as the only language of hope for a brighter future in Ethiopia. The researcher probed into this question to know if learners who speak languages other than Amharic and are going through their primary studies in Addis Ababa perform well in their exams. The head of the bureau explained that these learners perform poorly in Grade 8 when they write the first regional exams and repeat the class. Few of them perform well in Grade 10 while most of them are forced to enrol into vocational schools. As to why most of them repeat Grade 8, Expert 1 expressed his fears on the language problem which, according to him, could be the absence of a solid foundation in the early years of primary school.

5.2.2.2 Educational challenges faced by migrant children who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa

The researcher asked the experts from this office (the Bole sub-city education bureau if they were aware of the presence of hundreds of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and are studying in Amharic in the Ayart district. The head of the bureau admitted that his office was aware and very concerned about these learners although it had never been a priority problem to the government. On the question of what educational challenges learners who speak Afaan Oromoo and are using Amharic as LoLT face,

the head of this bureau disclosed that at the end of every year his office registers a number of children who dropped out of school from the Ayart district because of their inability to speak and communicate in Amharic. He said the very first challenge faced by these learners is their inability to speak and understand Amharic.

The head of the bureau went further to point out that teachers of the Ayart district have always complained “it is very easy to identify children who do not speak and understand Amharic in class because they are very difficult learners to manage.” The head of the bureau said intimidation from other learners was another problem in these classrooms. Learners who cannot speak Amharic do not feel free to speak in class because others laugh at them. Expert 1 on his part attributed the seriousness of the problem to the fact that the parents at home cannot also speak and understand Amharic which means they cannot assist their children in their academic struggles.

Expert 2 emphasised on how distracted learners could be in the classroom if they do not understand the language used in teaching. What seems to be the biggest challenge for these learners according to the head of bureau is for them to acquire Amharic and at the same time use it as a LoLT in Grade 1. He thought that the free promotion policy that allows every learner to be promoted up till grade 4 does not work in favour of the learner. The researcher probed further this question to find out why the free promotion policy is applied in schools with hundreds of learners who do not speak and understand Amharic. The head of the bureau explained that it is a policy instituted by the government to allow learners to build up self-esteem and develop a positive attitude towards learning.

This policy according to the government encourages the child to work hard and improve on their performance in the next class so teachers are called upon to improve on their teaching and guarantee success for the learner. However, the facts do not bear this out. In Grade 4 where these learners are expected to achieve a target grade in assessments before promotion, most of them fail and repeat the class. Expert 1 said that when these

learners finally get to Grade 8, they fail and repeat the class again and most of them drop out of school or enrol into vocational schools where they can learn a trade. On the question of how the community or parents respond to this language problem, the head of bureau said that the fear of future unemployment for their children has kept them quiet and to these parents the challenges their children are facing now is a necessary hurdle to overcome before gaining success in the future.

5.2.2.3 Current teaching strategies used in multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa

On the question of which current teaching strategies teachers used in multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa, the head of the bureau explained that primary school teachers who are trained in Teacher Training Institutions for three years in Addis Ababa are not given any specific training on how to manage multilingual classes. He further explained that the presence of hundreds of learners who speak languages other than Amharic has compelled teachers to develop strategies such as pairing learners who do not speak and understand Amharic with learners whose first language is Amharic and in addition do speak and understand Afaan Oromoo. In this way, the Amharic speaking learners help to translate to their Afaan Oromoo speaking mates. Expert 1 said that in some cases where the teacher is Afaan Oromoo speaking the situation is better because they code switch to Afaan Oromoo as a teaching strategy to help the learners understand the lesson.

The researcher asked to know if parts of the subject content are not being neglected in the process of code switching or during translation from one learner to the other. The head of the bureau said at the end of each week, teachers of these classes are expected to also give remedial lessons with the help of an Afaan Oromoo speaking teacher. According to Expert 2, these learners are also expected to learn Amharic by association. Associating with Amharic speakers in and outside the class gives the learner a chance to acquire the language. As the learner gradually begins to speak and

communicate with peers, it becomes easier to understand the teacher. On the question of how possible it was for these learners to grasp difficult subject content in Amharic by mere association when they are still struggling to acquire the language, Expert 1 accepted that these learners find it very difficult from the beginning and it reflects on their performance in Grade 1 but gradually they acquire Amharic and by mid-term Grade 2, most of them can speak and understand Amharic.

5.2.2.4 How has MTE served the interests of Afaan Oromoo speaking children in selected schools in Addis Ababa?

On the question on how MTE has served the interests of Afaan Oromoo speaking children in Addis Ababa, the head of the bureau said MTE has served these learners in many ways but not educationally. The bureau head argued that educationally these children are always lagging behind their peers who speak Amharic as their first language. He said the problem becomes very evident in Grade 8 when most of them fail and repeat the class and in Grade 9 when they switch from MT to English as LoLT. These learners have learnt English as a 3rd language for 8years only and it becomes very difficult to switch from learning and using Amharic as a LoLT to suddenly using English as a LoLT. He said many of these learners perform very poorly during the first regional exam in Grade 8. Despite their poor performances in Grade 12 though, many still enrol into the university. Probing into why and how this situation prevails, the head of the bureau said that the government decides on the pass mark. He preferred to refrain from making more comments on this particular point.

Commenting on other ways in which MTE has served the interests of Afaan Oromoo speaking children in Addis Ababa, Expert 1 said that in two to three years these learners begin to communicate freely in Amharic. In this way, daily life in Addis Ababa where Amharic is the common language of communication becomes easy and parents see a brighter future for their children. In a situation where the child cannot proceed to high school, they enrol into vocational schools and learn a trade and can gain employment in

Addis Ababa. According to Expert 2, MTE in Addis Ababa has served the interests of Afaan Oromoo speaking children because it has made them “bilinguals” over their Amharic speaking mates. As bilinguals they can fit into different situations that might need two languages. He further explained that in a situation where the child has to return to the Oromia Region, he/she will have an added advantage over his/her mates because Amharic will be his/her second language and clearly be in a favourable position going into any school.

5.2.2.5 Possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as a LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa

On the possibility of introducing any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa, the head of bureau expressed his fears: “this might take a very long time because it is very complicated.” He insisted that the biggest challenge is the fact that the government does not recognise this problem as a priority. Next, the process of introducing Afaan Oromoo as another LoLT will have to be a joint venture between Oromia and Addis Ababa regions. It requires planning on how to raise finances and get experts for such a project. Expert 1 said this will have to begin from training teachers and making available necessary school materials for teaching and textbooks for learners. Expert 2 stressed on the issue of time; introducing another language as LoLT in Addis Ababa will take a very long time. Time to build separate schools that will use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT, time to employ and train new teachers, and time to make available teaching materials and textbooks for the learners.

From a political point of view, the bureau head said the issue of introducing Afaan Oromoo in particular as another LoLT in Addis Ababa was a “hard nut to crack.” The fact that Afaan Oromoo is the language spoken by a majority in Ethiopia and Amharic is the common language of communication in Addis Ababa makes it very difficult. He preferred to stay quiet on this particular and sensitive issue. Added to this is the fact that choosing Afaan Oromoo amongst the many other languages spoken by learners in Addis Ababa will not be a fair decision to the parents and learners from the other regions. In

conclusion, the experts from this bureau said they could only advice as language experts but the final decision has to be taken by the government.

5.2.3 Interviews with experts from Oromia education bureau

5.2.3.1 The importance of first language and the success of MTE in Ethiopia

On the importance of first language and the success of MTE in Ethiopia, the head of this bureau stressed on the importance of offering primary school curriculum from Grades 1 to 7 or 8 in the MT because it permits the child to learn comfortably. He pointed out that using a language which a child cannot speak or understand builds a barrier to knowledge and the child becomes frustrated. The bureau head went further to explain that MTE in Ethiopia has been a great success in the regions where the LoLT is the same as the language that the learners speak from Grade 1 to Grade 10. He gives the example of his region Oromia where there has been a marked success in the Grade 10 national exams. Below is a table he presented as proof of the success of MTE in the Oromia region in Ethiopia.

Table 5.2 Comparison of Afaan Oromo students' terminal examination results at the end of Grade 10

Year in E.C/G.	Regional States' Relative Standings in %				
	GPA	Oromia	Amhara	Tigray	SNNPR
1993/2001	>2	26.91	23.63	20.41	-----
1994/2001	>2	29.10	22.52	20.32	-----
1995/2003	>2	29.22	21.56	-----	16.4
1996/2004	>2	29.67	23.62	-----	17.0

Source: Oromia Education Bureau (OEB 2006)

According to the bureau head's views, the above comparative achievement is thanks to the introduction of MT education in the Oromia region. He

explained that Grade 10 national examinations are the second immediate achievement measuring tools after the grade 8 regional examinations and are usually indicative of the predictive value of the success in MTE. From 1993 to 1996, the Oromia region learners who used MTE recorded better results compared to Amhara, Tigray, and the Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region (SNNPR) where English is used as LoLT from Grade 7.

Responding to the same question, Expert 2 confirmed that MT or L1 education makes the learner confident and free to communicate. Moreover, he prefers a learning environment where the learner can communicate in and outside the classroom. The researcher asked why the presence of many learners from the Oromia region who speak only Afaan Oromoo but are using Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa has not been a problem to the government if MTE was so important in the early years of a child. The head of the bureau clarified the fact that it has always been an issue for the Oromia education experts but the government has never focused on the problem.

Similarly, Expert 2 pointed out that learners whose first language is Amharic and are studying in Addis Ababa always perform better in Grade 8 and 10 than learners whose first language is not Amharic. It becomes worse in Grade 10 when they have to write the exams in English. He explained that English to these learners is a 3rd language which has been taught as a subject for only 8 years. This period of time, he said, is not enough to permit learners write a national exam in English. The head of the bureau admitted MTE was the best option, but only if it was implemented correctly for the benefit of all children.

5.2.3.3 Educational challenges faced by migrant children who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa

The head of the Oromia Regional bureau was very blunt about the challenges learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo face in Addis Ababa.

The biggest challenge these learners face according to the bureau head is their inability to communicate with teachers and peers in and outside the classroom. This handicaps the learning process and leaves the learner very uncomfortable in school. The head of the bureau disclosed that his office has records of children who have dropped out of school at the end of the very first term in Grade 1. Added to this, these children suffer from low self-esteem and lack of confidence.

Expert 2 said that the second challenge for the learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo is the lack of trained teachers to teach multilingual classes. Learners are unable to understand subject content because teachers lack the appropriate skills to convey knowledge. According to Expert 2, the presence of hundreds of learners who speak languages other than Amharic in Addis Ababa is good enough reason for the government to train teachers on how to manage and teach multilingual classes. Expert 1 adhered to this point by making reference to a number of schools along the borders of Addis Ababa with hundreds of learners who do not speak or understand Amharic.

The head of the bureau further explained that learners who speak languages other than Amharic and are studying in Addis Ababa are facing a “double struggle” Learning to understand and speak Amharic and using Amharic to understand the content of the lesson. “For a child who is just a beginner it is easy to get frustrated” he reiterated. This “double struggle” justifies why many of these learners fail and repeat Grade 4. Very few manage to reach Grade 8 and even so do not succeed in the regional exams written in Amharic; so they fail and repeat the class. Age, according to him, becomes another challenge for these learners; in Grade 8 it is not uncommon to find learners between the ages of 20/21. Expert 2 pointed out that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo do not receive any support from their parents at home. He stressed on the fact that doing school work at home is practically impossible because there is no one who speaks and understands Amharic at home.

5.2.3.4 Current teaching strategies used in multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa

On the question of current teaching strategies used to teach multilingual classes, the head of the bureau said teachers in Addis Ababa are not trained to teach multilingual classes; instead they are expected to improvise during lessons and find better ways helping these learners. According to the bureau head, pairing the learners with Amharic speaking learners and also using learners who can speak and understand both Amharic and Afaan Oromoo to translate has been successful. Teachers who do not speak and understand Afaan Oromoo are supposed to work together with Afaan Oromoo speaking teachers who can help to translate for these learners.

The second question on this theme was on how effective a translation from one learner to another during lessons can be. Expert 1 agreed there will always be differences and changes in meaning from what the teacher says to what is being translated. He explained that what has worked out best for the learners is when the teacher speaks and understands Afaan Oromoo and code switches during lessons for the sake of the Afaan Oromoo learners. According to Expert 2 what has worked out best is when Afaan Oromoo speaking learners associate with Amharic speaking learners in order to acquire the language naturally.

Expert 1 concurred that giving the learners free time to play and communicate with their peers in and outside the classroom gives Afaan Oromoo learners a chance to use and gradually acquire Amharic especially in Grade 1. Those who are more able can understand, speak, communicate and even write Amharic in Grade 2 and 3. Expert 1 further explained that less able or slow learners take more time and can only understand, speak and write Amharic in Grade 4. Expert 2 said another teaching strategy that is currently used in these schools is group and pair work where learners work together whereby Amharic speaking learners lead the discussions and presentations and Afaan Oromoo learners are supposed to follow the

example and also speak in Amharic. In this way, Afaan Oromoo learners are expected to acquire Amharic faster.

5.2.3.5 How has MTE served the interests of Afaan Oromoo speaking children in selected schools in Addis Ababa?

According to the head of the bureau, MTE education has served the interests of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in some areas but not educationally. Educationally, he says MTE has served very few learners from Oromia because most of them do not enrol into the university because of poor performances. Records show that most Afaan Oromoo speaking learners do not perform well in Grade 10 and are forced to go back to Grade 9 and repeat the cycle or go to a vocational school. A probe into this question sought to know why learners needed to go back to Grade 9 instead of repeating the class. The head of the bureau said it is a policy instituted by the government to give a second chance for learners who perform poorly to improve on their performance.

Expert 1 said MTE has served Afaan Oromoo speaking children to an extent because many of them end up getting employment in Addis Ababa. He explained that instead of going back to repeat Grade 9 most of these learners prefer to enrol into vocational schools where they are able to learn a trade. Expert 1 emphasised on the satisfaction an employment will give to a parent whose dream has been to see their child succeed and get employed in Addis Ababa. Expert 2 on his part believes MTE has not served the interests of Afaan Oromoo children in Addis Ababa. He reiterated the importance of first language education for every child. According to him, educating these children in a language which they do not speak and understand is denying their right. Besides, language barrier can cause or hinder an intelligent child from attaining the highest level in education.

The head of the bureau expanded on this point by highlighting the role of MTE in the early years of a child. He said MTE is supposed to encourage rather than frustrate a child to the point of abandoning school. He explained

that many of these dropouts roam the streets of Addis Ababa and end up as housemaids and labourers or travel to Arab countries for better opportunities. MTE in Addis Ababa to a greater extent according to experts from this bureau has not served the interests of hundreds of learners who speak languages other than Amharic.

5.2.3.6 Possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as a LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa

On the question of how possible it was for the government to introduce Afaan Oromoo or any other language as a LoLT in Addis Ababa, the head of the bureau said it was yet to be considered by the government.¹ He disclosed that his office had already made this proposal to the government and is still waiting for a favourable reply. According to the bureau head, the Oromia education bureau in Addis Ababa is prepared to collaborate with the education office in Oromia and go into a joint project with the government to introduce Afaan Oromoo as another LoLT in Addis Ababa.

According to bureau head, Afaan Oromoo is the only language amongst many other languages spoken by learners in Addis Ababa that has a chance of being considered as another LoLT in Addis Ababa. Probing into why this is so, Expert 2 explained that the greater part of the population are originally L1 speakers of Afaan Oromoo and not Amharic but because Amharic is the common language of communication used in all domains in Addis Ababa. It should be noted that the presence of about two million people who speak Amharic in Addis Ababa does not necessarily mean that Amharic is their MT or L1. Amharic is used in all domains of life in Addis Ababa and serves as LoLT in some schools in Addis Ababa. The head of the bureau admitted the reasons were political and sensitive to any discussions.

Besides political reasons, Expert 2 said introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa would be very expensive. The

¹ At the time of this interview, there were no schools that used Afaan Oromoo as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

process he said must begin from the training of teachers who will teach in Afaan Oromoo. Building of new schools, providing teaching materials and textbooks in Afaan Oromoo is another challenge for the government. Expert 2 went further to explain that the process will involve the employment of new language experts to manage the running of these new schools. To the head of bureau, the government is able to change the present situation if only the problem can be considered a priority. He suggested the government needed to work hand in hand with the experts from the education bureau in Oromia to facilitate the process of using Afaan Oromoo in Addis Ababa because Afaan Oromoo is being used as a LoLT in Oromia. Probing further into this question, the researcher sought to know if there was a possibility of introducing a two-stream system in one school where by Amharic and Afaan Oromoo could be used as LoLTs in Addis Ababa. On this question, Expert 1 emphasised on how complicated it would be to manage two-streams because of the presence of many other learners who speak languages other than Amharic and Afaan Oromoo.

5.3 Synopsis of the three education bureaus in Addis Ababa

The Addis Ababa education bureau, the Bole sub-city education bureau and the Oromia Regional education bureau are concerned with the running of the day-to-day affairs of all primary and secondary schools in Addis Ababa. From the above presentation of the interview sessions carried out on different days, at different times and in different offices, it is important to outline the similarities and differences of these experts who are in charge of implementing the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa.

5.3.1 Similarities

From all three bureaus, the idea of using MT or first language in the first years of learning is considered important for the success of the child in school. MTE in Ethiopia is said to have been a success since the 1994 constitution allowed all Ethiopians to be educated in their MT. There was also a consensus on the fact that the success rate in Addis Ababa was lower

because of the presence of many children who speak languages other than Amharic but are going through their primary school in Addis Ababa. Experts from all three bureaus admitted that learners who speak languages other than Amharic do face considerable educational challenges in the classroom because Amharic is not their MT or L1.

The experts from all the three bureaus were also in agreement that in the main MTE in Addis Ababa has not successfully served Afaan Oromoo learners educationally, but to an extent it has socially. Most of them graduate from vocational training schools and are able to find employment in Addis Ababa. From all three bureaus, it was also clear that the government has not made any provision for the training of teachers to teach bilingual or multilingual classes in Addis Ababa. Current teaching strategies include the use of learners as translators, code switching where possible, and learning by association. Experts from the three bureaus were in agreement that introducing any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa would be very difficult because the issue is not yet a priority problem for the government. Besides, introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT is going to be very expensive and needs time for proper planning.

5.3.2 Differences

Despite the similarities in their point of views, these experts differed in many areas. From the Addis Ababa main office, it is believed that MTE has been a huge success in Ethiopia as a whole despite the fact that Amharic is the only LoLT and the official working language in Ethiopia. Experts from the Bole sub-city office and Oromia regional office made it clear that MTE has been a huge success only in those regions where MT is being used as LoLT and up till Grade 10. As far as educational challenges for learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo are concerned, experts from the Addis Ababa main office believe that learners should acquire Amharic and use it as LoLT within the shortest time possible overcoming any challenges. According to them, by the end of Grade 1 learners should acquire Amharic and use it to learn in class. The Bole sub-city and Oromia regional bureau experts were

not in favour of these learners using Amharic to study while they speak another language at home. According to them, lack of communication and interaction in class with the teachers from the first days of school affects the child's later performances in school.

On the issue of current teaching strategies, the experts from the Addis Ababa education bureau were of the view that learning by association and direct translation from classmates works out well for most learners. Meanwhile experts from the Bole sub-city and Oromia regional bureaus opined that learning by association and direct translation is not good enough to understand subject content for learners who do not speak and understand Amharic because something will always be left out from what the teacher said. MTE according to the experts from the Addis Ababa bureau has served Afaan Oromoo speaking learners socially and educationally. Socially, learners who speak Afaan Oromoo have gained employment in Addis Ababa after training in technical and vocational schools. Understanding and speaking Amharic in primary school instils confidence that the learners take into later life as they can freely interact in the society. Educationally, some of these learners have succeeded in obtaining degrees from the University of Addis Ababa and diplomas from other educational institutions of higher learning or tertiary education.

Contrary to this view, experts from Bole sub-city and Oromia regional bureaus are of the opinion that MTE has only served Afaan Oromoo learners socially. Educationally, they say that language has been a barrier to success for far too many of these learners. As proof, most of them go on to repeat Grade 8 and subsequently prefer to enrol into technical and vocational schools if they do not succeed in Grade 10. Very few Afaan Oromoo speaking learners get enrolled into the University of Addis Ababa.

On the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language in Addis Ababa, the Addis Ababa education bureau experts think there is little or no possibility because of the huge financial implications including the costs and length of time needed to train teachers, the building of new

schools and making available teaching materials in Afaan Oromoo. The experts from the other two bureaus expressed the possibility of doing so depending on whether the government considers the problem a priority or not.

5.4 Interviews with Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in Marie and Cheffie Schools

Marie and Cheffie primary schools are situated far away from town but closer to the area where most Afaan Oromoo speaking families live. These schools serve a socio-economically disadvantaged community with most of its learners from desperately poor homes. Typically, they come from informal settlements and live in crowded and squalid conditions. From a personal encounter with some learners and educators, the researcher gathered that most of the parents are crop farmers who rely totally on their farms for their daily subsistence. They spend most of the day in the fields and only return home in the evenings for dinner. They speak Afaan Oromoo and do not speak or understand Amharic in the first months after relocating to Addis Ababa. After about six months, most of the parents begin to acquire Amharic from interacting with other people. Within a year, the parents can use Amharic for basic communication in the market and for transportation. Learners from this area come from very poor homes with hardly any food to eat in the morning before leaving for school. They trek long distances in the morning and often get to school tired and hungry. Very few Amharic speakers live in this area, which means these migrant children most often, mingle with Amharic speakers in school. Both schools have a feeding scheme where about 850 children are fed a hot meal once a day. For many of these children, this may be the only meal they get for that day.

Table 5.3 Learners' Demography

No	Variables		Meri Primary School			Cheffie Primary School		
	V=1	V=2	G1	G2	G3	G1	G2	G3
			N	N	N	N	N	N
1	Ethnic group	Oromoo	33	30	27	29	25	23
		Amhara	32	36	30	30	26	26
		Others	4	2	3	6	4	6
2	Learners first language	Oromoo	33	30	27	27	25	22
		Amhara	32	32	29	32	26	26
		Others	4	6	4	6	4	7
3	Number of languages spoken by learners	One	52	50	52	56	44	42
		Two	14	10	7	9	7	10
		Three & more	3	8	1	-	4	3
4	Who takes care of learners at home	Father/Mother	23	20	16	21	15	17
		Father alone	8	10	15	11	12	10
		Mother alone	32	30	24	20	22	24
		Others	6	8	5	3	6	4
5	Gender	Male	30	27	23	25	23	21
		Female	39	41	37	30	32	34
6	Age	1-6 years	12	-	-	10	-	-
		7-12 years	37	20	8	30	25	24
		13-20 Years	20	48	43	15	30	27
		20 & Above	-	-	9	-	-	4

Interview questions for these learners focused on attitudes towards the use of Amharic as the only LoLT. The interview questions also asked for the learners' views on any educational challenges they might be facing as they use Amharic as a LoLT in Addis Ababa. The learners were also asked to express any concern(s) if given the opportunity to study only in Afaan Oromoo in another school. Semi-structured interview questions were used that permitted the researcher to ask for further explanations or reframe the question whenever necessary. It is important to note the demographic features of the learners from both schools. Learner enrolment from Grade 1-3 shows that Afaan Oromoo learners make up about 50% of the population in the schools. These learners between the ages of 9 and 15 are mostly from the Oromoo ethnic group and can only speak one language.

Interestingly, most of these learners have only their mothers to take care of them at home. Data will now be thematically narrated and presented graphically.

5.4.1 Learners' interviews: Marie School

From Figure 5.1, 90% of the learners interviewed in Grade 1 do not like or are not comfortable using Amharic as LoLT because they cannot speak or understand the language, whereas 10% of the learners do not mind using Amharic because it is the language that everybody speaks in Addis Ababa. Four-fifth (80%) of the learners according to Figure 5.1 said that they do not like to use Amharic because of their inability to pronounce some Amharic words correctly in class, which provokes the rest of the class to laughter. A fifth (20%) of these learners said that their inability to speak in Amharic during lessons caused them to stay quiet most of the time. 60% of the learners interviewed said that they got scared and uncomfortable in the class because they could not communicate with the teacher and sometimes contemplated dropping out from school. Figure 1 shows that 40% of learners got scared and uncomfortable but still preferred to stay in school and use Amharic to learn.

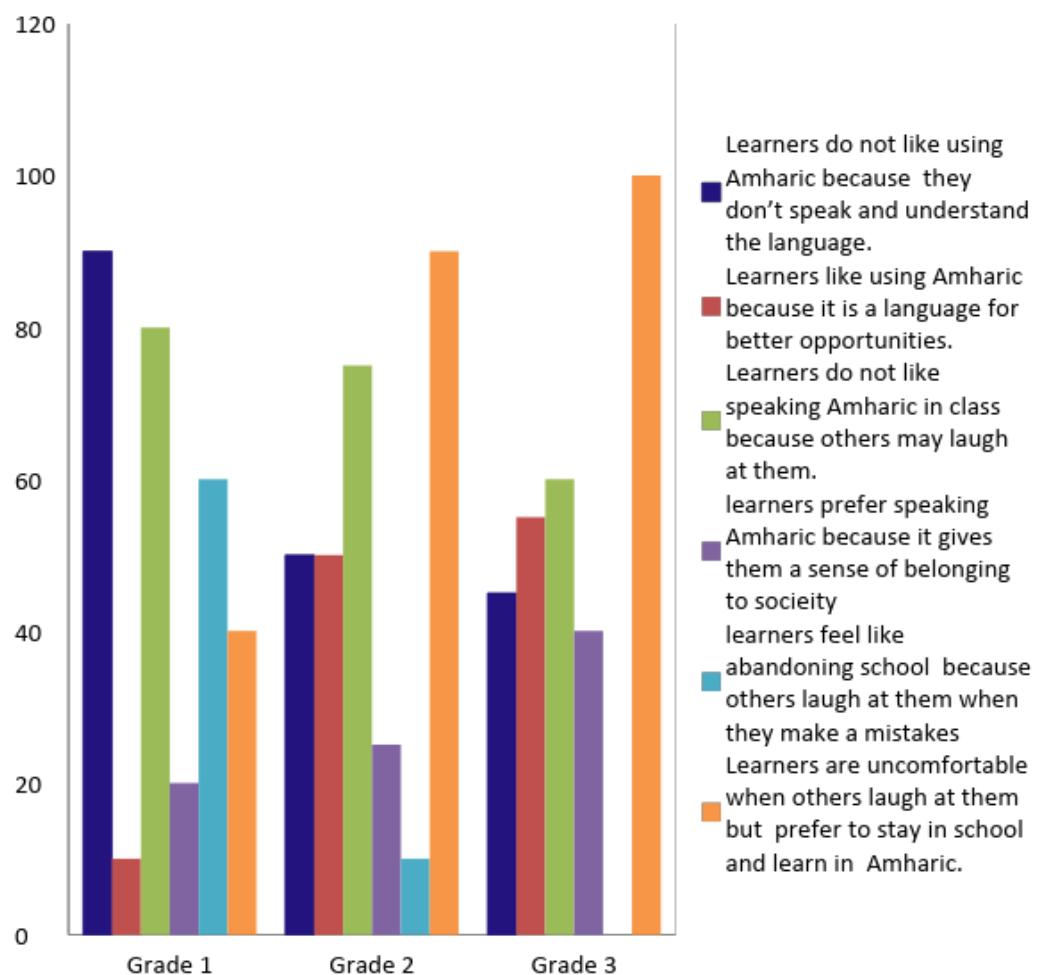


Figure 5.1 Learners' Attitudes Towards Using Amharic as LoLT

In Grade 2, Figure 5.1 reveals that 50% of learners interviewed feel uncomfortable using Amharic to study because of their inability to understand and speak the language. Out of the 20 learners interviewed 50% had developed some liking for Amharic as LoLT because Amharic is considered as the language for better opportunities in Addis Ababa. From Figure 4.1, 75% of learners said that they did not like using Amharic as LoLT in Grade 2 because their pronunciation was usually different each time they tried to talk in class and the rest of the class would laugh at them. A quarter (25%) of the learners said that wrong pronunciations and inability to speak Amharic has turned them into quiet observers most of the time. A tenth (10%) of the learners interviewed still feel like abandoning school and going back home because other learners laughed at them each time they made a

mistake in class; meanwhile 90 % said that although they were being mocked by their friends and Amharic was difficult they still preferred to stay in school and learn.

In Grade 3, the situation was somewhat different because Figure 5.1 shows that 55% of learners interviewed liked using Amharic as LoLT because it was the common language of communication in Addis Ababa and a necessity for all who intended to make a living in Addis Ababa. 45% of learners still felt uncomfortable and sad using the language in and outside the classroom because they do not understand or speak Amharic. According to Figure 4.1, 60% of the 20 learners interviewed in Grade 3 do not like using Amharic as LoLT because they felt shy and uncomfortable amongst Amharic speaking learners who laughed at them each time they made mistakes in speaking Amharic. In parallel, Figure 4.1 reveals that 40% said they cannot speak or understand Amharic or so they prefer remain quiet during lessons. At this level 100% of the learners said they had no plans of abandoning school for any reasons because learning was very important.

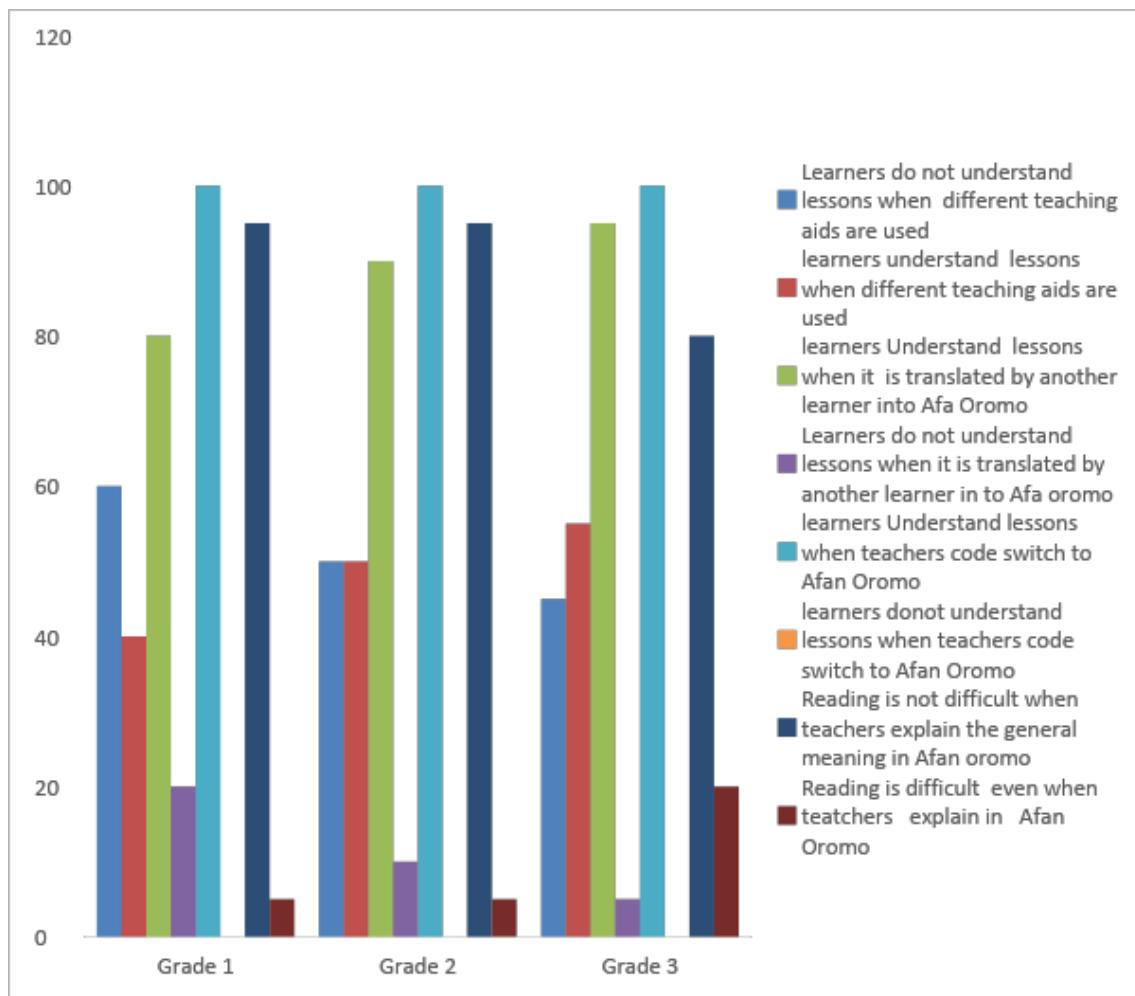


Figure 5.2 Learners' Views on How Easily They Understand Amharic as LoLT Given in the Current Teaching Methods

Figure 5.2 shows that in Grade 1, 60% of the learners interviewed do not understand the lesson when teachers use different teaching aids and classroom demonstrations. They can identify and name different objects teachers use in Afaan Oromoo but cannot retain the new names in Amharic. 40% of the learners admitted that teachers who use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations make the lesson easier and they understand because matching Amharic names to different objects makes it easier to memorise. Regarding the use of other learners as translators, 80% of the learners said they understand the lesson when it is translated by another learner into Afaan Oromoo; meanwhile 20% of learners said the learners

who translate the lesson are not explicit and sometimes details of the lessons are incomplete so they got confused.

Figure 5.2 also reveals that 100% of learners interviewed indicated that lessons taught by teachers who use code switching as a teaching method made the lesson easier to understand. Reading from the textbook during lessons according to the learners interviewed is usually the most difficult part of the lesson. 95% of 20 learners said they could not read because Amharic words and pronunciations are very difficult and different from Afaan Oromoo. The general meaning of the passage that is read in class is usually very difficult to understand especially if the teacher only explains in Amharic. Only 5% of the learners said reading is not as difficult because sometimes the teacher would explain the general meaning of the text in Afaan Oromoo and he/she will use the difficult words to make different sentences.

In Grade 2, Figure 5.2 shows that the number of learners who do not understand lessons when teachers use teaching aids and classroom demonstration reduced from 60 to 50%. They indicated that even though teachers use practical objects in class, they get confused and mixed up between the Amharic and Afaan Oromoo names. Half (50%) of the learners who indicated they understood the lesson when teachers use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations said it was easier to understand because they had seen some of these objects back at home. When learners are used as translators during lessons, 90% of the learners said they understand the lesson because it is explained in Afaan Oromoo. On the other hand, 10% of the learners said they still do not understand the lesson because they struggle with the pronunciations of the translators and end up confused.

From Figure 5.2 it can be seen that 100% of Grade 2 learners understand the lesson when teachers code switch to Afaan Oromoo. Reading from textbooks during lessons in Grade 2 was the most difficult according to Figure 4.2; 95% of learners indicated they find it very difficult because the alphabet and pronunciations of Amharic words and are very difficult and different from those of Afaan Oromoo. Besides, the meaning of difficult

words and the passage as a whole is usually not understood. 5% of learners who said reading was not a problem explained they had acquired some Amharic in Grade 2 and could read from the textbook.

In Grade 3, Figure 5.2 shows that the percentage of learners who do not understand lessons when teachers use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations reduced from 50 to 45%. According to the 45% of learners, practical objects and demonstrations used during lessons are a reflection of what they know and see at home so what comes to mind easily are the names in Afaan Oromoo. 55% of learners accepted that classroom demonstrations and teaching aids made lessons easier to understand because with Afaan Oromoo names in mind the Amharic version becomes easier to memorise. In this Grade, 95% of learners accepted they understood lessons when teachers use learners as translators. Figure 5.2 shows that 5% of learners still had problems with the translations from learners but they didn't give any reasons why. Code switching also works out well in Grade 3 because 100% of all the learners interviewed agreed they understand the lesson very well when teachers used both languages. Table 5.2 shows that 80% of learners cannot read from the textbook or from the board during lessons. Even so, 20% of learners had acquired some Amharic and admitted they could read from the textbook with the assistance of the teacher.

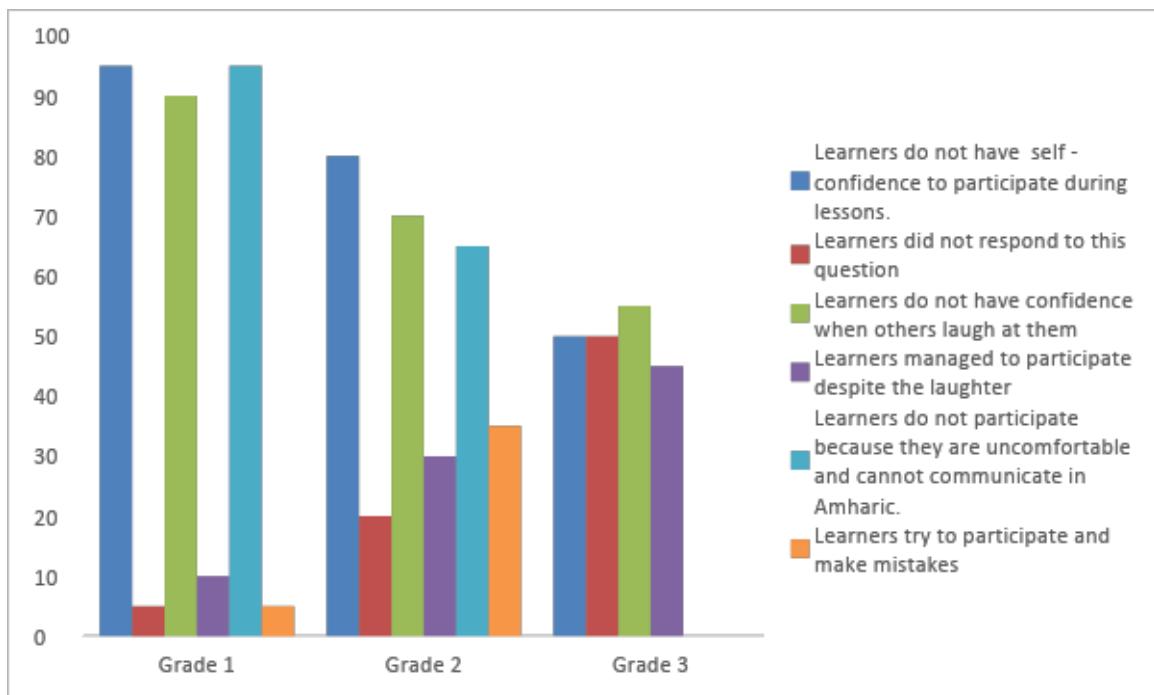


Figure 5.3 Learners' Views on How Confident They Are to Participate During Lessons

As can be seen on Figure 5.3, 95% of the learners in Grade 1 indicated that they had no self-confidence to participate during lessons because teachers spoke only in Amharic throughout the lesson and it was difficult to understand. They felt sad and preferred to stay quiet throughout the lesson. 5% of the learners interviewed stayed quiet and did not respond to this question. 90% of Grade 1 learners revealed that each time they tried to communicate in Amharic they made mistakes and the other learners laughed at them so they felt ashamed and scared to ask or answer any questions in the classroom. 10% of the learners interviewed said that despite the laughter they still managed to participate by using incorrect Amharic to ask or answer questions in class. When the teacher decides to call randomly on learners to answer questions in class, 95% of learners said if called by the teacher to speak in class, they become tense and uncomfortable and prefer to remain quiet. 5% of the learners interviewed revealed that when called by teachers to answer questions in class they prefer to speak incorrect Amharic and be corrected by the teacher so as to learn.

Figure 5.3 shows that 80% of the learners in Grade 2 who were interviewed have lost confidence in their own ability because everything in class is said and done in Amharic and they feel out of place amongst Amharic speaking learners every day. A fifth (20%) of learners indicated that despite the use of Amharic as LoLT in class they still have confidence and do participate during lessons. 70% of learners revealed they had no self-confidence to participate during lessons because Afaan Oromoo learners had become a form of distraction. Learners burst out laughing each time the teacher calls on an Afaan Oromoo learner to answer a question in class even before the learner figures out what to give as an answer to the teacher. According to the learners this attitude kills the spirit of learning in them.

30% of learners on the other hand refuse to let others discourage them from learning and made every effort to participate in class. According to figure 5.3, 65% of learners said that whenever the teacher calls randomly on learners to answer questions in class lack of self-confidence made them panic and got them wishing it would never be their turn. According to 35% of learners in Grade 2, speaking in class and making mistakes is the only way to improve on their communication in Amharic. Each time the teacher called on them they answered in wrong Amharic and the teacher would always make the corrections.

According to Figure 5.3, 50% of Grade 3 learners still had no confidence and felt uncomfortable and sad during lessons because Amharic is difficult to speak and understand. 50% of the learners said they had acquired some Amharic and could understand some aspects of the lesson. In Grade 3 learners had become more mature and no longer laughed at those who made mistakes in class so there were no learners who indicated they lacked self-confidence because of intimidation from others. 55% of the learners indicated they had developed some self- confidence and could answer questions if the teacher called on them while 45% of the learners expressed their inability to answer questions in class due to low self-esteem. The

language barrier has made Afaan Oromoo speaking learners feel inferior or feel like 2nd class citizens in the classroom.

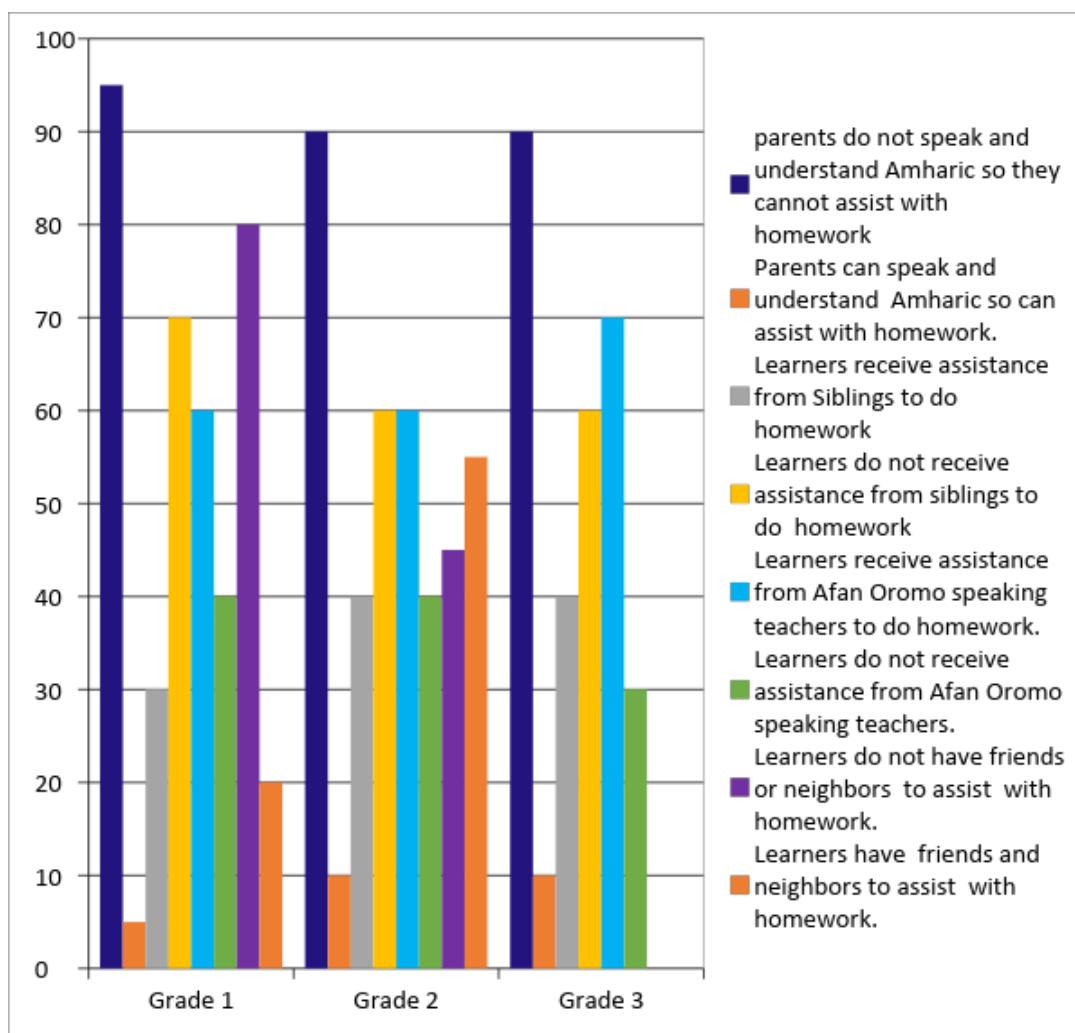


Figure 5.4 Learners' Views on the Assistance the Receive in Doing Homework

Figure 5.4 reveals that 95% of the learners interviewed in Grade 1 have parents who speak only Afaan Oromoo and spend most of their time in the fields. Only 5% of the learners said they receive assistance from their parents who can speak and understand Amharic. They explained that their parents have been living in Addis Ababa for a very long time and are employed by the government. From the 20 learners interviewed, 30% accepted they do receive assistance to do homework from either a sister or brother in a higher grade in the same school. They said it is easy to do

homework if you had siblings in the higher grades to assist you. 70% of the learners did not have any sister or brother in the higher grades to assist them with their homework.

From Figure 5.4 it can be seen that 60% of learners said sometimes teachers who speak and understand Afaan Oromo did help them with their homework. They added that this did not happen all the time because sometimes the Afaan Oromoo teachers were all absent from school. 40% of the learners said they did not receive any assistance from Afaan Oromoo speaking teachers because the assistance is given usually after school. From Figure 5.4 it can be seen that 80% of Grade 1 learners have no friends or neighbours in the neighbourhood to help with homework because back in at home they are surrounded only by Afaan Oromoo speaking families who do not speak or understand Amharic. 20% of the learners said yes to friends who understand and speak Amharic in the neighbourhood and who sometimes help with their homework.

In Grade 2, the percentage of learners who do not have parents who can assist with homework dropped insignificantly by 5%. According to Figure 5.4, 90% of the learners said that their parents speak only Afaan Oromoo and cannot help with their homework. 10% of learners accepted they receive assistance from their parents because they live with their uncles and aunties who work with the government and have lived in Addis Ababa for some time. 40% of the learners indicated that they have siblings in the higher grades to help with homework. 60% of learners have no brother or sister in a higher grade to help them with homework. From Figure 5.4, 60% of the learners accepted that Afaan Oromoo teachers sometimes assisted with homework meanwhile 40% said no to any assistance from Afaan Oromoo speaking teachers because it is done usually after school. In Grade 2, Figure 5.4 shows that the percentage of friends in the neighbourhood who can assist with homework increased to 55%. The percentage of those who still had no friends or neighbours to help stands at 45%.

From Figure 5.4, 90% of learners interviewed in Grade 3 indicated their parents were all illiterate farmers who only spoke Afaan Oromoo and were unable to help with homework. The learners revealed that their parents barely had time to see them in the evenings when they returned from the fields. 10% of learners accepted that they receive assistance from their uncles and aunts who work in Addis Ababa and do speak and understand Amharic. 60% of the learners said that they had no siblings in the higher grades to help with homework and this made it difficult for them to catch up with the rest of the Amharic speaking learners who completed their homework all the time. Figure 5.4 shows that 40% accepted they had siblings in the higher grades to assist with homework. 70% of learners in Grade 3 had made more friends in the neighbourhood who assisted with homework. 30% of the learners interviewed said they had no friends or neighbours in the neighbourhood to help with homework because they live farther away from where most learners live. They revealed that their homework is never done and they feel sad when the teacher is not happy with them.

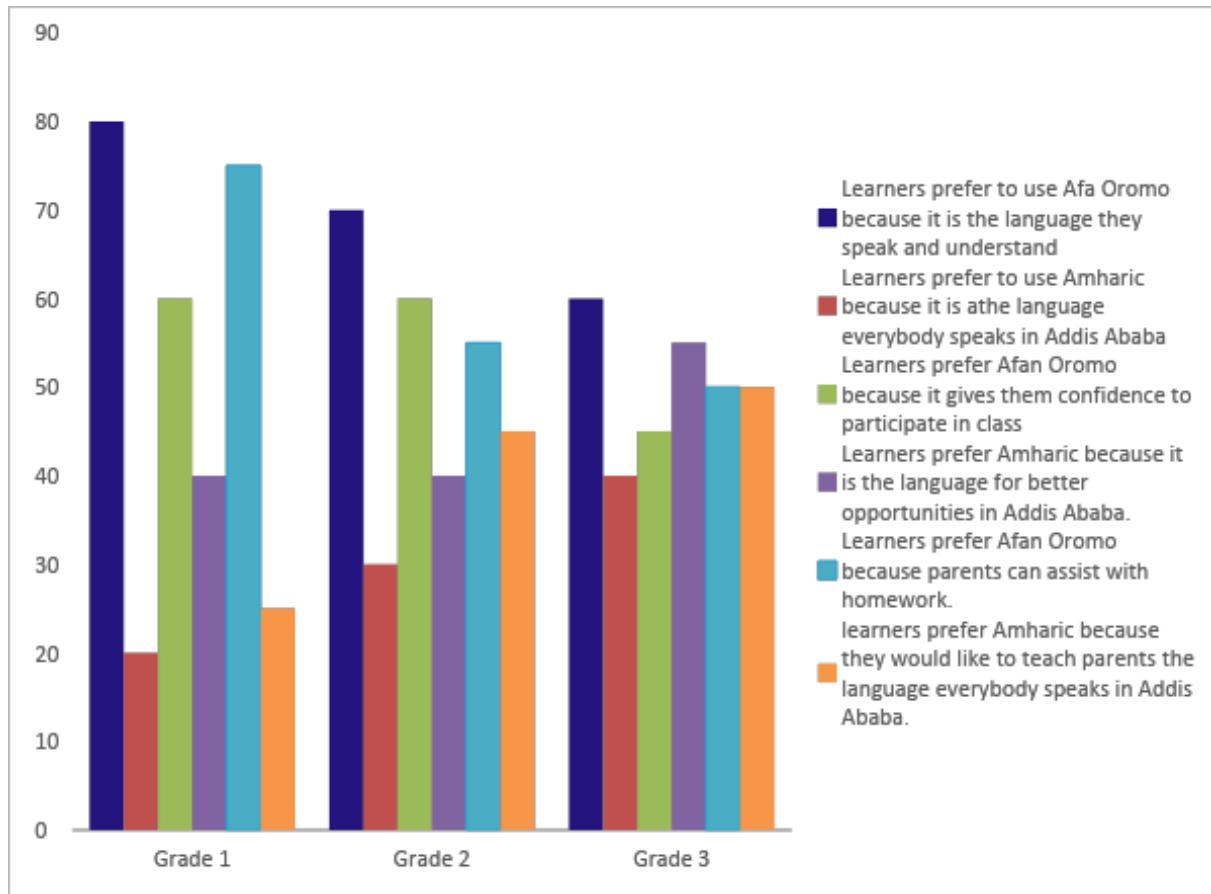


Figure 5.5 Learners’ Views on Using Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if Given the Opportunity

Figure 5.5 shows that 80% of learners interviewed in Grade 1 said they would prefer Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because it is the language they understand and speak best. In spite of that, 20% of the learners interviewed said no to Afaan Oromoo and preferred Amharic because it is the language spoken by everybody in Addis Ababa.

Figure 5.5 shows that 60% of the learners said they would prefer to learn in Afaan Oromoo because they will understand the teacher in class, will not be shy or scared to ask and answer questions during lessons, and will also communicate freely with their peers without being laughed at. Again, 60% of the learners insisted they preferred Amharic to Afaan Oromoo as LoLT because it is the “best” language in Ethiopia that guarantees employment in the future.

Figure 5.5 shows that 75% of learners interviewed in Grade 1 expressed their desire to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT because their parents will be in a position to help at home with homework and any school assignments. On the contrary, 25% of the learners preferred Amharic because back at home they will also teach their parents Amharic that will permit them communicate freely in Addis Ababa.

According to Figure 5.5, 70% of learners interviewed in Grade 2 would prefer to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because it is the language they understand and speak best and can communicate with the teacher in class. 30% of the learners said they would prefer to learn in Amharic because in Addis Ababa everybody speaks Amharic to survive. 60% of learners said they would prefer to learn in Afaan Oromoo because they would not be scared or ashamed to speak in class and will communicate freely with everybody without fear of intimidation. Yet, 40% of the learners said they would prefer to be taught in Amharic because it is the only language in Ethiopia that can permit you get a job in Addis Ababa in the future.

Figure 5.5 shows that 55% of Grade 2 learners said they would love to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT because this will give their parents who can only speak and understand Afaan Oromoo the opportunity to help at home with their homework. Still, 45% of these learners think it is better to use Amharic as LoLT because back at home they will have the opportunity to teach their parents Amharic that will permit them fit into the society where everybody speaks Amharic.

In Grade 3, the picture was a little different. Figure 5.5 shows a drop to 60% for learners who preferred Afaan Oromoo to Amharic as LoLT if given the opportunity because it is the language they understand and speak best and will be able to communicate with the teacher in class. Again, 40% of the learners interviewed now believe Amharic is the better choice of LoLT because in Addis Ababa it is the language spoken and used everywhere.

Figure 5.5 shows that 45% of learners said yes to Afaan Oromoo as LoLT because it would give them the space to speak freely and participate during lessons without any fear of intimidation. Still, 55% of learners in Grade 3 are convinced that using Amharic as LoLT is the gate way for a brighter future in Addis Ababa. 50% of learners according to Figure 5.5 prefer Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because their Afaan Oromoo speaking parents will be able to assist with their homework; meanwhile 50% of the learners thought Amharic was better because they would teach their uneducated parents Amharic and give them the opportunity to communicate freely in Addis Ababa.

5.4.2. Learners' interviews: Cheffie School

In Cheffie school a majority of Grade 1 learners were not comfortable using Amharic as LoLT. Figure 5.6 reveals that 95% of learners do not like learning in Amharic because it not the language they speak at home and they do not understand the teacher in class. Only 5% of the learners said they liked using Amharic to learn because it was the language spoken by everybody in Addis Ababa even though they did not understand when the teacher used the language to teach.

Figure 5.6 shows that 90% of the learners interviewed did not like using Amharic to learn in school because each time they tried to speak in class they made mistakes and the other learners laughed at them. They revealed that this made them very sad. 10% of the learners interviewed in Grade 1 said they preferred using Amharic as LoLT despite the laughter when they made mistakes because it is the only language spoken everywhere in Addis Ababa.

Figure 5.6 shows that 50% of the learners who do not feel comfortable using Amharic as LoLT felt like abandoning school and going back home to join their parents and work in the fields; meanwhile 50% said that even though other learners laughed at them when they make mistakes they are still determined to stay in school and learn in Amharic.

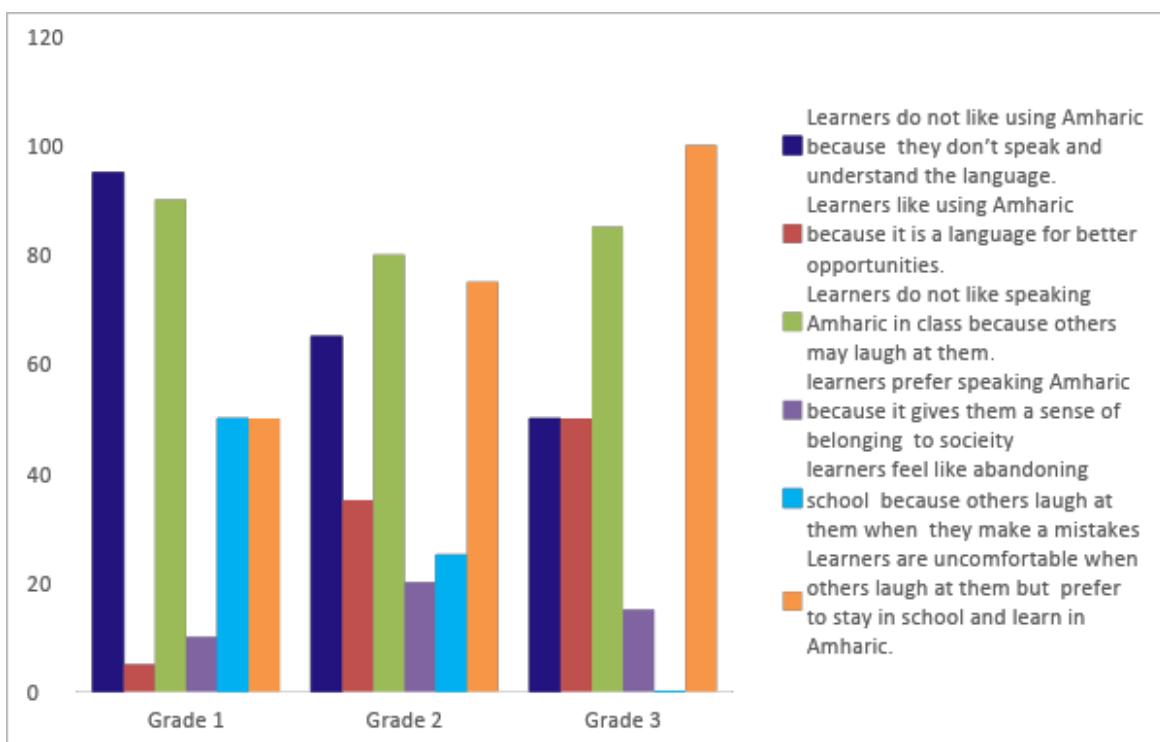


Figure 5.6 Learners' Attitudes towards Amharic as LoLT

In Grade 2, Figure 5.6 shows that learners who do not mind using Amharic as LoLT had increased to 35%. These learners expressed the need to speak and understand Amharic in Addis Ababa because it is the common language of communication used by everybody. 65% of the learners still felt uncomfortable using Amharic as LoLT because they do not speak or understand the teacher in class.

According to Figure 5.6 80% of learners said Amharic-speaking learners in their class frustrated their efforts each time they attempted to speak. A Grade 2 learner expressed his frustration in these words: "they laugh and mimic the words we pronounce incorrectly." 20% of the learners interviewed said that despite the laughter and provocations from the rest of the learners they still preferred to use Amharic as LoLT. From Figure 5.6, 25% of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners indicated that sometimes they had the urge to abandon school while 75% would choose to stay and study in Amharic despite the urge to abandon school.

In Grade 3, the situation was somewhat different because more learners preferred using Amharic as LoLT. According to Figure 4.6, 50% of learners preferred Amharic, whereas 50% of learners were still not comfortable with Amharic as LoLT despite the dominance of the language in Ethiopia. They said Amharic was difficult for them to speak and understand especially in the classroom and this made learning in school uninteresting. In Grade 3, learners had become mature and nobody laughed at anybody if they made mistakes. 15% of these learners were indifferent and said nothing. 100% of these learners preferred to stay in school and learn. Nobody felt like abandoning school for the fields because according to them, school is important and they are determined to stay and learn in Amharic despite the difficulties.

Figure 5.7 below shows that in Grade 1, 70% of the learners do not understand the lesson when the teacher uses teaching aids and classroom demonstrations. According to them, these objects are only familiar in Afaan Oromoo. To master these objects again in Amharic was very confusing. However, 30% of the learners said they do understand the lesson when teachers use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations because it is easier to memorise the names of the objects in Amharic. Figure 5.7 shows that 50% of learners understand the lesson when teachers use other learners to translate to Afaan Oromoo during lessons because Afaan Oromoo is the language they speak and understand. Still, 50% of learners said they do not understand when another learner translates to Afaan Oromoo because they are not as explicit as the teacher. 100% of the learners interviewed as seen on Figure 5.7 understand the lesson very well when the teacher code switches to Afaan Oromoo during lessons.

Reading from the textbook during lessons is a teaching method learners do not understand. 90% of learners said that reading in Amharic is very difficult because the Amharic alphabet and pronunciations are so different from Afaan Oromoo. 10% of learners indicated that sometimes they understand

the passage if the teacher explains the difficult words and uses them in different sentences before the reading exercise.

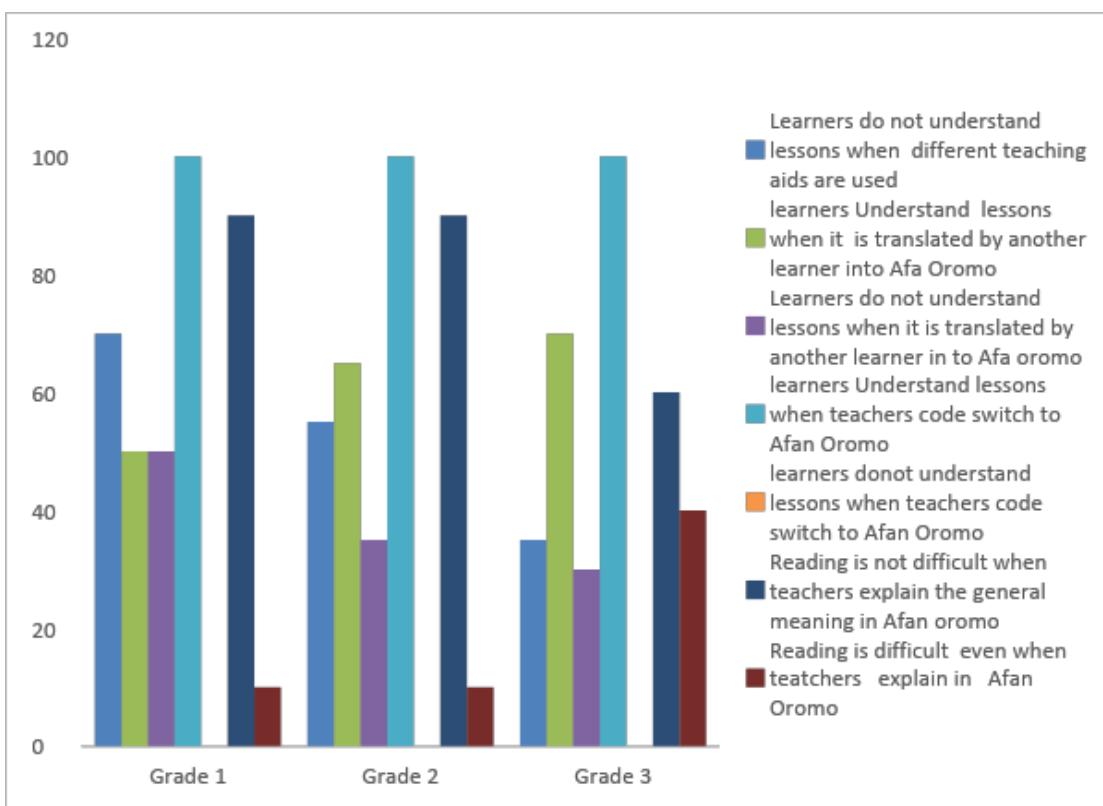


Figure 5.7 Learners' Views on How Easily They Understand Amharic as LoLT Given the Current Teaching Methods in the Classroom

In Grade 2, Figure 5.7 shows that 55% of learners interviewed do not understand lessons when teachers use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations. They complained about the use of objects that did not make any sense and they could not memorise the Amharic names. Still, 45% of the learners said they understand lessons when teachers use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations because it is easier to memorise the names in Amharic.

Figure 5.7 shows that the percentage of learners who understand lessons when other learners translate into Afaan Oromoo increased to 65% in Grade 2. They admitted that these translators do not speak Afaan Oromoo fluently but do make themselves understood which makes it easier to understand. 35% of learners said they still do not understand the lesson because the

translators do not speak Afaan Oromoo fluently and their accent is usually very different to theirs.

According to Figure 5.7, 100% of the learners interviewed in Grade 2 accepted they understand lessons very well when the teachers code switch to Afaan Oromoo during lessons. Unfortunately, only two of their teachers speak and understand Afaan Oromoo. Reading from the textbook in Amharic during lessons is still very difficult for Afaan Oromoo learners in Grade 2. Figure 5.7 shows that 90% of learners interviewed said they do not understand anything when they read from the textbooks. The Amharic alphabet and pronunciations are very different and difficult if compared to Afaan Oromoo. Still, 10% of learners accepted that they do understand when reading from the text disclosed that they had managed somehow to learn the Amharic alphabet and pronunciations out of class.

Figure 5.7 shows that in Grade 3, 65% of the learners do understand when the teacher uses teaching aids and classroom demonstrations. They said they had become familiar with Amharic from friends in and outside the classroom so the objects and demonstrations made the lessons easier to understand. Yet, 35% of the learners complained that classroom demonstrations and teaching aids did not mean much to them because most teachers used Amharic for further explanations during lessons but they do remember these names only in Afaan Oromoo.

When teachers use other learners as translators during lessons, 70% of the learners interviewed admitted they understand the lesson very well. 30% of the learners said they still did not understand the lesson because the translators sometimes mixed up the subject content. Code switching in Grade 3 as Figure 5.7 shows is the best teaching method because 100% of the learners interviewed said they understand the lesson very well when the teacher code switches to Afaan Oromoo. 60% of learners complained that reading from the textbook during lessons was most difficult for them because the Amharic words and alphabet are different from Afaan Oromoo.

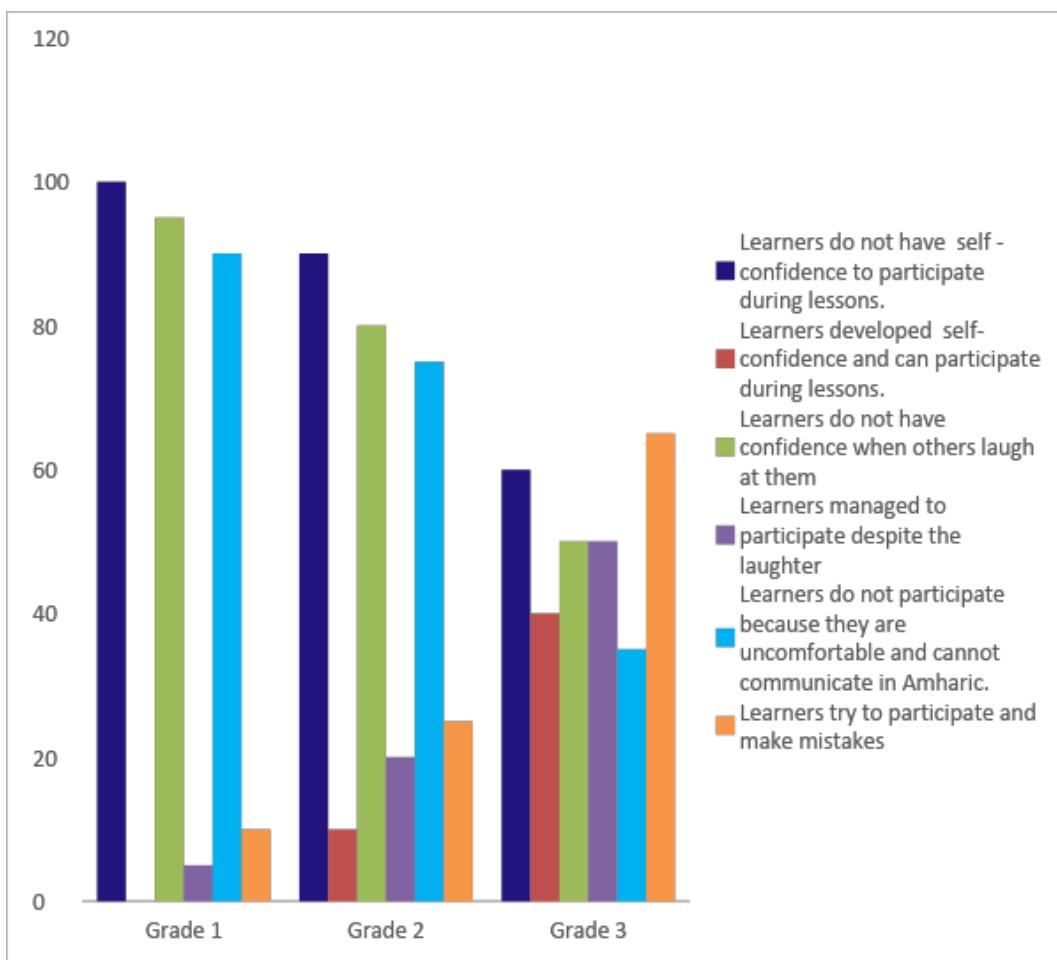


Figure 5.8 Learners' Views on How Confident They are to Participate During Lessons

Figure 5.8 shows that 100% of learners interviewed in Grade 1 do not have confidence to participate during lessons because most teachers used only Amharic which they do not understand. 95% of the learners pointed out that they are usually discouraged to answer or ask questions during lessons because other learners laugh at their wrong pronunciations and mistakes. Only 5% of the learners interviewed in Grade 1 said they have confidence in themselves and do participate during lessons without any fear of intimidation. From Figure 4.8 an overwhelming majority of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners do not have self-confidence to participate during lessons. 90% of the learners interviewed said they were usually very uncomfortable and shy amongst Amharic speaking learners to participate during lessons. The other 10% of the learners feel uncomfortable and shy but still manage to participate during lessons.

In Grade 2, the situation was not very different. Figure 5.8 reveals that 90% of the learners said they had no confidence in themselves and could not participate during lessons because they felt shy and unable to ask or answer questions in class because they cannot speak Amharic. Only 10% of the learners agreed they had developed self-confidence and could participate during lessons. 80% of the learners interviewed in Grade 2 said they still find it difficult to ask or answer questions in class because of their inability to construct correct sentences in Amharic. Besides, Amharic speaking learners always laugh and even scream each time they made mistakes. 20% of learners interviewed accepted that they had developed some confidence in Grade 2 and sometimes do ask and answer questions even if other learners laughed at them.

The fear of participating in class according to 75% of learners is worst when teachers point randomly at learners to answer questions in class. They explained that fright and the shame of making mistakes keeps them quiet and sometimes sad in the classroom. Only 25% of the learners interviewed according to Figure 5.8 said they had developed some confidence from interacting with Amharic-speaking friends in and out of the classroom and sometimes do respond to the teacher if randomly selected to speak in class.

Figure 5.8 shows on the one hand that 40% of the learners in Grade 3 indicated they had developed confidence to participate in class. Through peers they had acquired some Amharic that permitted them to ask and answer questions during lessons. On the other hand, 60% of the learners interviewed still complained that they felt they did not belong because they could not speak and understand Amharic. In Grade 3, learners had become more mature and no longer laughed at others in class. This encouraged 50% of learners who said they could speak in class during lessons without fear or shame of being laughed at. Yet, 50% of learners still preferred to stay quiet during lessons.

Figure 5.8 shows that 65% of learners agreed they could stand up in class and answer any questions from the teacher because the teacher

encouraged them by asking the rest of the class to clap for them. This served as a form of motivation for the learners to participate during lessons. Even so, 35% of learners did not feel motivated in any way because they had no confidence in themselves and still found it difficult to participate in the classroom.

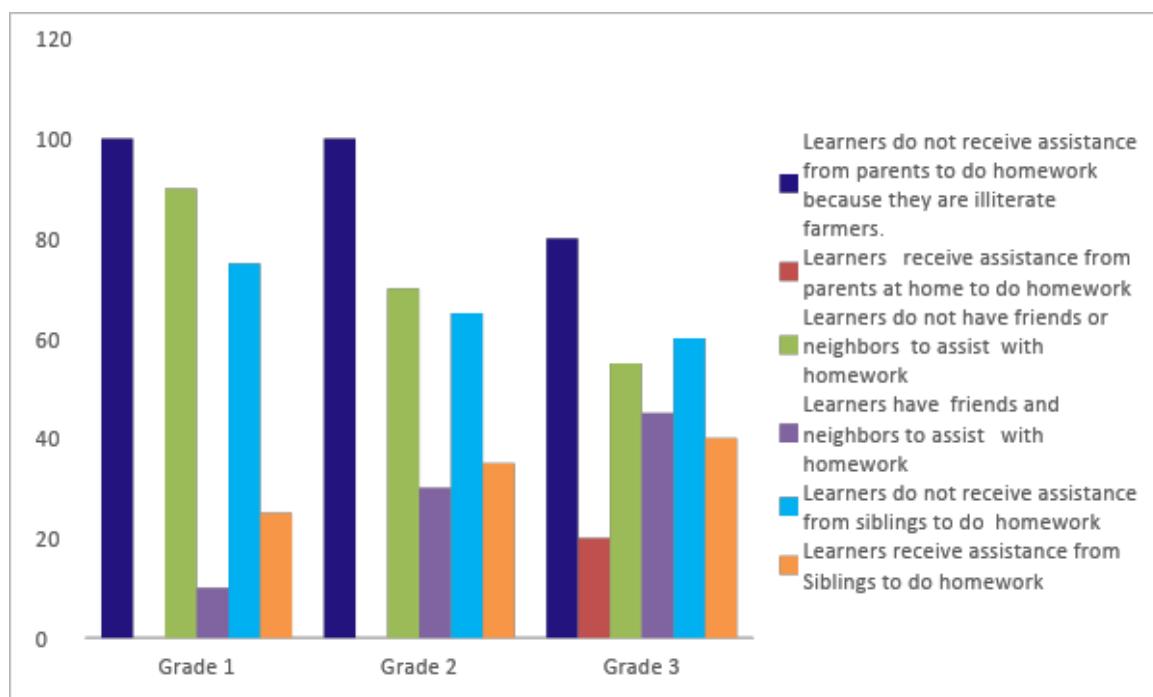


Figure 5.9 Learners' Views on the Assistance They Receive in Doing Homework

Figure 5.9 shows that 100% of the learners interviewed in Grade 1 have problems doing homework because their parents are illiterate farmers who do not speak or understand Amharic. 90% of the learners said they have no friends or neighbours who can assist with their homework, whereas only 10% of learners have people to call upon who can speak and write Amharic in the neighbourhood to assist in homework. 75% of learners said they had no siblings in higher grades to help with homework. They revealed that each time homework was given they had to linger around the school for hours hoping to find someone to help with the translation from Amharic to Afaan Omoroo. Figure 5.9 also shows that only 25% of learners interviewed in Grade 1 have siblings in the higher grades who can assist with homework

even if these siblings are sometimes busy with school work and might not be in the position to assist.

Figure 5.9 presents almost the same situation as in Grade 1. All learners in Grade 2 admitted that their parents did not assist them with school work because they cannot speak or understand Amharic. 30% of learners admitted they had people to call upon in the neighbourhood who speak and understood Amharic and who were always prepared to help with homework and other assignments from school. Still, 70% of learners do not have friends or neighbours to help with their homework. Although 35% of learners in Grade 2 said they had siblings in the higher grades who assisted with homework, 65% did not. They explained that the teacher expected them to submit completed homework on Monday so they had to run around the school every Monday morning looking for someone to help.

Figure 5.9 shows that 80% of the learners in Grade 3 said that they receive no assistance from parents at home; meanwhile 20% admitted that they receive assistance from parents at home. These learners explained that their parents have lived in Addis Ababa for a while and can speak and understand Amharic. In parallel, 45% of the learners accepted they had friends and neighbours back at home who assisted with homework. They indicated that they had made new friends in the neighbourhood who speak and understand Amharic. Meanwhile 55% of learners said living far away from school made it difficult for them to make new friends who speak Amharic and can assist in doing homework. From Figure 5.9, 40% of learners said they had siblings in the higher grades to help with their school work at home; meanwhile 60% revealed they did not.

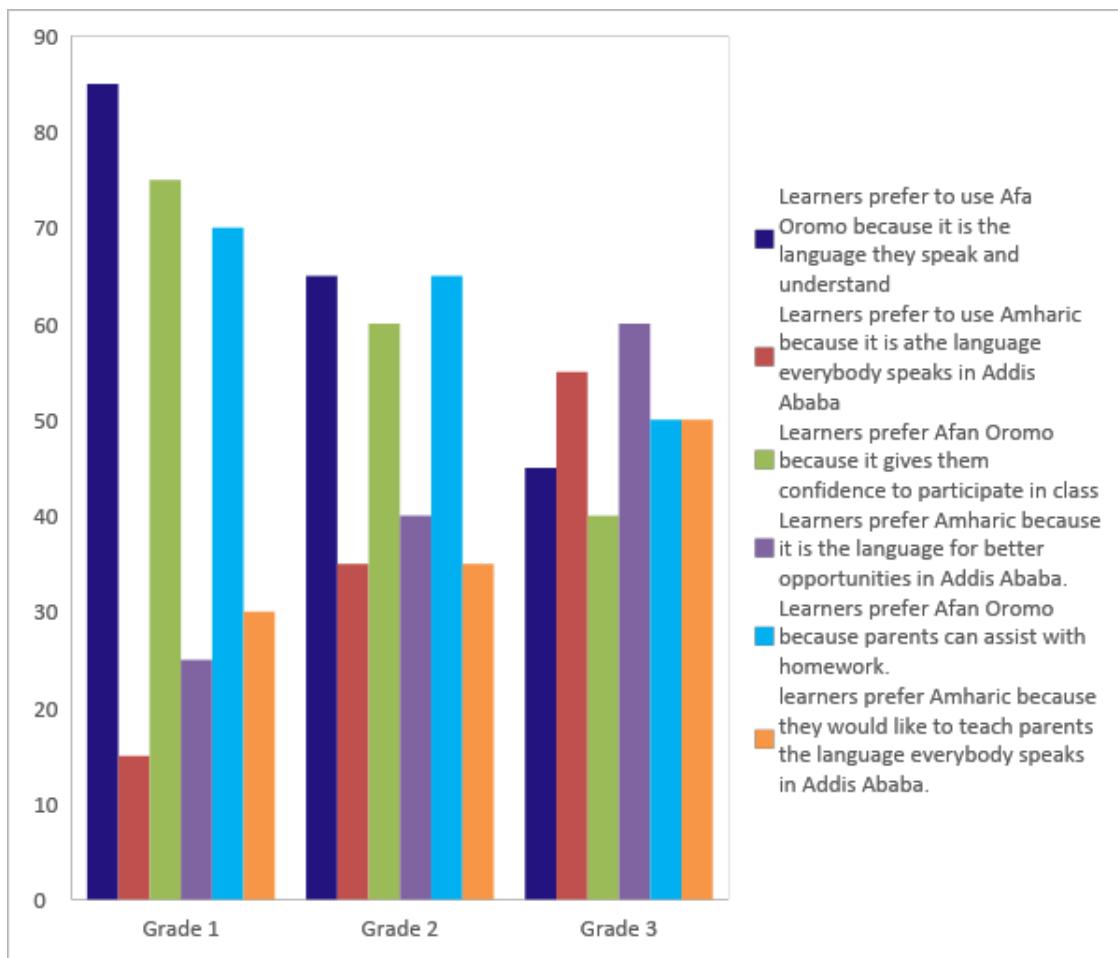


Figure 5.10 Learners' Views on Using Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if Given the Opportunity

Figure 5.10 shows that 85% of the Grade 1 learners who were interviewed expressed the desire to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because according to them, it is the language they speak at home and understand best. Yet, 15% of learners said that despite their inability to speak and understand Amharic, they prefer using Amharic as LoLT because it is the language for survival in Addis Ababa.

75% of the learners indicated that they prefer to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because speaking the LoLT will instil confidence in them and they can participate in lessons, asking and answering questions without fear or shame of being laughed at by other learners. However, 25% of learners would keep Amharic as LoLT because it is the only language in Ethiopia that guarantees access to the hospitals and supermarkets, and it

is used over the radio and television in Addis Ababa. 70% of learners said they preferred Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because back at home parents will be able to assist them with homework. Meanwhile 30% of the learners would rather learn in Amharic because it would give them the opportunity to teach their illiterate parents at home and also give them the opportunity to communicate freely in Addis Ababa.

Figure 5.10 shows that 65% of Grade 2 learners who were interviewed prefer Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because it is their L1 which they speak and understand According to them, using Afaan Oromoo in school means communicating freely with teachers and learners in the classroom. For all that, 35% of learners would keep Amharic as LoLT because it is the language everybody speaks in Addis Ababa. On a similar theme, 60% of the learners on the one hand expressed the desire to use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT if given the opportunity because they will develop self-confidence and the courage to participate during lessons. 40% of the learners on the other hand preferred to use Amharic as LoLT because Amharic is the only language that guarantees a brighter future in Addis Ababa.

Finally, Figure 5.10 shows that 65% of the learners prefer Afaan Oromoo because it would give their parents the opportunity to assist with their schoolwork. 35% still prefer Amharic because it will be an opportunity for them to be able to teach their illiterate parents back at home and give them the opportunity to communicate freely in Addis Ababa. Figure 5.10 presents a situation that is a little different in Grade 3. On the one hand, 55% of the learners prefer Amharic as LoLT because it is the language spoken by everybody in Addis Ababa. On the other hand, 45% of learners said they prefer Afaan Oromoo if given the opportunity because it is the language they speak at home and will communicate freely with teachers and friend in school.

60% of learners interviewed in Grade 3 admitted they would prefer Amharic instead of Afaan Oromoo if given the opportunity to choose. They reiterated

the possibility of using Amharic to secure jobs in Addis Ababa in future. For all that, 40% of the learners said they still preferred Afaan Oromoo because using the language in class would give them confidence to participate during lessons without fear of intimidation from Amharic-speaking learners. From Figure 5.10, 50% of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners admitted they would prefer Afaan Oromoo to Amharic if given the opportunity because this would give their parents a chance to assist in their school work; meanwhile 50% said they preferred Amharic because their illiterate parents will benefit from them to learn Amharic and also communicate freely in Addis Ababa.

5.5. Classroom observations: Marie and Cheffie primary schools

Classroom observations were conducted in the morning in both schools from Grade 1 to 3 during a period of two months. The morning sessions were preferable because both the teachers and learners were fresh and likely to participate actively in the lesson. Two subjects, Mathematics and Environmental Sciences, were observed in 2 classes (A&B) of each Grade in both schools with a total of 24 classes observed. The researcher observed the interactions between the teachers and learners during lessons paying particular attention to the different methods used in teaching these multilingual classes, how confident Afaan Oromoo learners felt to participate during lessons, their ability to understand subject content using Amharic as LoLT and the different challenges these Afaan Oromoo learners face using Amharic as LoLT.

The researcher was not granted permission to do any videos or audio recording in the two selected schools so detailed notes on all the observations made during lessons were written in a notebook with the help of an interpreter. In order to facilitate this process, the researcher made sure everything that was written on the board was copied in Amharic by the interpreter and later transcribed. Sentences from learners' exercise books were also copied and later transcribed. Due to time constraints, the researcher sometimes kept the exercise books of some learners after each lesson to make sure all salient points were noted. In order to capture the

spoken language, oral communications and discussions between the teacher and Afaan Oromoo speaking learners were written down by the interpreter in Amharic and later transcribed. Both the learners and teachers did not also feel comfortable being audio recorded during lessons.

5.5.1. Classroom observations: Marie school

5.5.1.1. Environmental Science Classes

5.5.1.1a. Grade 1A

Classroom observations for Grade 1 took place during the months of May and June. At this time Grade 1 learners are supposed to have been learning for about 8-9 months which is long enough time for learners to exhibit insights of the subject contents they have learnt in this class (see learners' demography for details on learners). In Grade 1A, the lesson was on 'Different activities in school and in the classroom' and no teaching aids or classroom demonstrations were used. The objective of this lesson was to enable learners differentiate between in-door and out-door activities in school. The teacher tried to make the lesson learner centred by constantly calling on different learners to ask or answer questions in Amharic.

Afaan Oromoo learners barely spoke and took no initiative to contribute or participate in the class discussions. It was observed that there was no communication between the teacher and these learners because they were all quiet. Amharic learners on the other hand were excited about the topic and volunteered to answer questions during this lesson. The lack of communication between the teacher and Afaan Oromoo learners was very evident when the teacher called on an Afaan Oromoo learner to give an example of one activity that can take place in the classroom. This is what the learner had to say:

Learner: አንተ ማቆኝት (Cleaning my room)

Expected: ጥሩር ስለዕውን ማቆኝት (I can help to wipe the board)

The above example was off topic and as such provoked the rest of the class into laughter. The learner sat down uncomfortably and it was very visible that there was no motivation for him to participate in the lesson again. In order to help the Afaan Oromoo learners the teacher called on a learner who could speak and understand both Amharic and Afaan Oromoo to translate the questions from Amharic to Afaan Oromoo. The researcher observed that sometimes the learner translators themselves do not understand the teacher and can mislead Afaan Oromoo learners during lessons. In the example below the teacher asked for both indoor and outdoor activities but the learner translated what the teacher said to mean indoor activities only.

Expected by the teacher: **የከናል ወ-ሳጥ እና ከከናል ወ-ሸም ተማሪዎች ሁሉንም የሚገለ ስጥ** (*give examples of indoor and outdoor activities*)

Learner Translator: wamene kessetti wojotemu fekegna kenu. (*give examples of indoor activities*)

Translator missed out the second part of the question.

Learner: **ተማሪዎች-እነዚህወደብስት መጠበቅና ጥሩር ስለዚውን ማሻሻያት** (*keeping the learners quiet in class and helping the teacher to clean the board*)

Learner gives examples of only indoor activities instead of both

After the above translation a few more Afaan Oromoo learners were able to participate but they only gave examples of indoor activities. Copying from the board was another difficult exercise for Afaan Oromoo learners. The teacher had different activities in the classroom and around the school copied on the board. Afaan Oromoo learners copied from the board into their exercise books as follows:

On the board: **ከናል ወጪ የሚከናወነ ተማሪዎች:-** (*Topic: list of outdoor activities*)

-**ተከላዩን ሙሉ ማጠጣት፡-** (*watering the plants*)

-**የት/ቤት ቅጥር ግበ መጥረግ፡-** (*sweeping the school compound*)

Learner copies in her exercise book:

ከፍልዎች እና አገልግሎት (Topic has no column and missing letters from the words)

ተክር ወጪ ማጠማት (wate.... missing word...plnts (wrong spelling and missing word)

ት/ብ ግብ ማጽዳት (clean school compound...changes word and wrong spelling)

The above sentences copied from the board by the Afaan Oromoo learner into her exercise book revealed that these learners also faced writing problems that could be attributed to the difficulty they have in mastering the Amharic alphabet. Spelling errors, wrong spacing between words, letter and word omission that made the sentences meaningless were evident. Besides copying notes from the board during the lesson, learners were also expected to read about the different activities in school and in the classroom from the textbook. Amharic learners read eloquently with very few mistakes meanwhile Afaan Oromoo learners found it difficult to pronounce most of the words in Amharic. Here are some examples of pronunciation errors made by Afaan Oromoo speaking learners that can be attributed to influences from their mother tongue:

Expected: በከፍል ወሰን አታረብኝ ይጥ በላ (keep quiet and don't disturb in class)

Lerner: በከፍል ወሰን አታረብኝ ይመ በላ (Wrong pronunciations for 'disturb' and 'quiet')

From the above sentence, the researcher observed that the words "silent" and "disturb" could not be pronounced correctly in Amharic by the Afaan Oromoo speaking learner. This affected the flow of his sentence and provoked the rest of the class to an uncontrollable laughter which made the learner very uncomfortable.

5.5.1.1b Grade 1B

In Grade 1B, the lesson on “Different activities in school and in the classroom” was very different because the lesson was taught in Amharic but the teacher used teaching aids and classroom demonstrations during most of the lessons. The objective of the lesson was to differentiate between indoor and outdoor activities. In order to tickle the minds of the learners the teacher demonstrated on how to use a “hoe” and some “seeds” in front of the class. The researcher observed that Afaan Oromoo speaking learners misunderstood the context of the lesson probably because the picture of a “hoe” and “seeds” they have in mind is that which is used on the farms. An Afaan Oromoo speaking learner gives an example of how useful a hoe and seeds can be around the school compound as captured below:

Learner: በመኖራም የእርሻ አካባቢ የሚገኘትን የተለያየ አርቶ እረም መንቀል እና መከተከት አለበኝሁ::
:(*a hoe and seeds can be used on the farms around my home*)

Expectation:በተምህርት ቅጥር ግብርቻው ወሰን የሚገኘትን የተለያየ አርቶ እረም መንቀል እና
መከተከት አለበኝሁ:: (*a hoe and seeds can be used to work in the school garden*)

In order to proceed with the lesson, the teacher used a leaner to demonstrate how to keep the door closed during lessons. This demonstration was meant to differentiate between indoor and the outdoor activities for all to understand and almost everybody could be seen nodding their heads in approval of a point well understood. It was observed that despite these classroom demonstrations some Afaan Oromoo learners could not differentiate between an indoor and an outdoor activity. When the teacher asked for one example of an indoor activity an Afaan Oromoo speaking learner gives an outdoor activity as in the example below:

Learner:አትከልዋን ወሃ መጣጥ (watering the plants)

When the teacher asked for an example of an outdoor activity the learner gives an indoor activity:

Learner: መሰከተችን እና በርቃን በተገበ ሆኖታ መከራት እና መጠዋት (*opening and closing of the doors and windows in the class*)

The researcher also noticed that Afaan Oromoo speaking learners shied away from reading in order to avoid making mistakes and provoke the rest of the class to laughter. Besides their inability to read from the textbook, it was observed that these learners did not understand the words of the passage that was read even though the teacher explained the passage in Amharic before randomly calling on learners to read aloud while the rest of the class follows silently. Here is an example of how an Afaan Oromoo learner reads a passage from the textbook in Amharic.

Passage: **የተለያየ የከፍል ወሰኑ ስራዎች አሉ:: እነዚም፡ የትምህርት መሳሪያዎችን አማራቶ መግኘቱ፡ በጥንቃቄ መያዝ፡ በጽተታ መከተተለ እንዲሁም የከፍል ስራዎች መስራት ይሉ ፍቃው፡፡** (There are different indoor activities like helping the teacher with learning materials, keeping other learners quiet during lessons and doing classroom activities. You must be ready in class with your exercise books, pens, pencils, rulers and extra papers. You must keep all these things properly and when the teacher teaches you must follow silently. You must do all your class work and homework daily.)

Learner: ተምህርትመሳሪያዎችንኩር አማራቶበመግኘቱበጥንቃቄመያዘለግባም በጽተታመከተተለእንዲሁምበየከፍልስራዎችም መስራትየለኝቂው፡፡ የትምህርትመሳሪያዎችንመግኘቱበጥንቃቄበከፍልመስተጥቃኩና ሲይሬስሙከተተልየሚስማቂው፡፡ (Word addition. ‘And’ after every word, omits all punctuation marks and reads as if one word).

Reading from the textbook by an Afaan Oromoo learner as in the above example made the passage sound completely different from when Amharic learners read. Words are pronounced wrongly, unnecessary words are added to the sentence, words and letters are omitted and there is no observation of pauses between the sentences. The passage is meaningless at the end of the reading. Despite the teacher’s attempts to elicit responses from individual learners during this lesson, a salient pattern in this lesson was the use of group chorusing or recitation mode. Most learners’

utterances comprised group chorused responses and chanting. They chorused responses initially provided by the most capable (Amharic speaking learners) or those prompted by the teacher herself. The teacher also helped pupils respond to her questions by providing cues to the information required. For example, after a few unsuccessful attempts to get Afaan Oromoo speaking learners to state the different indoor activities, she asked the yes/no question ‘can you help the teacher to clean the board during classes?’ and the obvious answer was a ‘yes, Madam’.

Moreover, there seems to be evidence that most of the pupils did not understand the statements that they were chanting or reading from the textbook. For example, after repeating a few times in chorus the statement ‘I can clean the board, and help the teacher to keep the class quiet’, most pupils could not provide the same answer when the teacher restated the question later ‘what are the responsibilities of a learner in the class?’

5.5.1.1c Grade 2A

In Grade 2, the Environmental Science teachers of both classes used teaching aids and classroom demonstrations to tickle the minds of the learners. In Grade 2A, the lesson was on ‘Natural Phenomena’ and the objective of the lesson was to enable the learners describe different situations that occur naturally. The sun was used to describe the weather and a picture of day and night was shown around the class. Besides teaching aids, the teacher also used a learner to translate the lesson to Afaan Oromoo.

It was observed that both Afaan Oromoo and Amharic learners felt at ease and were eager to participate by answering questions during the lesson. Answering the written exercise from the textbook was well done with very few learners who could not get all correct. The last part of the lesson was on individual presentations. Individual presentations meant self-expression in Amharic for Afaan Oromoo speaking learners. The teacher called on everyone to prepare a short description of an experience they have witnessed on the effects of the sun on animals, people or crops. Amharic

learners could be seen searching for words or phrases that would make their presentations better. However, Afaan Oromoo learners could barely manage utterances that comprised single words because using their own words and ideas was very difficult as in the example below:

Learner: ባለፈው አመት ተከሰት ይርቁ እንስሳት መምታችው እኩ... በሽታ ምተዋል በከባበር የሚኖሩ ስቶ ለረሃ እና ስቶ ተጋልጣል:: (*Last year drought happened, animal die, hmmm, then, hmmm disease killed, people sick area*).

Expectation: ባለፈው አመት በተከሰተው ይርቁ ምከኑያት በዚ እንስሳቶች እና አዕዋቶች በመምታችው በእካበበር የሚኖሩ ስዎች ለረሃ እና ስዎች ተጋልጣል:: (*last year the effect of drought on animals and plants caused lots of diseases and deaths. Many people were sick and some even died*)

Another teaching technique used during this lesson was pair work. A pair was made up of an Afaan Oromoo and an Amharic speaking learner. From each pair the teacher expected a list of other natural phenomena and how they occur at night or during the day. Amharic speaking leaners did all the writing and talking while the Afaan Oromoo learners stayed quiet and only watched. It was observed that most Afaan Oromoo speaking learners had the ideas but could not write or speak fluently in Amharic. Besides group work, reading from the textbook was also a part of this lesson. Afaan Oromoo learners in Grade 2 shied away from reading; if called by the teacher they barely stood up and murmured to themselves. An Afaan Oromoo learner was courageous to read as in the following example:

Excerpt: የተረጋገጫ ክስተቶች በቀን ወይም በማት ተረጋገዋ በሆነ መንገዶች ለከሰቱ ይችላሉ:: (*Natural phenomena can occur naturally during the day or night. They are not man made and cannot be controlled by man*)

Learner: የተረጋገጫ ክስተቶች በቀን ወይም በማት በተረጋገጫ በሆነ በሆነ መንገዶች መንገዶች ለከሰቱ ይችላል ይችላል:: (*Repeats and omits words; wrong pronunciations makes the sentence meaningless*)

The above passage sounded different and meaningless because of wrong pronunciations, wrong word spacing and word repetition. In order to encourage the learner, the teacher asked the rest of the class to clap for him.

5.5.1.1d Grade 2B

In Grade 2B, the lesson was on ‘Different Cultures and languages’. The teacher used classroom demonstrations, code switching and group work. Code switching from Amharic to Afaan Oromoo at every major point made the lesson easier for Afaan Oromoo learners. Classroom participation from both sets of learners was worth applauding. Group work was supposed to encourage the learners to talk and write but most of the talking and writing was done by Amharic learners.

In groups of four learners presented themselves, their home language, their traditional dress and food. The subject content was well understood, but Afaan Oromoo learners found it difficult to express themselves in Amharic and to write down the points in their exercise books without assistance from the teacher. A presentation from an Afaan Oromoo learner from one of the groups was as follows:

Learner: እኔ ስጋዊ አያንተ ደንና ከእምበ መጠሬ ፈማግዴ ማረዳው ቅበኤይበዎት የጥናዘዎች ነፃ ለብስ በላለ በእንበሳ ሙተር ቅንቃ ደንግሞ እርማቸ ነው:: (*My name is Ayantu Degefa, came from Ambo, eat cheesebuttermilk, wear white trousers and language is Oromifa*).

Expected: እኔ ስጋዊ አያንተ ደንና ይባላል:: የመጠሬት ከእምበ ስሆን የጥናመግበዎ ፈማግዴ ቅበኤ እና ወተት ነው:: የጥናዘዎች ለብስ በላለ እና የእንበሳ ሙተር ስሆን የጥናናገዎ ቅንቃ ደንግሞ እርማቸ ነው:: (*The learner is supposed to present her name, and describe her food, language, where she comes from and her traditional dressing*).

At the end of the above presentation Amharic speaking learners burst into laughter that called for the teacher’s intervention. The Afaan Oromoo learner

who attempted doing the presentation quietly sat down avoiding to look at the teacher or anyone in the class. This indicates that Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in Grade 2 suffer from low self-esteem and lack of confidence to express themselves in Amharic in front of others. These are some of the challenges that hinder them from participating during lessons and unable to engage in any meaningful interaction with the teacher in the classroom. In order to assist Afaan Oromoo learners the teacher goes round the class calling on them to speak in Amharic while he listened and made the necessary corrections. Given the class size (67) and the limited time (40minutes) allocated for each lesson this exercise appeared to be very tedious for the teacher.

5.5.1.1e Grade 3A

In Grade 3A, “The differences between modern and traditional farming” was the topic for Environmental Science. The objective of this lesson was for the learners to be able to differentiate between modern and traditional farming methods used in the towns and villages. With the assumption that Grade 3 learners could speak and understand a lot more Amharic, the lesson was taught in Amharic and the teacher asked learners to give examples of different foodstuff and the farming methods used in Addis Ababa.

Amharic speaking learners with excitement shouted out different foods produced in Addis Ababa and the different farming methods. Most Afaan Oromoo speaking learners understood only parts of the question and mixed up traditional and modern farming methods in the villages and in Addis Ababa as in the example below:

Learner: በርቱካን ለማምረት በንጂር አካባቢ እ&ር እና ወሃ እነዚያለን የእርሻ ዘመዑ ፈረሰ እና በራ
መጠቀም ነው:: (ideas mixed up between modern, traditional farming, urban and village setting)

Expectation: በርቱካን በአዲስ አበባ ክተማ ወሰጥ በስፋት የእርሻ በታወች ለማረቻት የሚችል ሲሆን
እርሻውን ለመዝከሪዎች የተለያየ ማግብርያዎችን መጠቀም ያስፈልጋል:: (*Oranges are produced
in Addis Ababa using modern farming methods*)

The second part of the lesson was on copying down notes from the board into their exercise books. The researcher noted that in Grade 3 learners could not copy properly from the board. A few examples as seen in the exercise books of two Afaan Oromoo speaking learners.

As copied on the board: በጠበር አካባቢ የባህላዊ የሰንድ አመራረት ካል ወሰጥ የተለያየ
እንስሳትን እንጂቀማለ፡ ለምሳሌ፡- በራ፣ ለም፣ በቅለ፣ ፈረሰ እና አሁሮን ለማረሻነት እንጂቀማለን፡፡

(During farming and production of wheat in the village or rural areas, donkeys, horses, Mules, Ox and cows are used)

Learner1: አካባቢ በባላዊየሰንድዎ ወሰጥ የቴለያየ እንስሳትን እንጂቀማለን ለምሳሌ ፈረሰ ለማረሻነት እንጂቀማለን. (During farming wheat traditionally horses and cow use).

As copied on the board. በአዲስ አበባ የዘመናዊ የከመና አመራረት ካል ወሰጥ በዘመናዊ የዘመናዊ ማሽኑ እንደሆኖም የመጀመሪያ መከተልና በስራት እንጂቀማለን፡፡ (The farming and production of spinach in Addis Ababa region where mass labour and vehicles are used for harvesting and transportation)

Learner2: አዲስ አበባ የዘመናዊ ጽመኑ አመራረት ካል ወሰጥ በዘመናዊ የዘመናዊ ማሽኑ እንደሆኖም የዘመናዊ መከተልና በስራት እንጂቀማለን፡፡ (During farming Addis Ababa different machines and vehicles to transport).

The above sentences copied from the board by the two learners indicate that Afaan Oromoo learners do have writing problems. Their writing showed wrong spellings, wrong word spacing, words and letter omission and punctuation errors and the addition of unnecessary words that made the sentences lose their intended meaning.

5.5.1.1f Grade 3B

In Grade 3B, the same topic on the differences between modern and traditional farming as in 3A was the lesson of the day. The lesson and the class was managed differently because the teacher used group work and members of each group who could speak both languages had to translate from Amharic to Afaan Oromoo. Learners translated difficult concepts from

Amharic to Afaan Oromoo for their group members. Flash cards were also used to give a picture of the two types of farming. The different groups came up with a list of the different types of farming on a sheet of paper for classroom presentations.

Participation from Afaan Oromoo learners became insignificant because they all shied away and preferred to remain quiet. The researcher observed that in Grade 3 self-expression in Amharic was still a problem for these learners who do not speak and understand Amharic. Most of them shied away and refused to participate during the presentations because of their inability to speak the language. To get some Afaan Oromoo learners participate during the presentation, the teacher made an offer of sweets that served as a motivation for those who voluntarily did a presentation for their groups. Two Afaan Oromoo learners were motivated and volunteered to do the presentation for their groups but they appeared scared and frightened and were not loud enough for the rest of the class to hear.

5.5.1.2. Mathematics Classes

5.5.1.2a Grade 1A

In Grade 1A, the Mathematics class was on ‘Circles and rectangles’. The objective of the lesson was to teach learners how to draw, describe and differentiate between a circle and a rectangle. The teacher used different objects and classroom demonstrations to teach these concepts. He used an empty tin of milk to draw a circle on the board for the learners to draw into their exercise books. The textbook of one learner was placed on the board to draw a rectangle.

Drawing a circle or rectangle was not a problem for the learners but it was noticed that Afaan Oromoo speaking learners could not find the right words to describe and differentiate between these two figures. The teacher called on an Afaan Oromoo learner to describe a circle and a rectangle; this is what the learner had to say:

Expected: (in Amharic)

ከብ ቅርጽ ካሬውን ከዚ ይገጥማል፡ ሌከታንባል ደግሞ ሁሉት ተቋራኝ እኩል
ትምት አለብ፡ (A circle is round but a rectangle has four sides. Two equal
lengths and two equal widths).

Learner:

ከብ ነገር ይገጥማል ሌከታንባል አራት ቤት ተቋራኝ ነው (Circle round
rectangle four opposite side).

The use of flash cards also facilitated the grasping of the subject content because learners indicated with a show of hand to be able to differentiate between a circle and a rectangle, but writing was a problem for Afaan Oromoo learners. The teacher asked learners to use the adjectives and nouns (round and sides) he had written on the board to make sentences that would differentiate between a circle and a rectangle. These are two sentences the researcher noted in an Afaan Oromoo learner's exercise book:

Learner 1 ከብ ይከበና ቤት አለው (a circle rounds and sides four)

Learner 2 ሌከታንባል ቤት አለው ይከበናል (a rectangle sides and rounds)

5.5.1.2b Grade 1B

In Grade 1B, the lesson was on “Division and Multiplication” revealed that figures and calculations was not a problem for Afaan Oromoo learners. The teacher did not make use of any teaching aids; he barely used the counting system. He used simple strokes on the board and called on the learners to count with him. The willingness or desire to participate from both Amharic and Afaan Oromoo speaking learners could be seen as learners volunteered with a show of hand to answer questions.

The researcher observed that most, if not all, of the Afaan Oromoo learners failed to pronounce the numbers correctly in Amharic. Each time a learner pronounced incorrectly and the others laughed, many of the Afaan Oromoo speaking learners felt intimidated and lowered their hands gently. Below are a few examples:

Expected by teacher...አስተኛ ስድስት ስምንት አስራ-ሰስት አስራ-ሳባት ቤቶ (3, 6, 8)

Learner 1 (pronounced wrongly in Amharic)-አስተኛ ስለሳይ-ሰት ቤቶ (3, 6, 8)

Learner 2 (pronounced wrongly in Amharic) አስተኛ ስለሳይ-ሁ-ለት-ዕ (13, 1, 20)

In order to teach multiplications, the teacher used the simple formula of adding numbers as many times as needed. The steps to follow in order to get the correct working and answer to the questions was explained first in Amharic and then translated to Afaan Oromoo by a “learner translator”. It was noted that sometimes learners who help with translations during lessons do not understand the concept themselves, thereby misleading the Afaan Oromoo learners as in the example below:

Teacher: To get the multiplication of any number just add that number as many times as the question demands. For example, $3 \times 5 = 3+3+3+3+3=15$

Learner Translator: Hedumaiysu Sedii Shenitie (wrong translation; instead of saying add the numbers the learner says multiply).

Learner: $3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 =$ (copies from the board $3+3+3+3+3=15$) Learner is mixed up and confused.

5.5.1.2c Grade 2A

In Grade 2A, the lesson was on fractions and was taught in Amharic. The teacher used a cardboard shaped in the form of a circle as teaching aid. From this cardboard, he demonstrated the different fractions. This lesson revealed that teaching aids and classroom demonstrations can sometimes promote group chorused responses and chanting; in this case it was prompted by Amharic learners. The researcher noted that Afaan Oromoo learners did not understand the statements that were chorused and chanted, but shouted in excitement with the rest of the learners as the teacher shaded different portions of the circle. This was evident when an Afaan Oromoo speaking learner was called up to shade $\frac{1}{3}$ of a circle on the board; instead of shading $\frac{1}{3}$ he shades $\frac{1}{4}$. Afaan Oromoo learners

watched the demonstrations and chanted in chorus with Amharic learners but could not retain the names of the different fractions in Amharic. The teacher had three rulers placed on the board and called on Afaan Oromoo learners to divide the rulers first into two equal halves, then one third and finally a quarter and to tell the class what to call each part in Amharic. Their responses were as follows:

Instead of $\frac{1}{2}$ they said $\frac{1}{3}$ and in place of $\frac{1}{3}$ they said $\frac{1}{4}$ in place of $\frac{1}{4}$ they said $\frac{1}{3}$

5.5.1.2d Grade 2B

The Mathematics class in Grade 2B was also on “Fractions” but this lesson was different from that of Grade 2A because the teacher taught the lesson in Amharic and used a ‘learner translator’ during the lesson. He didn’t use any classroom demonstrations but used diagrams on the board to illustrate the concept of fractions. In the case of a $\frac{1}{2}$, he drew a rectangle on the board and divided it into two parts and for $\frac{1}{3}$ he divided the rectangle into 3 parts. After each step, the learner would be called up to explain in Afaan Oromoo for the benefit of Afaan Oromoo learners.

The teacher also illustrated the idea of a $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ using a circle. In the case of $\frac{1}{4}$ the teacher called learners randomly to go to the board and divide the circle and rectangle into $\frac{1}{4}$. Most of the learners including Afaan Oromoo learners were able to go to the board and divide the circle and the rectangle correctly. What baffled Afaan Oromoo learners during this lesson was calling out the different fractions in Amharic. Here below are the different pronunciations of the fractions in Amharic as pronounced by Afaan Oromoo learners during the lesson.

As on the board አንድ ሂሳብ (1/2)

Learner 1: አንድ ሂሳብ (pronounces 1/2 wrongly)

As on the board አንድ ሂሳብ (1/3)

Learner 2: አስራ ሂሳብ (pronounces 1/3 wrongly)

As on the board...አንድ አርተኞች (1/4)

Learner አንድና አራት (pronounces ¼ wrongly)

5.5.1.2e Grade 3A

In Grade 3A, the lesson was on “Measuring the distance in a circle” and was taught in Amharic. The objective of the lesson was for the learners to be able to measure the distance from the centre to the line in a circle. After a few demonstrations on the board, the teacher wrote some points on the board for the learners to copy into their exercise books. The researcher observed that during this writing exercise Afaan Oromoo learners could not copy correctly from the board as in the sentences below:

As on the board: ከከተ መግል እስከ መጠን ያለው ልብት ሪፖርት ይሳይል (The distance from the centre to the line in a circle is called ‘radius’)

Learner 1: ከከተ መግል የለ መሰመር ሪፖርት ነው (The distance middle line radius).

The above sentence copied into the exercise book of the Afaan Oromoo learner is completely different from what the teacher copied on the board due to word omission, wrong punctuation and wrong spelling. This also indicates that these learners copy what they cannot read or understand into their exercise books. Learner 2 copies one word as three different words.

Learner 2: ከከተ ክብጥ ከከተ (from a circle round star)

Added to these, only Amharic learners replied to the teacher’s questions and took the initiative to engage in conversation with the teacher at every given opportunity. On the other hand, Afaan Oromoo learners’ shied away and avoided eye contact with the teacher. At the end of the lesson, most of them got the answers of the written exercise from the textbook wrong.

5.5.1.2f Grade 3B

In Grade 3B, the Mathematics lesson was on “Finding the area of a rectangle”. The teacher did not use any teaching aids or classroom demonstrations, but he code switched to Afaan Oromoo during most of the

lesson. The lesson was mostly learner centered and the teacher code switched to Afaan Oromoo each time he taught an important aspect of the lesson content. Describing a rectangle and calculating the area was the objective of the lesson.

The researcher observed that both sets of learners felt at ease and were eager to participate. They volunteered to respond to questions with a show of hand and the teacher had to find ways of managing turn-taking fairly. Learners who answered correctly were motivated with a sticker on the back of their hands. At the end of the lesson most Afaan Oromoo learners could describe a rectangle and calculate the area, but shied away from answering the teacher's questions because they could not express themselves correctly in Amharic. An example of how an Afaan Oromoo learner expressed himself when he attempted to find the area of a rectangle is as follows:

Expected: *ራክተንግል አራት ገዢ አለት:: ሁሉቱ ተቋራኝ ገዢ እና ሁሉት እከላ ሆነመት አገዋው:: የራክተንግልን ዘረም ስሩት ለማግኘት ሆነመት እና ካን ማሳዣት አለበት::* (A rectangle has four sides with two equal lengths and two equal widths so the area of rectangle is length x width).

Learner: *ራክተንግል አራት ቡን አለው:: ሆነመት እና ቀመት:: በራይው ሆነመት ሰባዊ ይጋኙል::* (Rectangle has four sides. It has length and width. Multiply the length to find area).

Figures and calculations was not a problem for Afaan Oromoo learners in Grade 3. Their inability to understand the instructions given by the teacher on when to write out the calculation of a problem or when to give a detailed working of an answer was their biggest concern. It was observed that most Afaan Oromoo learners who were called up to the board could not do a proper presentation as required by the teacher. In the example below, the teacher asked for the formula of the area of a rectangle:

Expected: Length x width

Learner: ለእኩነት አራት ክፍት አለት (a rectangle has four sides)

5.5.2 Classroom observations: Cheffie School

5.5.2.1 Environmental Science Classes

5.5.2.1a Grade 1A

The Environmental Science class observed in Grade 1A was on “The roles and responsibilities of learners in the classroom and in the school compound”. In order to meet the objective of the lesson which was for the learners to know their responsibilities in and outside the classroom, the teacher used code switching and pair work as teaching methods. The researcher noted that Afaan Oromoo was not the first language of the teacher though he used code switching during this lesson.

This lesson served as an example a desperate teacher who wants to help learners who do not understand the LoLT, but sometimes ends up frustrating the children even more. The teacher asks for a list of some responsibilities of learners in and around the school. In an attempt to code switch to Afaan Oromoo the teacher fails to give a correct translation of the lesson taught. This is what the teacher said in Amharic and what he code switched to in Afaan Oromoo.

Teacher in Amharic. በተምህርት በት እና በተምህርት በት አካባቢ የተማረዋች ፍላጊት ያለ:::
(Give examples of students' responsibilities in and around the school)

Teacher code switches to Afaan Oromoo....Mana iti jiratentifi mana iti bareteni kayssa ilalcha fakie itigafetuma keysen garsisu kenna. *(Give examples of classroom and around your home the responsibilities of students).*

So, Amharic speaking learners wrote down a list of all the responsibilities of learners in and around the school while the Afaan Oromoo learners wrote down a list of responsibilities of learners in the classroom and at home. In order to try to fix this problem the teacher called on one of the Amharic

learners who could speak and understand both languages to give a proper translation of the lesson.

The second problem area was in the construction and writing of sentences in Amharic. The learners were expected to write down other examples of their responsibilities in and around the class in their exercise books. A few examples of the list of responsibilities Afaan Oromoo learners wrote down in their exercise books.

Learner 1: አትከልት እና ወሃን መጠጥት (*drinking plant and water*) watering and drink in Afaan Oromoo sound the same

Expected: አትከልቶችን ወሃን መጠጥት (*Watering the plants*)

Learner 2: መጥረጋም ጉበዕባ ወሰን አስቀምዣ (Put the broom in the compound)

Expected: ጉበዕባ ተረገ (Clean the compound)

Besides constructing poor sentences in Amharic, the researcher noticed that Afaan Oromoo learners could not copy correctly from the board into their exercise book.

As copied on the board by the teacher. የተማሪዎች ፍላጊነት በከፍል ወሰን (Students' responsibilities in the classroom)

Learner 1 copies from the board: ተማሪዎች እና ፍላጊነት (stdents andresponsibility)

የቆሽኑ ቁርማቷን አጋቢ እና ጥሩር ስለዕውን አያዝ::: (*Emptying the trash can and cleaning the black board*)

የቆሽኑቅርማቻት አጋቢ እና ስለዕውን አያዝ::: (meaningless)

As copied on the board by the teacher. ሙሉት በተን አያዝ እና ስራን ቁረጥ::: Students' responsibilities around the compound.

Leaner 2 copies from the board: ሙሉት አያዝ እና ስራን ቁረጥ (clean toilet andbring grass)

Reading from the textbook during this lesson was not also easy for Afaan Oromoo learners. In a bid to stay away from making mistakes openly, some Afaan Oromoo speaking learners pretended they could not see the prints clearly in the textbook and preferred to stay quiet. The passage on the role and responsibilities of the learners had no meaning when it was read by an Afaan Oromoo learner because he counted the words and didn't observe any punctuation marks. Words were pronounced wrongly and many word omissions gave the passage a completely different meaning as in the example below:

Passage from text in Amharic

አንድ ተማሪ በትምህርት በት ወሰኑ እና ወጪ የተለያየ ፍላጊዎች አለት፡፡ በከፍል ወሰኑ ተማሪው አስተማሪውን የመርዳት ፍላጊዎት አለበት፡፡ ጥሩር ስለዚውን ማግኘት መስከት መከራከል ክፍሉን መጥረግ እና በሩን ሁኔታዎች አለበት፡፡ በትምህርት በቱ ጉባኤ ወሰኑ እና መቀረብ ጉባኤ መጥረግ እና ምንት በቱን ማግኘት አለበት፡፡

Passage from text in English

“The student has different responsibilities in the classroom and around the school compound. In the classroom the student is expected to help the teacher clean the board, open the windows, sweep the floor and keep the door closed. Around the school the student is expected to cut the grass, sweep the compound and clean the toilet.”

Passage as read in Amharic

Learner: ተማሪው ትምህርት በትና ወጪ የተለያየ ፍላጊዎት አለት፡፡ ክፍል ወሰኑ አስተማሪን መርዳት አለበት፡፡ ጥሩር ስለዚ ማግኘት መስከት መከራከል መጥረግና በሩን መዘጋጀት አለበት ክዘዋዋዣ በትምህርት በቱ እና ቅርጫ ምንት በቱን ማግኘት

In English as read by learner:

Student has responsiblty in school and outside. He should help in the classroom. Cleaning blackboard open the window to sweep and close the door is amust and then cut the grass in school and clean toilet

5.5.2.1b Grade 1B

In Grade 1B, the lesson was on “Keeping the school rules”. The teacher used code switching and group work as teaching strategies to attain the goal of making the learners know how to observe the different school rules. Code switching helped some Afaan Oromoo learners to learn how to say some words like “clean” and “noise” in Amharic and they could understand the passage from the textbook when explained in Afaan Oromoo. Group work appeared to be a good strategy because it compelled both sets of learners to participate during the lesson. The class was divided into groups of four made up of two Amharic and two Afaan Oromoo speaking learners. Each group was to get two representatives to do the presentation for the group. From each group one learner was supposed to talk on the importance of respecting the different rules of the school and another learner was to give a list of all the rules of the school. Learners discussed freely but in low tones so as not to disturb the rest of the classes.

The researcher observed that Afaan Oromoo learners discussed in Afaan Oromoo and at the end they called on one learner who could express him/herself best in Amharic to discuss with the Amharic speaking learners. Out of the eight groups that presented during this lesson only two groups had Afaan Oromoo learners do their presentation in front of the class. Most of the Afaan Oromoo learners did not have the courage to speak Amharic in front of the class for fear of being laughed at. Here below is an example of a presentation that was done by an Afaan Oromoo learner for his group.

As done by the group

ወደ ትምህርት በት በሰላም ተገኘ የዘረጋማችሁም ጽሑፍ ይህን (Come to school early and in clean uniforms)

ስልፍ ለይ በጽጥታ እና በትክክል መሰመር ቁሙ (Do not make noise during assembly and stand in a straight line).

ከእናቀት በሁዋለ ማንም ክከፋፈ ወጪ እንዲያተረ (Nobody should be outside the classroom when the break is over)

Presented in Amharic by Afaan Oromoo learner:

ትምህርት በትና የረጋግጣ እመብ (Comeschool wash uniform)

በጽተኑ መሰማር ላይ ቅዱ (No noise assembly straight line)

ከእረፍት መልስ ወጪ አጥቃሙ (Stand no outside after break)

The above presentation conveyed a different meaning from the original work that was done by the group because of the learner's inability to read and speak in Amharic. Besides class presentations, reading from the textbook scared away Afaan Oromoo learners because each time an Afaan Oromoo learner made a mistake in pronunciation, missed a word or added a new word to the passage Amharic speaking learners would giggle, laugh or repeat the correct word after the learner. This intimidated most Afaan Oromoo learners who preferred to stay quiet for the rest of the lesson. This exercise made the class noisy and distracted for most learners as their attention was shifted from the teacher to the learner doing the presentation.

5.5.2.1c Grade 2A

In Grade 2A, the Environmental Science lesson was on "Natural Resources". Neither teaching aids nor classroom demonstrations were used to teach this lesson. Amharic was the only language used during the lesson, so most of the Afaan Oromoo learners said little or nothing during the lesson. The researcher observed that when the teacher does not code switch or use a learner for direct translation during lessons, the Afaan Oromoo learners are completely left out of the lesson. These are examples of the responses from two Afaan Oromoo learners to the teacher's question.

Teacher: ወሂን ለምን በተፈጥሮ ካገኘችው ካርታ ሁሉ በጣም በቁማ ሆነ (Why is water the most useful natural resource?)

Learner 1: ወሂን በጣም በቁማ ነው:: (Water is very important)

Learner 2: ወሂን በጣም በቁማ ካር ነው (Water the best resource)

In the above response, the learner goes off topic and this indicates that something is missing in that learning environment. Sometimes the translations done by learners from Amharic to Afaan Oromoo to help

learners who do not speak and understand Amharic are not done correctly and learners are misled. Below is an example on the importance of wood as translated from Amharic to Afaan Oromoo by a selected learner:

In Amharic አንጻች በከፍለችን ወሰጥ በዚ ነገሮች ለመስራት ይጠቅማል ወረቀት መጽሑፍ እና ደብተርን ማምረ:: በር መሰከት ድሰቱ የተሰሩት በተፈጥሮ ካገኘው ይን ወጪት ነው:: (*Wood is used to produce so many things around the classroom including the papers used in making exercise and textbooks. The doors, windows and desks are all made from wood which is a natural resource from the forest*)

Translated wrongly to Afaan Oromoo:

Muka wane headu ira feyedemna akka telaha, MachAfaan, Deftera, seni achie Balbalafi kursie it tagnu itise berenu mukara arkema. (*From wood we use a lot of products like paper, book, exercise book doors desks and others*)

The above translation in Afaan Oromoo does not talk about the importance of wood as indicated by the teacher; he just jumbled up the words in the sentences which ended up losing the intended meaning.

5.5.2.1d Grade 2B

In Grade 2B, the lesson was still on “Natural Resources” but very different because teaching aids and classroom demonstrations were used to illustrate the importance of natural resources. The objective of the lesson was for learners to know the different natural resources that are available in their environment. A classroom demonstration of a learner drinking water from a glass and using some of the water to wash her face gave the learners a vivid picture of the use of water and its importance. Similar demonstrations on the different uses of water were easy to understand even for Afaan Oromoo speaking learners.

Working individually was the problem for Afaan Oromoo learners because learners were expected to speak in Amharic and give examples of items that are produced from leather in Ethiopia. These are some examples of wrong pronunciations influenced by Afaan Oromoo from two learners:

Learner 1: በረሱች wrong word for bag instead of ‘በርሳ’ in Amharic

Learner 2: መሬቅ wrong word for shoes instead of ‘መሬቅ’ in Amharic

Furthermore, learners were asked to write about the importance of water and animal skin to the society in their exercise books. The researcher found out that Afaan Oromoo learners in Grade 2 had problems with the Amharic alphabet as each letter was influenced by the sound of it in Afaan Oromoo. Most of the words and sentences they wrote were incorrect comprising wrong spelling, word and letter omissions and wrong punctuation. These are some examples of the sentences Afaan Oromoo speaking learners wrote down on the importance of water and animal skin.

Learner 1: ወሂን ለማብራል እና ለመጠጥ የጠቃሚያ (Water used to cook and drink)

Correct version on the importance of water)

ወሂን ፍጤት ለማብራል እና ለመጠጥ የገለግሎል:: (Water is used for cooking food and drinking)

Learner 2: የእንስሳ ቅድ ለተለያየ ቅዳምች ይሰራል (Animal skin makes different leathers)

Correct version on the importance of animal skin)

የእንስሳ ቅድ ለተለያየ ስራምች የሚውጫ ለእሳ ቅዳምች ይመራታል:: (Animal skin is used to make different types of soft leather)

The above sentences revealed that in Grade 2, writing in Amharic was still a problem to Afaan Oromoo speaking learners. They had not mastered the alphabet, could not spell or construct correct sentences in Amharic.

5.5.2.1e Grade 3A

In Grade 3A, “Keeping your environment clean” was the lesson of the day with the objective of teaching the learners how to clean their environment. The researcher noticed two Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in this class who could not speak or understand anything in Amharic. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher assigned two learners who could speak and understand both Amharic and Afaan Oromoo to translate for them. These

learners listened to the teacher, translated and attempted to participate in the lesson at the same time.

Interestingly, the researcher observed that some of the translations to Afaan Oromoo were not correct.

Mana itien baraten kulkuludan kebachfie wante bubuou gyuti kekasu kebdeni.

(*To keep clean your classroom take dust everyday*)

Instead of this በየወገኑ ክፍልምናን ጥሩትና አበራ እረግኩ:: (Sweep and dust your class everyday)

The above example not only puts the Afaan Oromoo speaking learner on the disadvantage but demonstrates a precarious learning atmosphere where learners who understand and speak the LoLT are forced to be teachers to learners who cannot speak and understand the LoLT in the classroom.

5.5.2.1f Grade 3B

In Grade 3B, “How to keep flies away from your environment” was the lesson of the day. Neither code switching nor direct translation was used as a teaching technique during this lesson. The lesson was taught exclusively in Amharic while learners were expected to read from the textbook and get more examples of how their environment can be kept free from flies.

The researcher noticed that the Afaan Oromoo speaking learners turned to other learners for a translation at every given moment. These “learner translators” as well as Afaan Oromoo learners were distracted from the lesson and if called up to answer a question their utterances comprised single words and did not make any sense. For example, the teacher asked an Afaan Oromoo learner why flies mostly gathered around the bin and his answer was completely off topic as shown below:

Expected: የወጪንያቻም ቅናሽ እና የሚያስረዳት ካርታ ሆነ የቆናሽ ቁርማት ወሰጥ ስለሚገኘ ነው::
(Flies gather around the bin because everything inside is rubbish)

Learner: የወጪንያቻም ካርታ ሆነ ቁርማቱ ወሰጥ ስለምንጥል (because we bin throw things)

The above response from the Afaan Oromoo speaking learner simply revealed lack of understanding of the topic, lack of the required competence in Amharic, that he was either absent-minded or distracted by something else.

Reading from the textbook was the last part of the lesson. The researcher observed that Afaan Oromoo learners in Grade 3 still had a problem with reading from the textbook. The passage was explained in Amharic by the teacher and learners were called to volunteer and read while the rest of the class followed silently. Amharic leaners were all hands up and ready to read; meanwhile Afaan Oromoo learners pretended to be engaged and avoided any eye contact with the teacher so as to avoid participating in the exercise.

5.5.2.2 Mathematics Classes

5.5.2.2a Grade 1A

In Grade 1 Mathematics appeared easier for Afaan Oromoo learners because it involved mostly figures and calculations. In Grade 1A, the lesson was on “The ‘2’ and ‘3’ times table”. By the end of the class learners were supposed to know the two and three times table off by heart. To teach this concept the teacher used flash cards and classroom demonstrations. On the flash cards little hens and birds were drawn to represent the times table. The lesson was well understood as reflected in the good performance of the writing exercise that was done at the end. The willingness to participate during the lesson was evident as both sets of learners raised their hands to answer or ask questions. The excitement in Afaan Oromoo learners died down as soon as the teacher resorted to calling learners to speak in class. This meant self-expression in Amharic in front of everybody. The use of wrong words or expressions in Amharic provoked the rest of class into

uncontrollable laughter. An Afaan Oromoo learner mustered courage during this lesson and asked the teacher the following question:

Learner: ስሳ ሲበብ ስሳት ለምን አጠና? (*incomplete sounds for ‘three’ and ‘times’ why nine*)

Expected: ስሳት ሲበብ በስሳት ለምን አጠና? (Why is three times three nine).

The inability of the above learner to express himself in Amharic provokes the rest of the class into laughter, humiliates and forces the learner to sit down uncomfortably and unable to say a word again in Amharic until the lesson comes to an end.

5.5.2.2b Grade 1B

In Grade 1B, the lesson was on “Circles and rectangles” with the objective of teaching the learners how to draw and differentiate between a circle and a rectangle. The teacher demonstrated with diagrams on the board and code switched to Afaan Oromoo each time an important aspect was taught. The difference between a circle and a rectangle was highlighted by the idea of four sides to a rectangle which was made of two lengths and two widths. Classroom participation from both sets of learners was marked by a constant show of hand to write on the board.

The researcher observed that the Amharic alphabet and pronunciations were not easy for Afaan Oromoo learners. They could not pronounce the words “length” and “width” associated to a rectangle. An example of how an Afaan Oromoo learner pronounced “length” and “width” as he differentiates between a circle and a rectangle is described below:

Learner: እቅዱ (incorrect.... length) Correct in Amharic ደክመት
እምር (incorrect...width) Correct in Amharic ጽጌ

The second area of difficulty for the Afaan Oromoo learners during this lesson was their inability to read the instructions from the textbook on how to do the written exercise. Most Afaan Oromoo learners got the answers wrong because they did not understand the instructions before doing the

exercise. The instructions had to be translated to Afaan Oromoo in order for Afaan Oromoo learners to repeat the exercise. Learners performed better after the translation.

5.5.2.2c Grade 2A

In Grade 2A, the Mathematics class was on “Divisions”. To teach this concept and attain the objective of the lesson which was to learn how to divide big and small figures, the teacher used counting sticks as classroom demonstrations and taught the lesson exclusively in Amharic. Counting with their figures or using counting sticks to get the correct answers was not a problem for the learners. Both sets of learners indicated with a show of hand to give a correct answer or run to the board to present a detailed working of a division problem.

The problem area that the researcher noticed was that Afaan Oromoo learners could not read about divisions from the textbook where details about the different types of divisions (long and short divisions) could be found. The teacher asked learners to explain the different types of divisions as written in the textbook and there was no participation from Afaan Oromoo speaking learners. Further reading at home from the textbook was recommended by the teacher. An Afaan Oromoo learner expressed his frustration about homework and his inability to read Amharic from the textbook in the following words:

Learner: በትኩራ አልሰራም የዚንያቶም አማርኛ አለንበባም (*homework not do because he doesn't read Amharic*)

Expected: የበት ስራውን አበት መስራት አልቻልም የዚንያቶም አማርኛ በደንብ ማንበብ
አላማልቻል:: (*I cannot do my homework at home because I can't read Amharic all by myself*)

5.5.2.2d Grade 2B

In Grade 2B, the lesson was on “Fractions” and was taught with chart diagrams and the use of a “learner translator.” The process of dividing a rectangle into different parts and giving the names of the different fractions

was not easy for Afaan Oromoo learners because mastering numbers and fractions in Amharic appeared to be confusing. Despite the translation given by the learner translator, learners still found it difficult to understand the concept of fractions in a rectangle.

An Afaan Oromoo learner fails to give the appropriate name of the shaded part of the rectangle; he draws a rectangle and instead of $\frac{1}{3}$ he says $\frac{1}{4}$. Instead of $\frac{1}{3}$ he says $\frac{1}{4}$. Furthermore, the concept of $\frac{1}{3}$ confused some Afaan Oromoo learners which may have been caused by incorrect translation from the learner translator. Instead of shading $\frac{1}{3}$ on the circle most of the learners shaded $\frac{2}{3}$ and got completely mixed up with the idea of $\frac{1}{4}$.

Learner 1: called the shaded part $\frac{2}{3}$ instead of $\frac{1}{3}$.

Learner 2: called the shaded part $\frac{3}{4}$ instead of $\frac{1}{4}$

5.5.2.2e Grade 3A

In Grade 3A, “Different types of lines” was the topic of the lesson with the objective of enabling the learners differentiate and draw different types of lines. The teacher code switched and used different diagrams on the board to illustrate this concept. Code switching after every point and drawing the matching line on the board caught the learners’ attention. The response from the class was very positive as both sets of learners participated actively as they volunteered themselves to draw the matching lines on the board.

The problem area the researcher noticed was that Afaan Oromoo learners in Grade 3 were unable to copy notes correctly from the board. Their notes showed incorrect spellings, letter substitution and omission, wrong spacing of words and the wrong use of punctuation marks. These errors were consequential because the meaning of the sentences changed and represented something very different from what was taught in the lesson. This is an example of what an Afaan Oromoo learner copied from the board:

Learner: አግድም መስመርች ነን ለነን ዓይነ ቅልቅል መስመር ካለው ይሰጣል አገድም ወደንኑ ነው
(parallel lines goes side by side....horizontal goes down....vertical line on side)

Expected: አግድም መስመርች አይገኘም:: ቅልቅል መስመርች ካለው ወደታች የተሰጠኝ ሲሆን
አግድም መስመርች ከባራ ወደ ቅኑ የተሰጠኝ ዓይነ:: (Parallel lines do not meet each other while vertical lines begin from the top to the bottom and horizontal lines are from the left to the right)

Furthermore, the researcher observed that learners took turns to draw on the board as expected because they followed the examples of their friends, but listening attentively to the teacher for instructions on what to do before writing left most Afaan Oromoo learners gazing at the teacher for further clarifications. Instructions were clearly not understood as seen in the examples taken from two Afaan Oromoo learners' exercise books.

Teacher: ሁሉት መስመርች ሲል አግድም እና ቅልቅል መስመርን ምሳሌ ለማሳየት (Draw two lines to show an example of a vertical and horizontal line)

Learner 1 (Draws a set of lines to represent the vertical and another set to represent the horizontal lines)

The above examples reveal that the Afaan Oromoo learners appeared to listen attentively, but did not understand in full the instructions given in Amharic by the teacher. It was observed that the concept of different lines was well understood by Amharic speaking learners while Afaan Oromoo speaking learners mixed up the ideas because of the language barrier.

5.5.2.2f Grade 3B

Finally, in Grade 3B the lesson was on “Finding the area of a rectangle” and learners were fully engaged because classroom demonstrations encouraged both sets of learners to participate actively in activities. Each learner was asked to cut a piece of paper to the size of a rectangle as shown on the board. Then they measured the two sides of the rectangle with a ruler and wrote down the measurements in their exercise books.

The problem area was that all explanations were given in Amharic although the teacher demonstrated with a diagram on the board. This left Afaan Oromoo learners turning left or right for any learners who could translate to Afaan Oromoo. Finding the appropriate words to describe a rectangle in Amharic and move smoothly to calculating its area was a problem for Afaan Oromoo learners during this lesson. Below is an example of how an Afaan Oromoo learner describes a rectangle when the teacher calls on him in class:

Learner: የኩታንጂል ነጥቻ አለት ሁ-ለት እኩል እርዝማኑምን እና ሁ-ለት ነጥቻ (a rectangle has sides two equal lengths and two width)

Expected: የኩታንጂል አራት ነጥቻ አለት::ሁ-ለት እኩል ሰነምና እና ሁ-ለት ነጥቻ (A rectangle has four sides; two equal lengths and two equal widths)

In the above sentence, the learner fails to mention that a rectangle has four sides. This lesson reflects a scenario whereby Afaan Oromoo speaking learners do not comprehend the lesson content even though the teacher uses classroom demonstrations but teaches the lesson exclusively in Amharic.

5.6 Questionnaires: teachers

Questionnaires were handed out to 50 teachers in the month of March by the researcher herself. In a short session with the teachers the researcher explained with the help of an interpreter how and why the questionnaires had to be filled. After two weeks 40 teachers filled and returned the questionnaires that were used for quantitative analysis in this study.

The demographic features of the teachers who agreed to fill the questionnaire include teachers' sex, age group, linguistic backgrounds, the number of languages they could speak, level of education, grade levels they teach and their teaching experiences. (Questions 1-6) was based on the demographic features of the teachers. A total of 40 of teachers, who were

aged between 22-45+ years old and most of whom were females (65%) completed the teachers' questionnaire.

Table 5.4 Demography of Teachers

No.	Variables	Total	
		Number	%
1	Ethnic group	Oromoo	12 30
		Amhara	24 60
		Others	4 10
2	Academic qualification	Certificate	- -
		Diploma	20 70
		First degree	12 30
		M.A and above	- -
3	Number of languages spoken by teachers	One	16 40
		Two	14 35
		Three and more	10 25
4	Teaching experience	0-10	16 40
		11-20	14 35
		21 and above	10 25
5	Gender	Male	13 33
		Female	27 68
6	Age	21-30	22 55
		31-40	11 28
		41-50	7 18

The majority of the teachers (60%) were from Amara region with Amharic as their first language (Table 5.4). Only 30% of the teachers responded that Afaan Oromoo was their first language; meanwhile 10% of them were from the other regions as in Table 3.70% of the teachers had diplomas from the teachers training institution in Addis Ababa and 30% of them were degree holders. Table 5.4 indicates that 40%, 35% and 25% of the teachers could speak one, two and three or more languages respectively. This would imply that in a multilingual classroom where children with diversified linguistic and cultural backgrounds are present these monolingual teachers face challenges in handling and supporting learners. On the other hand, teachers who can speak two or more languages in a multilingual classroom can

communicate effectively through code switching thereby enhancing learning and teaching in the classroom.

According to Table 5.4, 40% of teachers responded that they had five years of teaching experience or less, whereas 35 % of them stated that they had six to ten years' experience; only 25% of the teachers had more than 10 years experience. This would imply that a significant number of the teachers had 5 years or less than 5 years of teaching experience. Teaching experience can be one of the key factors that affect learners' productivity during a lesson. Thus, teachers with more experience may have developed better skills of managing, teaching and assisting learners in a multilingual classroom.

Table 5.5 Teachers' views on MT Education and its Success in Ethiopia (Q 7- 14)

N/o	Statements	Teachers Response		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure
1	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue in primary schools enhance learning achievement	89%	11%	-
2	Learning and Teaching in the first language in primary schools limits learner's world and hinders understanding of subjects	15%	85%	-
3	Learning and Teaching through mother tongue increases learner's participation in class	68%	22%	10%
4	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue destroys learner's self confidence	10%	60%	30%
5	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue increases dropout & repetition of classes	10%	75%	15%
6	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue enables the child to learn additional languages	55%	20%	25%
7	Mother tongue has been very successful in Addis Ababa	48%	40%	12%
8	Mother tongue has hinder the success of many learners in Addis Ababa	32%	68%	-

Table 5.5 shows that a majority of teachers **have a positive attitude towards MTE** in Ethiopia. They also believe that the use of mother tongue in education has been very successful because it has minimised students' repetition and dropout rates. However, some teachers have a **negative attitude** towards MTE; they suggest that most learners do not master subject content in the mother tongue enough for 8 years that can permit them to switch to English in Grade 9. There were other teachers who were not sure about the advantages or disadvantages of MTE.

Table 5.6 Teachers' Preference on English/Amharic as Language of LoLT and Why (Q 15-17)

N/o	Statements	Number	%
1	Teachers who preferred Amharic because mother tongue education allows the child to their first language in school	23	57
2	Teachers who preferred English because it is a global language with better opportunities	10	25
3	Not sure	7	18

This section of the questionnaires requested the teachers to fill in either “Agree/Disagree/Not sure”. Questions 15-17 revealed teachers’ choice/preference between Amharic and English as LoLTs in Addis Ababa. According to Table 5.6, 57% of teachers responded in favour of Amharic as LoLT because MTE allows the child to use their first language in school (Q15). On the other hand, 25% of the teachers preferred English as LoLT in Addis Ababa because English is a global language that can provide greater opportunities both in Ethiopia and internationally (Q16). Question 17 indicated that 18% of teachers said they were not sure about which of the languages they preferred.

Table 5.7 Teachers' attitude towards English as LoLT from Grade 9 and in higher institutions (Q 18- 22).

No .	Statement	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Not sure (%)
1	The switch from MT to English in Grade 9 is necessary because English is a global language	48	52	-
2	The switch from MT to English in Grade 9 is not necessary because learners are not able to handle the switch	50	50	-
3	Learners can handle the switch in Grade 9 and they cope very well	54	30	16
4	The use of English as LoLT from Grade 9 has affected MT as LoLT in primary schools	20	80	-
5	The switch from English to MT should be in Grade 4	25	75	-

From Table 5.7 it can be seen that 52% of teachers disagreed with the idea of switching to English as LoLT from Grade 9 because English is a global language. On the other hand, 48% of them agreed with the idea of using English as LoLT from Grade 9 because it is an international language that can be used for employment in Addis Ababa and for better opportunities outside Addis Ababa. On the idea of how easily learners manage the switch from mother tongue to English as LoLT in Grade 9, Table 5.7 shows that 50% of teachers said it is easy and learners cope very well; meanwhile 50% of teachers said learners struggle and do not cope with the switch.

In addition to these, teachers' responses to question (20) revealed that 54% of teachers believe that the use of English as a medium of instruction in secondary and in higher institutions has not affected education through the mother tongue in primary schools negatively. Still, 30% of the teachers believed that the use of English as a medium of instruction in secondary and in higher institutions has affected learning and teaching through the mother tongue in primary schools. 16% of learners did not respond to this question as shown on Table 5.7.

The answer to Question (21) (Has the switch from Amharic to English as LoLT in Grade 9 affected MTE in primary school?) also indicates that a majority of teachers (80%) responded that the use of English as LoLT from Grade has in no way affected MTE in primary schools. However, 20% of the teachers agreed that English from Grade 9 has affected MTE in primary schools. According to 75% of teachers as shown on Table 5.7, the switch from MT to English should not be done in Grade 4; meanwhile 25% of the teachers agreed that it would be better for the switch to be in Grade 4 (Q 22). Conclusively therefore, Table 5.7 revealed that a majority of the teachers were in support of the idea of switching to English as LoLT in Grade 9.

Table 5.8 Teachers' attitude towards Amharic as the only LoLT in primary schools in selected schools in Addis Ababa. (Q. 23-24)

S/N	Statement	Yes	No
1	Amharic should be the only LoLT in Addis Ababa	42	58
2	Amharic should be the only LoLT in Addis Ababa because it is the common language of communication	42	58

Questions 23 and 24 were aimed at finding out teacher's views on the use of Amharic as the sole LoLT in Addis Ababa. Table 5.8 reveals that 58% of teachers do not support the use of only Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa (Q 23); meanwhile 42% support that Amharic should be the only language used as LoLT in Addis Ababa. Question 24 sought to know why Amharic should or should not be used as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa. According to Table 5.8, the 58% of teachers who are not in support said that using Amharic as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa is a way of making the less privileged and immigrant children in Addis Ababa suffer in school. Meanwhile the 42% of teachers in support said that Amharic is the common language of communication in Ethiopia used in every area of life so it is for the best interest of all if it is used as the only LoLT.

Table 5.9 Teachers' views on the challenges Afaan Oromoo learners face in the classroom (Q 25-29).

No.	Statements	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Not sure (%)
25.	Afaan Oromoo learners can easily be identified during lessons because they shy away from classroom activities	100	-	-
26.	Afaan Oromoo learners do not participate freely during lessons	80	-	20
27.	Afaan Oromoo learners lack self-confidence or self-esteem at the beginning of grade 1 because of language barrier	100	-	-
28.	Afaan Oromoo learners find reading and writing in Amharic very difficult	90	-	10
29.	AFAAN Oromoo learners do not do their homework	100	-	-

From this set of questions, it was evident from Table 5.9 that Afaan Oromoo learners going through their primary school in Addis Ababa faced considerable challenges in the classroom. 100% of the teachers agreed that it was very easy to identify Afaan Oromoo learners in the class because they were unusually quiet and shied away from most classroom activities because of their inability to speak and understand Amharic. Added to this, 80% of the teachers responded that these learners would not participate freely during lessons by answering or asking questions because of fear of being intimidated and laughed at by the other learners in the class. 20% of the teachers were indifferent to this question probably because they had not yet paid sufficient attention to this area (Q26).

All of the teachers (100%), according to Table 5.9, agreed Afaan Oromoo speaking learners from the beginning lacked self-esteem and confidence in themselves to participate during lessons (27). Moreover, 90% of the teachers agreed that during writing and reading exercises Afaan Oromoo learners made many mistakes because Amharic was different from the language they spoke at home. 10% of these teachers said that they were not sure about this aspect. Question 29 revealed that homework was another problem area as 100% of the teachers agreed that Afaan Oromoo learners had problems doing their homework in the house.

Table 5.10 Teachers' views on the policy of free promotion from Grade 1 to Grade 4 in primary schools in Addis Ababa (30-33)

No.	Statement	Yes (%)	No (%)
1	Free promotion is good and encourages children to work hard	10	90
2	Free promotion gives learners a positive attitude towards working hard and success in school	20	80
3	Free promotion affects the performance of learners from Grade 4 positively	15	85
4	Free promotion should be discontinued in primary schools	90	10

Table 5.10 depicts that the policy of free promotion that allows all learners to be promoted to the next class regardless of performance at the end of the academic year from Grade 1 to Grade 4 was not accepted by a majority of teachers. An overwhelming majority of teachers (90%) according to Table 5.10 responded that free promotion is not a good policy and it does not encourage learners to work hard enough in school; meanwhile 10% of the teachers said yes to free promotion as a good policy that encourages learners to work very hard (Q31). From Table 5.10, it can be seen that 80% of teachers did not agree with the idea of free promotion being a policy that gives learners a positive attitude towards working hard and success in school. 20% of the teachers believe it gives a positive attitude to the learners (Q32). On the idea of free promotion affecting the performance of learners in Grade 4 upwards positively, a majority of teachers – 85% - disagreed; meanwhile 15% of the teachers agreed. Table 5.10 indicates that 90% of teachers said yes to the idea of stopping the free promotion policy in order to allow learners to work harder and succeed in assessments before promotion to the next class. 10% of the teachers disagreed and preferred free promotion to continue (Q 33).

Table 5.11 Teachers' views on the idea of an in-service training for teachers of multilingual classes (Q 34-37).

No.	Statement	Yes	No	Not sure
1	On-job training will be good because it will develop teachers' skills	78	-	22
2	A period of two weeks and more will be necessary for the training	65	20	15
3	On-job training will develop teachers' awareness and creativity on how to use different teaching materials	70	30	-
4	On job training will serve as motivation for teachers to teach multilingual classes	78	12	10

It can be noted from Table 5.11 that an overwhelming majority of teachers (78%) were in favour of a short-term in-service training that will develop their teaching skills on how to manage and teach multilingual classes. On the other hand, 22% of the teachers said they were not sure about the idea. On

the length of time that should be allocated for such a training, a majority of teachers (65%) agreed on at least two weeks; meanwhile 20% disagreed and said two weeks and more was too long. 15% of them were not sure of how long such a training can be organised (Q 35).

Table 5.11 shows that 70% of the teachers agreed to the fact that such an in-service training would develop teachers' awareness and creativity on how to use different teaching materials that would assist learners who cannot speak and understand Amharic but use it as LoLT in Addis Ababa. 30% of the teachers were not in support of this idea. (Q37) revealed that the 78% of the teachers who agreed with the idea of in-service training were hoping it would be beneficial and would serve as motivation for them to teach multilingual classes; meanwhile 12% of the teachers disagreed and 10% of them were not sure about the idea.

Table 5.12 Different teaching strategies teachers use to help Afaan Oromoo learners in the classroom (Q 38-41)

No.	Statement	Yes	No
38.	I make use of teaching aids and classroom demonstrations when I teach	50	50
39.	I make use of group and pair work during lessons	64	36
40.	I use other learners to translate to Afaan Oromoo during lessons	76	24
41	I code switch to Afaan Oromoo during lessons	40	60

Questions 38 to 41 were aimed at finding out the different teaching strategies teachers used to teach their multilingual classes. According to Table 5.12, 50% of the teachers said yes to teaching aids and classroom demonstrations and another 50% said they do not use them (Q38). From Table 5.12, it should be noted that 64% of the teachers agreed that they use group and pair work as teaching strategies during lessons. In contrast, 36% of the teachers said they do not use group and pair work. (Q40) revealed that a majority of teachers (76%), according to Table 5.12, agreed that they made use of other learners who can speak and understand both Amharic and Afaan Oromoo as translators during lessons. 24% of the teachers did

not use other learners to translate. On the idea of code switching during lessons, Table 5.12 shows that 40% of teachers said yes to code switching during lessons meanwhile 60% said no because they do not understand or speak Afaan Oromoo (Q41).

Table 5.13 Teachers' views on the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa (Q 42-44)

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
1	I think introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa is possible	60	40	-
2	The presence of huge numbers of learners who speak languages other than Amharic is a good reason for the government to introduce any other language as LoLT	24	58	18
3	There are political or religious reasons why the government cannot introduce AFAAN Oromoo as other LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa	90	-	10

Table 5.13 shows that an outright majority of teachers (60%) agreed to the idea of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa, whereas 40% of the teachers disagreed. (Q42). Question 43 sought to know if the presence of huge numbers of learners who do not speak or understand Amharic but are undergoing their primary studies in Addis Ababa could be a good reason for the government to introduce Afaan Oromoo or another language as LoLT in Addis Ababa. 58% of the teachers disagreed, claiming that the government would not change its policy for such a reason; meanwhile 24% of the teachers agreed that it was possible for the government to do so. 18% of the teachers were not sure. Table 5.13 revealed that an overwhelming majority of teachers agreed to question (43) (Are there any political or religious reasons why the government cannot introduce Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa). 90% of the teachers said yes to this question meanwhile 10% of the teachers were not sure.

5.7. Focus group discussions

Focus group discussions were held with the principals and teachers of both schools, parents and education officers from the Ayart district education office. The purpose of these group discussions was to elicit free responses from the participants by making them feel free and comfortable to express their ideas and views. Open-ended (semi-structured) interview questions encouraged communication between the participants as they could ask and answer questions and also comment on oneanother's experiences and points of view.

The interview questions focused on the success of MTE in Ethiopia, Amharic as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa and the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa. The interview questions also sampled the opinion of the participants on how easily or not Afaan Oromoo learners understood subject content in a language that is not their first language and the challenges they might be facing in the classroom. Added to these, open-ended interview questions also provoked the participants to share their views on the idea of free promotion and its effects on learners who do not speak or understand Amharic. Finally, what were their views on the need for a short-term on-job training for teachers of multilingual classes?

The different insights and opinions of the participants in these focus group discussions added another dimension to the objective and significance of this study. With the help of a translator, the interview questions and responses from the participants have been transcribed and presented in this section of the study.

5.7.1. MTE in Ethiopia and the policy of using only Amharic as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa.

On the idea of MTE in Ethiopia and how successful it has been, there was unanimity amongst the participants that MTE in the early years of education was the best language-in-education policy in Ethiopia. All participants

indicated the advantages of using MT or L1 as LoLT in school and the advantages of allowing children to use the language that they understand best in learning. They pointed out that MTE gives the child the confidence to communicate with teachers and participate freely during lessons. In fact, it also enables the child to bring experiences from the home to the class which facilitates and enhances learning. As to how successful this policy has been in Ethiopia, a majority of the participants insisted that MTE has been hugely successful only in those areas where MTE is used right up to Grade 10. They argued that in Addis Ababa where there is a switch from MT to English as LoLT in Grade 9, learners still struggle and do not succeed or show their full potential in the national exams.

On the policy of using only Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa where there are huge numbers of migrant learners who do not speak or understand Amharic, teachers expressed their frustrations in the classroom when dealing with this particular group of learners. They were of the opinion that Amharic does not serve the interests of migrant children who speak other languages because these children battle between learning the language and using it as LoLT. Added to this, teachers argued that learners who do not speak and understand Amharic cannot communicate with their teachers or with their peers in the classroom. Consequently, these learners eventually get frustrated and drop out of school. However, some education officers were in favour of the LoLT in Addis Ababa; they argued that these learners do not communicate only in the first months of school, but soon they acquire Amharic and are able to communicate with their teachers and peers during the second term of school.

5.7.2. How easily do Afaan Oromoo learners understand subject content and what are some challenges they face in the classroom?

Amongst the participants, teachers were very concerned with this question. They indicated that Afaan Oromoo learners found it difficult to understand subject content during lessons because of the language barrier; and

particularly because the Amharic and Afaan Oromoo alphabets are different. It is worth noting that Amharic is a syllabic language written in a ‘fidel’ script adopted from ‘Ge’ez’ the extinct classical language of Ethiopia. It has 33 characters; each character has seven forms depending on which vowel is added to the consonant (Thompson, 2016). According to Thompson (*ibid.*), Amharic has seven vowels and a rich consonant system with a distinguishing feature. It is written horizontally from the left to the right. Afaan Oromoo on the other hand is an alphabetic language written in the Latin script. It has 31 characters, 26 of which are consonants and 3 are borrowed letters; (p,v,z). Five of these characters (Ch, Dh, Sh, Ny, Ph) are made up of consecutive consonants to give a new sound like in English. It has 5 vowels but each has a longer counterpart. In Afaan Oromoo, adjectives follow a noun or pronoun, whereas in Amharic, adjectives usually precede the noun (Alemu, 2013:11). Teachers insisted that children should begin learning the sounds and letters of the alphabet at home in the L1; a change from L1 to L2 in school confuses learners.

The principals and a majority of the teachers also argued that teaching aids, classroom demonstrations and direct translations to Afaan Oromoo during lessons did not necessarily make the lesson content easier for Afaan Oromoo learners. Education officers on the other hand insisted that teachers are supposed to ensure that these learners understand subject content by giving remedial lessons with the help of Afaan Oromoo speaking teachers. The education officers suggested it was the responsibility of the teachers to bring out the difference in the two alphabets and assist Afaan Oromoo speaking learners to master the Amharic alphabet in the shortest time possible. The principals and teachers disagreed with the education officers on this point and said there was no better way of teaching the alphabet that would make it easier for Afaan Oromoo learners to master.

On the challenges Afaan Oromoo learners face in the classroom, the lack of confidence to participate during lessons was attributed to the language barrier by all the participants. Additionally, the inability of Afaan Oromoo

learners to read and write in Amharic especially in Grade 1 was a call for concern from all the participants. The principals of both Primary Schools took the lead on this issue and explained the difficulties involved in using an unfamiliar language as LoLT. They insisted that learners whose primary language is Amharic already speak and understand the language so they find it easier to associate sounds with symbols in a written text in Amharic and can therefore learn to read faster.

Conversely, learners whose primary language is not Amharic find it difficult associating sounds with symbols in a language which is different from Afaan Oromoo. They called on the education officers to suggest better teaching strategies that could be used to help these learners. Parents took the lead on the issue of homework. They expressed their inability to help their children back at home because they could neither speak nor understand Amharic and the fact that most of the time they return home late and tired. These parents wished the teachers would help the children do their homework in school every day.

Teachers on their part argued that it could never be possible all the time because they too had other commitments. They said at best a translator would explain the instructions for the homework and the learners would have to do the work by themselves. On this note, the education officers called on the parents to be more committed to their children's school work and find other ways of helping them at home. This could mean going an extra mile to find a neighbour or friend who speaks and understands Amharic in the neighbourhood to help with the homework.

5.7.3. The policy of Free Promotion and its effects on Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa.

The policy of free promotion that allows all learners to be promoted from Grade 1 to Grade 4 in all primary schools in Addis Ababa was interpreted by an education officer as a policy that encourages and gives learners a positive attitude towards learning and success. According to the education

officers, free promotion is part of the reason why some learners succeed in Grade 4 and eventually succeed in the first regional exams in Grade 8. Teachers on the other hand were totally against this policy; according to them, it allows learners who have performed very poorly to be promoted to the next class which means there is no deterrent for learners who are lazy and unwilling to work hard. The principals and teachers indicated that Afaan Oromoo learners have been negatively affected by this policy because in Grade 1 they are unable to speak, write or read in Amharic but are promoted to Grade 2. These problems continue from Grade 2 up until Grade 4 where they are likely to fail and repeat the class.

In Grade 8 where they are expected to write their first regional exams, most of them fail and are forced to repeat the class again. The principals and teachers believe that the inability of learners to speak, write and read in Amharic in Grade 4 is thanks to the free promotion policy. To them, this policy should be discontinued as soon as possible so that learners can start working hard to earn a promotion to the next class. Parents were of the opinion that free promotion served as a motivation for them and the learners because when a child moves from one class to another it indicates progress in school. They went further to explain that when their child fails and repeats a class hope for the future is lost. For most of these parents, free promotion is a good policy which should be encouraged by all.

5.7.4. Short term in-service training for teachers who teach multilingual classes

There was a shared concern from all participants on the idea of a short-term in-service training for teachers who teach multilingual classes. Teachers and principals argued that the government has shown no interest in upgrading the teaching skills of teachers who teach multilingual classes. The teachers expressed their desire for an in-service training that would equip them with new skills on how to teach and manage multilingual classes. They insisted that the in-service training was very important and necessary because of the growing numbers of migrant learners who speak languages

other than Amharic in Addis Ababa. Furthermore, an in-service training would enlightened them on how to teach multilingual classes with varied teaching methods that will benefit all the learners. The education officials were also in support of an on-job training for teachers. They explained that such an in-service training would be good if made compulsory for all teachers in the Ayart and other districts that are on the borders of Addis Ababa where huge numbers of migrant children are going through their primary studies.

The education officers also indicated that teachers who would not accept to go in for this short-term on-job training should not be allowed to teach or receive salaries. In this way, they would all be compelled to be part of this training. The education officials agreed to put forward their proposal to the government for such a training to take place in the shortest possible time. Parents also indicated their support for a short-term in-service training for teachers; they pointed out that an in-job training would better equip teachers on how to manage children who do not speak and understand Amharic. Parents were very excited with the idea because such a training also meant their children would acquire Amharic faster and perform better in school.

5.7.5. The possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa.

On the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa, **parents** attributed the government's refusal to introduce Afaan Oromoo as another LoLT in Addis Ababa to political reasons. These political reasons they said were very sensitive and could not be mentioned during the discussions. Parents expressed their wish for Afaan Oromoo to be made another LoLT in Addis Ababa. They said this would make learning easier for their children because it would mean speaking and understanding the same language as the teacher. Again, if Afaan Oromoo was made another LoLT in Addis Ababa many more parents from their area would be encouraged to send their children to school. They disclosed that there were many children who stayed at home or worked on

the fields with their parents because of the language barrier in school. The **education officers** explained that introducing any **one** language would mean favouring one region over the others because children who speak languages other than Amharic and are going through their primary education in Addis Ababa have migrated from all other regions into Addis Ababa. They suggested that since Amharic is the common language of communication in Addis Ababa it is also logical that it should be used as the **only LoLT** in Addis Ababa.

Contrary to this perspective, **teachers** were of the opinion that the government should either open **new schools** in the different districts where learners who speak languages other than Amharic are present or introduce a two-stream system where Amharic and another language could be used as LoLT in Addis Ababa. In addition to this proposal, the **principals** suggested that Afaan Oromoo should be considered first given the fact that it is spoken by the majority. According to them, a **two-stream system** would be better than building new schools that would take a longer time and would also be very expensive. They explained that with this system Amharic and one other language would be used simultaneously as LoLTs in those particular schools. The **government officers** on the other hand argued that a two-stream system would only create more difficulties and cause more confusion because there will always be learners who speak languages other than Amharic and Afaan Oromoo in Addis Ababa. Parents concluded by suggesting that the government should build **new schools** in all the districts with immigrant children who speak languages other than Amharic and train more teachers to teach in these schools.

5.7.6. Summing up

This chapter presented the data that was collected:

- data from administrators from three education bureaus in Addis Ababa: the Addis Ababa education office, the Bole sub-city education office and the Oromia regional office; and

- data collected from learners, parents, teachers and principals at two government primary schools in the Ayart district in Addis Ababa.

Interviews with learners and focus groups were done in Amharic and directly translated to English by an interpreter in order for the researcher to take down detailed notes. These interviews all took place in a spare room provided by the principals of both schools.

Questionnaires were administered to teachers in Amharic and English because most of the teachers understand a little English but they cannot read and write in English.

The administrators could all speak and understand English so it was easy for the researcher to deal with them directly and carry out the interviews in their individual offices. Data from these semi-structured interviews with administrators have been presented without corrections to ensure the meanings remain unchanged.

To answer the research questions, data from all the research groups were organised according to the different research instruments used for collection and presented thematically.

In the course of this study, the researcher noticed the sensitivity of the research topic due to present political tensions between the Oromia Regional State and the Amhara State. Sometimes, participants barely responded to interview questions and would not want to be quoted anywhere. The researcher was also informed at the beginning of this research that voice or video recordings were not allowed. To avoid situations where participants felt uncomfortable to give their views, the researcher with the help of an interpreter decided to take down detailed notes in order to get the most from the respondents and at the same time guarantee confidentiality and anonymity. In chapter 5, the data will be analysed and interpreted.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on analysing and interpreting the data presented in the previous chapter. The data analysis and interpretation are connected to the literature review in chapter two and are also informed by the research questions and theoretical frameworks underlying this study.

When using a mixed research design, it is necessary to merge data from questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations and focus group discussions to be analysed and interpreted qualitatively and quantitatively in order to reach the aims and objectives and to find answers to the research questions posed. According to Seliger & Shohamy (2003:89), “data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data.” In addition, data analysis is defined as the sifting, organising, summarising and synthesising of the data in order to answer the research questions and present the findings of the research (UK Essays, 2013:3). This is the method followed to code the data in this chapter.

Quantitative and qualitative data are analysed and interpreted simultaneously, in a bid to synthesise data from interviews, questionnaires, classroom observations and focus group discussions. A blend of divergent views from different data collection methods will converge to answer the research questions and give a full picture of the research findings.

6.2 Challenges faced by immigrant learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected primary schools in Addis Ababa

6.2.1 Introduction

The first research question (what are the challenges immigrant children who speak only Afaan Oromoo studying in Addis Ababa face?) seeks to investigate the problems learners who have migrated from the Oromia

Regional State to Addis Ababa face in the classroom as they use Amharic as LoLT. Classroom observations, learner interviews and teachers' questionnaires reveal that these learners are faced with challenges at different levels in an attempt to learn Amharic and at the same time use it as LoLT in the classroom. Stemming from their inability to speak and understand the LoLT, Afaan Oromoo learners are unable to communicate with teachers and their peers in class. Classroom participation during lessons is hindered due to the language barrier and comprehension of subject content becomes very difficult for them.

Low self-esteem and lack of confidence is evident in learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo as they shy away from classroom activities. Reading and writing skills which allow learners to seek out information, explore subjects in-depth and gain a better and deeper understanding of the world around them are hardly acquired because the LoLT is not their MT or L1 or a language these learners speak outside school. The inability of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo to do homework breaks the connection between the school and the home and most importantly cuts off the link for parents to be committed in the progress of their children's education. There was shared acknowledgement of some of these challenges Afaan Oromoo learners face amongst the participants of this study but they also differed in their appreciation of the impact these challenges had on the learners and the extent to which these challenges defeated the very purpose of MLE in Addis Ababa.

6.2.2 The inability of Afaan Oromoo learners to communicate with teachers and with their peers in the classroom

Two measuring instruments, semi-structured interviews with administrators and learners (see 5.2 & Figs 5.3 & 5.8) and classroom observations (see 5.5.1 & 5.5.2) indicated that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo were unable to communicate with teachers and their peers during lessons. Education experts projected a very positive attitude towards MTE in Ethiopia and how successful it has been, but also acknowledged the fact that

immigrant children from Oromia region who speak only Afaan Oromoo do face a plethora of challenges in school because of the language barrier.

Education experts from these offices confirmed that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and learning in Addis Ababa cannot communicate with their teachers or peers in and outside the classroom. They attribute these difficulties to the language barrier and yet blame parents for blindly migrating to Addis Ababa instead of sending their children to Oromia where the LoLT is Afaan Oromoo. The head of the Addis Ababa education office pronounced the language problem as real; yet his response as to why Amharic must be the only LoLT suggests that these learners can cope with the system despite the difficulties they face (see 5.2.1.1):

I know that children who cannot speak Amharic from other regions should have problems communicating with their teachers and friends at the beginning of the school year but this will be only for a very short time and they will start to speak Amharic. Learning in Amharic will be good for them because children pick up language very fast from the environment.

The above response from the head of the bureau indirectly questions why Afaan Oromoo speaking learners cannot be given the opportunity to learn in their L1 (Afaan Oromoo) before switching to an L2 (Amharic). Drawing from Cummins' (1978) 'Threshold hypothesis' (see 3.8.3.1), "a minimum level of competence is required for a child to develop in the L1 in order to gain cognitive development when exposed to L2 learning or instruction." This would imply that Afaan Oromoo speaking learners like every other child deserve to learn in an L1 before gaining cognitive development in an L2.

On the other side of the argument, education experts from the Bole sub-city education office expressed their fears on the extent to which a communication breakdown in the classroom due to language barrier can hinder learners from learning and gaining an education. They associated the increasing numbers of learners who drop out from school every year to their inability to communicate with teachers and peers in and outside the classroom.

Education experts from the Oromia education office through semi-structured interviews highlighted the gravity of the language barrier by stressing on the ‘choiceless’ acceptance of Amharic as LoLT because of its dominance in Ethiopia. According to them, in Grade 4 where there is no free promotion, learners who speak languages other than Amharic usually fail and repeat the class and the few who manage to reach Grade 8 do not succeed in the first regional exams and eventually drop out of school.

Theoretically, Skutnabb-Kangas (2000:580) refers to this situation as an “alternative form of submersion” (see 3.9.2). In this case, a powerless majority of children (Afaan Oromoo speaking learners) are being taught through the medium of a second and dominant language (Amharic). This approach to MLE in Addis Ababa conveys the idea of a language of instruction that is superior to the mother tongue of immigrant children. The head of the bureau expressed his bitterness on the inability of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners to communicate in the LoLT and the nonchalance or silence from the government in the following words:

The government has never taken this problem as priority to fix and children from my region and other regions learning in Addis Ababa are suffering. If the child cannot communicate with the teacher and participate during a lesson it means there is no learning. Most of these children get frustrated and end up as house maids. I am not happy with the situation.

Theoretically, Spolsky’s (2004:43) language policy and planning (see Fig 3.1) cautions that language policy and planning should include a direct intervention from management that aims at shaping the way in which a policy is enacted for the benefit of all children. The lingering question at this point demands to know if effective learning takes place in these multilingual classes in Addis Ababa where learners who speak and understand only Afaan Oromoo cannot communicate with their teachers in the classroom.

Classroom observations in Grade 1 prove that learners from both Marie and Cheffie schools portrayed their inability to communicate with their teachers and peers at its highest (see Figures 5.3 & 5.8) level. The over whelming majority of Afaan Oromoo learners who do not like using Amharic and are

not comfortable in class determine that the challenge they face to acquire and at the same time use Amharic as LoLT at the initial stage of school is insurmountable. From Grade 2 to 3 learners displayed a “choiceless” preference of Amharic over Afaan Oromoo as LoLT as reflected in the gradual increase in percentage indicated on Figures 1 and 6 in chapter 5. The inability to communicate with teachers and peers in the classroom dampens and even kills the learning spirit in a child and frustrates every effort he/she makes at working hard to succeed in school.

Teachers questionnaires indicated that teachers' agreed with administrators from the Bole sub-city and Oromia education bureau; the LoLT serves as a barrier to learning and accounts for the poor performances and high level of school drop outs of immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic. Teachers also pointed to a classroom setting where a majority of learners shy away from classroom activities and only Amharic speaking learners are as engaged and fully involved as possible in the learning process. Researchers affirm that learning is facilitated when it takes place in a language that is familiar to both teachers and learners; learning is also enhanced when learners can associate what they learn in class with previous knowledge from the environment (Cummins, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Baker, 2006; Mabiletja 2015).

6.2.3 The inability of Afaan Oromoo learners to participate actively during lessons.

The interpretation of data in this section was based on three measuring instruments.1) Classroom observations portrayed a learning situation where learners who speak languages other than Amharic shy away from classroom activities (see 5.5.1 & 5.5.2). 2) Semi-structured interviews were used with learners (Figures 5.3 & 5.8). 3) Teachers' questionnaires as represented on (Table 5.9) confirmed the inactivity of learners who speak languages other than Amharic in the classroom.

Active participation in the classroom means asking, answering and making comments during lessons. According to Shore (2003:8), engaging learners in active participation in the classroom is an important teaching strategy because the learner has the opportunity to apply knowledge and enhance his/her speaking skill. Learners who participate actively in class learn better because active participation encourages the development of skills in analysis and communication with instant feedback from other learners and teachers (Steel 2013:2). The LoLT in Addis Ababa prevents learners who speak languages other than Amharic from benefiting from these pedagogic advantages.

Classroom observations in both schools (see 5.5.1.1 & 5.5.2.1) confirm the responses from learners during interviews (5.3 & 5.8) which reflect their inability to communicate and participate actively during lessons. Cummins (1991:142) brings out the importance of first language proficiency as a cognitive resource which children bring when they begin the acquisition of a second language (see 3.8.3.3). Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in this scenario do not have the opportunity to use their first language in learning. In reality, the first language of these learners does not feature in the learning process of their primary education in Addis Ababa. Bamgbose (1993:103) echoes this situation when he points out that in African countries small languages will not feature in formal education because of the supremacy and dominance of majority languages.

Teachers' questionnaires echoed the same thoughts as education experts who believe that a language-in-education policy that promotes only one language as LoLT in a multilingual town like Addis Ababa does not consider the frustrations of learners who speak languages other than Amharic. (See Table 5.7). Teachers from both schools were of the opinion that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and cannot actively participate during lessons made teaching in such multilingual classes very demanding. When all efforts to put across the subject content have been made and learners still do not understand the lesson content and cannot actively participate in

class, the learning process for both learners and teachers becomes difficult, disenchanting and disempowering.

6.2.4 Low self-esteem and lack of confidence

Classroom observations, semi-structured interviews with learners and teachers' questionnaires revealed a low self-esteem and lack of confidence in learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo. According to Figures 5.3 & 5.8 in chapter four an overwhelming majority of learners from both schools have developed a low self-esteem and lack confidence to participate during lessons when teachers communicate exclusively in Amharic in the classroom. Low self-esteem and lack of confidence in Afaan Oromoo as observed in different in Grade 1 and Grade 2 classes stem from the learner's inability to communicate with teachers and peers.

Classroom observations also showed that Afaan Oromoo speaking learners are intimidated by other learners when they fail to pronounce Amharic words correctly or construct correct sentences. Revermann (2017:3) observes that lack of confidence always goes hand in hand with low self-esteem and children with low self-esteem may look at themselves as being unskilled or unable to complete tasks. Lafon (2008) attests that if learners do not have sufficient knowledge of the medium of instruction, they will always face difficulties in their learning, which does not necessarily involve lesson concepts or knowledge imparted but linguistic representations and expressions. Low self-esteem and lack of confidence appear to be a major contributing factor as to why some learners give up and drop out of school (see Fig 5.3 & 5.8).

From a practical angle, classroom observations also revealed that low self-esteem and lack of confidence to ask or answer questions during lessons is a common characteristic of Afaan Oromoo learners. These learners feel humiliated and the spirit of learning is killed within them. An example from Marie school, during an Environmental Science lesson, gives a picture of a learner who feels humiliated and discouraged and decides to stay away

from classroom participation (Fig 5.8.1.1). Revermann (2017:5) maintains that children with low self-esteem do not feel comfortable around new people or situations and tend to keep to themselves. Amongst other benefits of MLE, the ability of the learner to express his/her thoughts confidently in the classroom should be encouraged. According to a clear statement from the head of the Oromia education bureau:

A child cannot talk in class when he does not understand the language the teacher uses to teach...the child has no confidence. How then is the child supposed to learn from the teacher?

The above statement implies that children are not fully involved in the learning process and should be given the opportunity to develop their potential through education. UNESCO (2006) stipulates that all learners have the right to quality and inclusive education. Children such as learners who speak languages other than Amharic develop low self-esteem and may doubt their ability to succeed. If they actually attempt a new activity but fail, they may just give up and walk away or drop out from school (Revermann, 2017:6). In this light, through a qualitative analysis of focus group discussions, teachers explained that due to the language barrier learners who speak languages other than Amharic usually consider themselves incapable of completing classroom activities even before attempting to do it. Researchers (see 3.9.2) describe this learning situation as a weak form of MLE. In the case of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners their L1 is not valued by the education system and it is replaced by an L2 which is the LoLT.

6.2.5 LoLT: a barrier for Afaan Oromoo learners to acquire reading and writing skills?

Learners' interviews as shown on Fig. 5.2 & 5.7 in chapter four, classroom observations (see 5.5.1&4.5.2) and teachers' questionnaires (see Table 5.10) demonstrate the inability of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo to read and write in Amharic. It should be noted here that reading and writing like any other skill are a challenge for all learners but it becomes more complicated for Afaan Oromoo learners because their first language has a

bearing on the identification, internalisation, pronunciation and writing of words in Amharic (see 5.8.2.1). When children learn in a language they already speak at home, it should be easy to associate sounds with the symbols they see in that language and they can also understand the words easily. When the LoLT is different from the first language of learners otherwise known as subtractive bi/multilingual education (see 3.9.3), associating sounds and symbols in an unfamiliar language becomes more difficult. This explains why an outright majority of learners from both schools in Grade 1 to 3 as shown on Figure 3 in chapter 5 indicated their inability to read in Amharic.

Grade 1 stands out to be the most challenging class for these learners as far as reading is concerned. The ability to write properly, in parallel, helps learners to make sense of what they are learning and be able to connect the ideas in the classroom to other ideas and situations out of the class. According to Pretorius & Machet (2004), the ability to write pushes the learners to think about the subject content. It becomes frustrating when learners are unable to read and write in class. A Grade 1 learner in Marie Primary school poured out her frustrations in the following words:

I cannot write well...I cannot read in Amharic because I do not understand. It is very difficult for me...I don't know the alphabet because it is different from my language and I cannot say the words from the textbook in Amharic in the class...It is my big problem.

The above statement would suggest that learners who speak languages other than Amharic may not develop a reading and writing proficiency which is required for them to develop academically. Pretorius and Machet (2004) captured the importance of reading and writing in the early years of child's education in the following words:

By not acquiring basic reading skills in the Foundation Phase learners are effectively "silently excluded" from learning...if children do not learn to read fluently and with comprehension by the end of Grade 3 (in any language) it is arguably *the* binding constraint to improved educational outcomes. Unless these learners can crack the code of basic reading and writing...they will be forever disadvantaged and in perpetual catch up (Pretorius and Machet, 2004).

Benson (2009) goes further to argue that for effective development to occur in learners, learners require input and interaction with more knowledgeable speakers of the mother tongue, as well as exposure to a range of new information and experiences, like that which schools can offer. Reading, writing and cognitive development contribute significantly to this process. Teachers associate the inability of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners to learn how to read and write in Amharic to the LoLT. They argue that learning through an unfamiliar language reduces the classroom to “a one man show” or a teacher-centred teaching, an approach to teaching which is not recommended for primary school learners.

6.2.6 The inability of Afaan Oromoo learners to do homework

Goldstein & Zentall (1999:67) observe that homework is like a bridge that joins schools and parents and gives parents the opportunity to express positive attitudes towards their child’s work. The use of semi-structured interviews with learners and some administrators (see Fig 5.4 & 5.9), teachers’ questionnaires (5.9), focus group discussions (5.7) and classroom observations (5.5.1&5.5.2) all revealed that Afaan Oromoo learners were not able to do homework. Learners from both schools associated their inability to do homework to their poor, illiterate parents who can only speak and understand Afaan Oromoo.

Hill, Spencer, Alston & Fitzgerald (1986:23) believe that homework is linked to the learners’ achievement. Homework, according to them, is an inexpensive method of improving learners’ performance without increasing staff or modifying curriculum. In this regard, the head of the Oromia education bureau considered the inability of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo to do homework as an extension of their difficulties from the classroom to the home and termed it a “family torture.” According to him, assisting a child with homework allows a parent to be involved in his/her school work and if for any reasons this cannot happen it becomes frustrating for both the child and the parent.

During focus group discussions, teachers stressed on the inconveniences of managing learners who can and learners who cannot complete work at home and parents explained that they were unable to help with school work because of the language barrier. During classroom observations, the researcher noticed that corrections for homework were usually done at the beginning of lessons in the exercise books of those who were able to do the work at home. No particular attention was given to learners who were unable to do the work. Evidently, learners who do not speak and understand Amharic and cannot do work at home do not have the opportunity of practising at home what was learnt in class. Good (2003:54) confirms this when he attests that homework is an extension of in-school opportunities for the child to learn. He emphasises that through practice and participation in learning tasks, homework can improve the learners' achievement. And if completed accurately, homework improves the learners' general knowledge, grades and mastery of basic skills; reading, writing and spelling (Good, *ibid.*). In this regard, the views of both learners and teachers converge to confirm/ascertain that the inability of Afaan Oromoo learners to do work at home cuts them off from the practical bridge that connects the home and the school.

6.3 Teaching strategies currently employed by teachers of multilingual classes

6.3.1 Introduction

The second research question (What are the current teaching strategies employed by teachers of multilingual classes in Addis Ababa?) focuses on how teachers manage and teach multilingual classes in Addis Ababa. It is important for teachers to reach all learners in the classroom; using different teaching methods facilitates this objective by assisting teachers in differentiating instructions according to subject and content. In this way, learners are relieved from anxiety and disengagement.

Education officials confirmed that teachers have received no form of training on how to teach and manage multilingual classes in Addis Ababa. Teachers' shortcomings and professional deficiency could be a contributing factor to negative outcomes for learners. The head of the Bole sub-city education office observed that the lack of trained teachers may lead to the use of ineffective teaching methods in multilingual classes. He pointed at many teachers who may find it difficult to use good teaching methods in the class due to lack of training; training teachers in Addis Ababa is very important because many learners do not speak Amharic. A teacher must be competent in the language of LoLT and also trained on how to teach and manage a classroom of children from different backgrounds speaking different languages. Without these, the learning process is compromised.

According to Gobana (2013:201), unless teachers are trained on how to teach and manage MTB-MLE, students' academic achievement cannot be improved. He goes further to explain that teachers who have both the training in subjects they teach and proficiency in a medium of instruction are of paramount importance in providing learners with effective skills and knowledge (Gobana 2013 *ibid*). Code switching, learner translations, group and peer work, reading from textbooks and teaching aids/classroom demonstrations are the current teaching strategies used by teachers of both schools. A qualitative analysis of administrators' interviews and classroom observations blended with the quantitative analysis of learners' interviews and teachers' questionnaires portrayed how different teaching strategies are managed in the classroom and the extent to which learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo comprehend subject content through these different teaching methods.

6.3.2 Learner Translation

Classroom observations (see 5.5.1& 5.5.2), semi-structured interviews with learners (5.2 &4.7) and teachers questionnaires (Tables 5.12) revealed that learner translation is mostly used by teachers in the classroom when it seems obvious that Afaan Oromoo learners are not participating or actively

learning in the lesson. When Afaan Oromoo learners do not understand the teacher's instruction, question or lesson content, the teacher calls on another learner who is fluent in both languages to translate immediately for the Afaan Oromoo learners.

According to Pluddemann (1998), learner or peer translating teaching strategy can bridge the largest gaps in oral interaction in the classroom, but it has mixed results. This teaching strategy can sometimes help learners to understand the teacher and at other times it can be referred to as a "desperation measure" (Pluddemann, 1998). It can be considered a desperation measure because the learner translator may or may not understand the teachers themselves and give a wrong translation. From learners' perspective, learner translations help in communicating subject content during lessons and bridges the gap between the teacher and them. On the other hand, it has been shown that these learner translators are just ordinary learners who may fail to grasp or understand the lesson themselves. Examples from Marie and Cheffie schools (see 5.5.1.2 and 5.5.2.1) demonstrate how learner translators sometimes do not understand the concept of the lesson and give a wrong translation that misleads Afaan Oromoo learners.

Jancova (2010:67) criticises the use of translation in the classroom by arguing that translation is an art that should be taught in specialised institutions suggesting that it should not be done by just anybody. According to Jancova (2010), the interferences entailed in thinking in one language and transferring the thought to another language can be misleading in the learning process. The case in point is a true reflection of how incompetent translators mislead learners in the classroom. In a desperate situation where learners do not understand and speak the LoLT the lingering question is how effective can using learner translators as a teaching strategy be of assistance in the learning process?

Koopman (1997:122) stipulates that an inability to speak and understand the languages of all the children in a multilingual class might be shown to

have some impact on a teacher's effectiveness in teaching different concepts. He argues that teachers' ability to understand and speak all languages spoken by learners in a multilingual class is extremely influential in how and what is mediated (what teachers say and do) to assist learners in the learning process. The inability of teachers to speak and understand all the languages spoken by learners in their class calls for an urgent need for an in-service training for teachers who are already in the field and training for incoming teachers of multilingual classes in Addis Ababa.

6.3.3 Code Switching

Classroom observations (5.5.1&5.5.2), semi-structured interviews with learners (see Figures 5.2 &5.7), and teachers' questionnaires (Tables 5.12) portrayed how and why code switching is being used in both schools. Teachers code switch from Amharic to Afaan Oromoo to make the subject content comprehensible for Afaan Oromoo learners.

Metila (2009:27) argues that code switching helps to improve class participation by inducing a relaxed class atmosphere that allows learners to perform better. He goes further to explain that code switching in a bi/multilingual classroom fulfils a pedagogical function when it makes a (challenging) subject matter comprehensible to learners. To concur with Metila (2009), code switching as a teaching strategy used by teachers of both schools for this research indeed fulfils the pedagogical function of making the subject content comprehensible to learners as demonstrated by the 100% of learners from Grades 1-3 indicated on Figures 2 and 7 in chapter 5. These learners confirm that code switching is the best teaching strategy which facilitates communication and makes subject content comprehensible.

Classroom observations in Grade 1B in Cheffie School serve as an example of how code switching can help learners understand the translation of simple words in the home language and say them in Amharic (See 5.5.2.1). In this regard, the advantages of code switching would tie in with the views of the

education experts from the Addis education office who confirmed that teachers do not receive any form of training to teach multilingual classes and yet these teachers have learnt to improvise and use different teaching strategies. Code switching according to them has worked out well in multilingual classes in Addis Ababa suggesting that it is a very effective teaching method. Code switching is best if used only in spoken language where it helps to build the receptive skill of listening in the learner but it is never allowed in written language. The learner therefore cannot use code switching in a test or an exam where he/she is required to demonstrate his/her proficiency in LoLT (Ikome: 2011:42).

According to scholars, code switching could also have disadvantages in the learning process of children (Baker: 2005, Metila: 2005, Ikome: 2011). Baker (2006:78) maintains that when a language minority child moves to a school or different geographical location, where their minority language is not valued or used in school, code switching as a teaching strategy might hinder the child from coping with the school curriculum if it is not used correctly. This happens in classroom situations where the first language of these learners is not the language of the teacher. Ikome (2011:42) confirms this when she argues that even though code switching has a potential to enhance classroom discourse, if it is not undertaken judiciously, it can serve a subtractive rather than an additive purpose. Classroom observations in Grade 1A in Cheffie School painted a picture of a situation where learners did not understand the lesson because of incorrect translation into Afaan Oromoo in the course of code switching. Code switching therefore failed to convey the lesson content as taught in Amharic (see 5.5.2.1). Consequently, Afaan Oromoo learners in this classroom context carried on with an unintended conception of the subject content which was bound to reflect on poor performances in tests and exams.

6.3.4 Reading

To analyse and interpret reading as a current teaching strategy, three measuring instruments have been used. Classroom observations (5.5),

learners' interviews (5.2 and 5.7) and teachers' questionnaires (5.12) showed reading from textbooks as one of the teaching strategies learners do not like and do not understand. Reading during lessons usually involved a particular pattern in which pupils first read a text silently, followed by the teacher's model and loud reading, after which learners would repeat the text aloud after the teacher, and at the end, group and individual reading aloud of passages indicated by the teacher. At the end of the reading exercises, learners were asked to answer questions from the passage individually in their exercise books.

Classroom observations revealed that Afaan Oromoo learners manifested an inability to read fluently; they word counted and pronounced words wrongly. Usually, they were not able to answer the questions after reading correctly. Poor reading skills of learners whose first language is not the LoLT are not peculiar to this study; Macdonald's Threshold Project produced similar results as she states:

On *reading* tasks, the children cannot answer low-level inference questions that demand that they go beyond the information explicitly given in the text. They also find it difficult to answer 'factual' questions, the answers to which are locatable in the text (1993: 74).

The insignificant percentage of learners who appear to find reading accessible from both schools indicates that reading is a difficult skill to acquire (see Fig 5.2 & 5.7). It is important to draw a line between decoding which is the stage at which learners learn to read and reading to learn which demands comprehension of the passage. Afaan Oromoo learners, to begin with, find it difficult to learn how to read in a language they do not speak and understand because associating sounds to symbols in an unfamiliar language is fraught with complications. Kioko, Riuth, Marlin and Jayne (1999:27) focused on the importance of reading and writing in the early years of school:

A crucial learning aim in the early years of education is the development of basic literacy skills; reading and writing... These skills build on the foundational and interactional skills of speaking and listening. When learners speak and understand the language used to instruct them they

develop listening and writing skills faster in a more meaningful way (Kioko et al, 1999:27).

According to the Kansas' School of education (2015:3), learners who cannot read effectively fail to grasp important concepts, perform poorly and eventually fail to succeed in school. If these learners cannot read well they become frustrated and discouraged in school and often contemplate dropping out of school. The Kansas' School of education (2015:6) suggest that it is vital for teachers to think about strategies for teaching reading and writing in their multilingual classes. Teachers should strive to develop the love of reading in their learners which will form the foundation for all other learning. The unanswered question at this point is how teachers' of multilingual schools along the borders' of Addis Ababa can assist Afaan Oromoo learners acquire the LoLT and at the same time use it to become effective readers that will form the foundation of their primary studies.

Classroom observations revealed that teachers do not pay strict attention to immigrant learners who do not speak Amharic during reading exercises. It appears to be a "one size fits all" principle because most of the reading is chanted in chorus by the whole class and learners who do not follow up correctly are not called aside for individual drilling. At the end of the exercise, correct answers are written out on the board and learners copy into their exercise books, usually incorrectly in the case of migrant children. Detrimental to this teaching method therefore is the fact that the learning process is being compromised as the exercise books of these migrant children reveal a multitude of errors. The absence of any remedial action means that at the end of the academic year the policy of "free promotion" (see Table 5.10) allows all learners to be promoted to the next class without a proper assessment of the extent to which they have developed the skill of reading.

6.3.5 Group and Pair work

A quantitative analysis of teachers' questionnaires, as shown on Table 12 in chapter 5, indicate that a majority of teachers use group and pair work as

a teaching strategy. Semi-structured interviews with learners (Fig 5.2 and 5.7) and classroom observations (5.5.1 and 5.5.2) portray how group and pair work is used as a current teaching strategy in the selected schools for this study.

Classroom observations reveal that group and pair work usually end up with Amharic speaking learners to do all the talking and writing because Afaan Oromoo speaking learners shy away from participation. Examples from both schools (see 5.5.2.1 and 5.5.1.1) present a classroom situation where even when the subject content appeared to have been understood by all, Afaan Oromoo learners still struggled to present their points in correct sentences or express their ideas openly. It is quite evident from these examples that the LoLT hinders learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo from engaging fully in the learning process.

Researchers caution that language plays a crucial role in the learning process of every child. It is through language that children become conscious of the world around them in general. It is through language that children make sense of the input from teachers and the written texts in particular and it is through language that children express their understanding of what they have learnt from this input (Cummins, 2000; Gibbons, 2002; Probyn, 2008; Tsui and Tollefson 2004). Participation in group work gives children the opportunity to learn and share ideas with one another. Children learn to clarify and confirm their thoughts and to think about new ideas of how they can work within groups. Children listen to the ideas and opinions of others, and they are exposed to different perceptions of problems and/or situations. Primary Professional Development Service (PPDS: 2017:2) observe that:

Children are stimulated by hearing the ideas and opinions of others, and by having the opportunity to react to them. Collaborative work exposes children to the individual perceptions that others may have of a problem or a situation. These will reflect the different personalities and particular abilities of other members of the group (PPDS: 2017:2).

Brown (1994:43) points out that group and pair work may provide opportunities for more practice and increase creativity in learners but it can be disadvantageous if the groups are not carefully selected to ensure learners can work productively. Group and pair work as teaching strategies in Marie and Cheffie schools leaves much to be desired because although the intention is collaborative work among peers, this is not reflective in live situations where Amharic speakers do the talking and writing. This is because the LoLT favours only learners who speak and understand Amharic implying that learners who speak languages other than Amharic are cut off from the advantages of using such a teaching strategy.

Drawing from a number of studies (Cummins 2001, Brown, 1994 & PPDS, 2017), using a language that is familiar to both teachers and students plays an important role in facilitating learning and teaching. Classroom participation is encouraged and teachers are motivated to use different teaching techniques if the LoLT is familiar to all. Using unfamiliar language (Amharic) as LoLT does not favour Afaan Oromoo learners as highlighted in the case of group and peer work. Implied are the challenges these learners face and the need for language-in-education policy makers to consider the feasibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

6.3.6 Teaching aids and classroom demonstrations

Teaching aids such as farming utensils, pictures of animals and plants, classroom demonstrations of enacted scenes of learners' responsibilities in class (see 5.5.1 and 5.5.2) sometimes facilitated the comprehension of subject content. Teachers' questionnaires, according to (Table 12) in chapter 5, and learners' interviews (Figs 5.2 and 5.7) give as full a picture as possible of how and why teaching aids and classroom demonstrations are used. Gradually, learners become comfortable with this teaching strategy from Grades 1-3 as shown on Fig 2 in chapter 5.

Quick Tips for Teaching (2016:1) affirm that teaching aids are an integral part of any classroom as they help to illustrate or reinforce a skill or concept, presenting information in a new and exciting way. Classroom observations in both schools confirmed this assertion (see 5.5.1.2 and 5.5.2.2). In both situations, teaching aids and classroom demonstrations facilitated the subject concept for Afaan Oromoo learners to understand. Sieber (1987:10) points out the importance of teaching aids and classroom demonstrations in the following words:

Teaching with objects and demonstrations is also a powerful way to facilitate concept learning... Teaching with objects is an excellent means to enhance students' sensory literacy, allowing them to develop the ability to compile evidence through sight, touch, hearing, smell, and even taste, and to analyze and articulate that evidence.

Interestingly, the fact that some learners complained about particular teaching aids whose names they could only retain in their L1 (Afaan Oromoo) confirms the assertion that learning in L1 is like a door way to the child's mind in a learning environment. Despite the language barrier on Afaan Oromoo learners, teaching aids and classroom demonstrations appear to be one of the current teaching methods in Marie and Cheffie Schools that makes subject content more comprehensible and facilitates learning. Taking the percentage of teachers who responded in favour of using this teaching strategy into consideration, one cannot help but ask why 50% of teachers do not use teaching aids and classroom demonstrations. From the administrator's angle, these education experts did not mention the use of teaching aids and classroom demonstrations that allow learners to develop high levels of reasoning and assessment abilities as a plausible teaching method that can facilitate learning. The lingering question at this point is why teachers of multilingual classes in Addis Ababa are not trained on how to teach and manage such multilingual classes using such accessible strategies like teaching aids which are so integral to the learning process.

6.4 Does MTE policy favour/serve the interests of learners whose primary language is not Amharic?

6.4.1 Introduction

The third research question ('does MTE policy in Addis Ababa favour/serve the interest of learners whose primary language is not Amharic?') seeks to investigate if MTE has benefitted immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic. Different themes from semi-structured interviews with administrators and learners coupled with different opinions from parents and teachers during focus group discussions have been merged with quantitative analysis of teachers' questionnaires to answer this third research question.

Administrators, learners, teachers and parents all had different views as to whether MTE has served the interests of learners whose primary language is not Amharic. The different views from all these participants have been integrated and discussed from two language-in-education policy angles: MTE serves the interests of immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic through an additive approach to education and MTE does not serve the interests of immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic through a subtractive approach to education.

6.4.2 MTE policy favours learners who speak languages other than Amharic through an additive approach to education

All the four different measuring instruments used for data collection in this study have been used for interpretation in this section to convey the views of some administrators and parents who argue that MTE serves or favours learners whose primary language is not Amharic. Responses from semi-structured interviews with education experts from the three education bureaus (5.2, 5.3 and 5.4), responses from semi-structured interviews with learners (5.10), classroom observations (5.5.1 and 5.5.2), responses from teachers' questionnaires (Tables 5.6) and emergent themes from focus group discussions (5.7.2 and 5.7.3) indicated that some participants

including parents were of the opinion that MTE serves an additive purpose in the learning process of immigrant learners.

According to these participants, acquiring Amharic as an additional language is an important benefit. One advantage for the learner is that Amharic is also the dominant and common language of communication in Ethiopia and acquiring it will therefore facilitate communication and free interaction in every sector in Addis Ababa and the country at large (see 5.2). Experts from the Addis Ababa education bureau believe that MTE favours or serves learners including those whose primary language is not Amharic because learning in Amharic is like a “gate way” to an economic breakthrough in the future. The key to job obtention in the private or public sectors in Addis Ababa lies in the ability to speak and understand Amharic fluently. Benson et al (2006: 62) in a research on the medium of instruction in primary schools in Ethiopia, confirm the dominance of Amharic in the words of a zonal education official:

Well, Amharic is also our language. We use it everywhere. If we need to travel to Addis we need Amharic. Everyone in the towns uses Amharic. If you need employment in Ethiopia, you need Amharic. If you are self-employed in Ethiopia, you need Amharic. So we all speak Amharic.

Educationally, administrators from this office explained that although some learners whose primary language is not Amharic may not succeed in Grade 8 exams, they have the opportunity to enrol into vocational schools and learn a trade. Those who pass to Grade 12 are usually not successful in the final national exams but are allowed to enrol into the university where they frequently perform poorly and drop out in the first or second year. Nevertheless, experts from this office were confident that learning in Amharic serves learners who speak languages other than Amharic because acquiring a second language makes them bilinguals and gives them an added advantage over their peers who can only speak one language.

Surprisingly, education experts from this office did not seem to be concerned about the poor performances of learners whose primary

language is not Amharic. An additive approach to education, according to Skutnabb-Kangas: 2006, occurs when a new language is acquired in addition to the MT, which continues to be developed. The learner's total linguistic repertoire is extended. The case in point does not apply as it does not allow learning a new language in addition to their MT; instead, their MT is removed from the learning process and the learner's linguistic repertoire is limited. Due to the pressure of acquiring and using Amharic as LoLT at the same time learners who speak languages other than Amharic face an entire set of different challenges in the classroom as discussed throughout including section (6.2) of this chapter.

Focus group discussions exposed the views of parents who also believed that MTE serves the interests of immigrant learners because Amharic, at the end of the day, is acquired as an additional language which gives access to all public and private job opportunities (see 5.7.1). They expressed their frustrations at not being able to help their children with school work due to the language barrier and yet they seem to be at peace with the fact that their children are learning in the only language that can facilitate their integration into the labour market and offer better economic opportunities in Addis Ababa. These parents consider that they are unable to alter the situation and therefore choose to be positive by focusing on the benefits of acquiring Amharic. This positive attitude is also a consolation strategy or coping mechanism for the frustrated parents.

Smith (2004) Cohen (2007) concur when they stipulate that while Amharic is the language of the Amhara ethnic group which is not a numerical majority, it has enjoyed official state recognition for almost 100 years (See 3.4). Judging from the need to give their children the best, parents of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners seem to have no other choice than to accept whatever form of education their children go through in Addis Ababa as the best outcome.

6.4.3 MTE policy does not serve/favour learners who speak languages other than Amharic through a subtractive approach to education

All the four different measuring instruments used for data collection in this study have been used for interpretation in this section. Semi-structured interviews for educators from the Bole sub-city education bureau (5.3) on the one hand and learners (5.10) on the other hand, classroom observations (5.5.1 and 5.5.2), teachers questionnaires (5.8, 5.9, and 5.10) and focus group discussions (5.10.1 and 5.10.2) have been used to demonstrate that MTE in Addis Ababa serves a subtractive rather than an additive purpose for learners whose L1 is not Amharic.

Administrators from the Bole sub-city education office acknowledged the social benefits from learning in Amharic but were also of the opinion that MTE in Addis Ababa does not serve the interests of learners whose primary language is not Amharic. According to them, Afaan Oromoo learners always lag behind their peers who speak Amharic as first language and they still have to acquire Amharic before using it as LoLT. This form of learning is referred to by Cummins (1979), Skutnabb-Kangas (1988), Luckett (1993) and Heugh (2011) as a subtractive form of education. It is an approach to learning that does not use the learner's L1 and makes it difficult for the learner to be fully engaged in the learning process.

Education experts from this office confirmed that the problems Afaan Oromoo speaking learners face become very evident in Grade 8 when the first regional exams are written. Most of them do not succeed, they repeat the class and eventually drop out of school. In Grade 9, Afaan Oromoo learners are forced to switch from using Amharic as LoLT to English after learning English as a 3rd language for 8 years only. It becomes even more complicated to adjust from learning and using Amharic as a LoLT to suddenly using English as a LoLT in Grade 9. Many of these learners perform very poorly in Grade 10. Benson (2009) reflects on the true picture of the Ethiopian language-in-education policy:

Nothing in primary English study has prepared students for learning content through the foreign language, and no Ethiopian language remains in the secondary curriculum except Amharic. Further, speakers of Amharic as a first language are seen as having benefited more from primary education because they only need to learn one new language (Benson, 2009:72).

The head of this bureau stressed on the importance of learners' primary language in learning and suggested that learners who do not speak and understand Amharic be given a chance to learn Amharic out of school before it can be used as a LoLT in Addis Ababa. Drawing from Cummins (1981) theory on BICS and CALP, Afaan Oromoo learners will not attain CALP at the end of their primary studies because they do not attain an adequate level of proficiency (the threshold) in the L1 before switching to an L2 (see 3.8.3.3). Semi-structured interviews also revealed that education experts from the Oromia education bureau reiterated the use of a subtractive approach to MTE in Addis Ababa.

The head of this bureau focused on the importance of first language in education for every child and argued that educating children in a language which they cannot speak and understand is denying the rights of the child. He stressed on the fact that MTE is meant to encourage and not frustrate children to the point of abandoning school (see 5.2.3.3). This picture reflects the thoughts of Skutnabb-Kangas (2000: 582) where she describes a weak bilingual or submersion model of MLE. MTE in Addis Ababa does not serve the interests of learners whose primary language is not Amharic because the powerless majority (Afaan Oromoo speaking learners) are taught through the medium of an alien, often powerful, language (Amharic). In this case, submersion education conveys the idea that the language of instruction is superior to the mother tongues of the majority.

An awareness of how the differences located in unequal power relations and socio economic imbalances in Ethiopia can affect the effective implementation of MTB-MLE comes out here. In this regard, a social justice orientation as presented by Fraser and Honneth (2003:89) states that, "diversity reveals an interweaving of elements of social life, political

contestation, state intervention, power relations in terms of, class, language and a host of other social dynamics." Fraser outlines that social justice involves both the "redistribution of resources and wealth and the politics of recognition" (2003, 58). Wolfe and Spencer's (1996) investigation on achievement, success and minorities calls for the ideaof inclusion. They discoveredthat the factors that influence their success in education and in life in general were inclusion, self-esteem, and not primarily the availability of resources.

Statistically, teachers' questionnaires as shown on Table 8 in chapter 5 gives a vivid picture of what teachers feel about MTE in Addis Ababa. 1) An overwhelming majority of teachers confirmed the passive role Afaan Oromoo speaking learners play in the classroom and opted for the abolition of the free promotion policy that gives at best a wrong picture and at worst no picture whatsoever about learners' performances. Teachers' main complaint about the policy of free promotion is that it only encourages laziness. 2) Although some teachers embraced Amharic as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa, they were also of the opinion that MTE does not serve the interests of learners whose primary language is not Amharic because learning in an unfamiliar language frustrates learners and denies their basic rights (see 5.9).

Teachers contested during focus group discussions that a language-in-education policy that neglects the rights of learners to free education in the L1 for all as the constitution stipulates does not serve the interests of learners who speak languages other than Amharic. 3) Teachers attested and scholars concur that children who do not understand the language used in the classroom are unable to demonstrate what they know, ask questions, and participate during lessons. These scholars argue that when curriculum content is presented in an unfamiliar language, an enormous amount of time must be spent first teaching children to understand, speak, read, and write in the new language without which learning becomes difficult (Smits, 2008; Bender et al, 2005; Ball, 2010 and Walter & Dekker, 2011).

A quantitative analysis of learners' interviews confirms that MTE in Addis Ababa serves a subtractive purpose and does not serve/favor learners whose primary language is not Amharic. According to Figures 1 and 6 in chapter 5, learners from both schools do not like using Amharic as LoLT either because they cannot speak and understand the language or because when they try to speak other learners laugh and mock them. An overwhelming majority of learners also prefer to learn in Afaan Oromoo, without which, as the case in point, it becomes a 'choiceless' decision imposed by their immigrant status. This negative attitude towards the LoLT affects their learning process negatively. Nunan & Lamb (1996:216) clarify the attitude of learners and its effect on learning in the following words:

The attitude of learners toward the target language, the learning situation, and the roles that they are expected to play within that learning situation will have an important effect on the learning process. If the learner has a negative attitude towards the language, the culture, the classroom or the teacher, learning can be impaired or even rendered ineffective.

The above reflection on the negative attitude of learners towards language confirms that a negative attitude towards a LoLT suppresses young learners' potential and liberty to express themselves freely. It dulls the enthusiasm of young minds and inhibits their creativity making the learning experience unpleasant. These all have a negative effect on the learning outcome (Kioko et al. 1999:27). The case of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners is no different. The language barrier has led to a low self-esteem and lack of confidence which is reflected in their inability to participate actively in class (see section 5.2). These children are disadvantaged and cut off from the benefits of MTB-MLE because of the minority status of their language (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000:283).

Classroom observations of group and pair work demonstrated a low self-esteem and lack of confidence in learners from both schools (see Fig 5.2 &5.7). The inability of learners to do homework was revealed through semi-structured interviews with learners as shown in Figures 5.3 and 5.8 in chapter 5. These challenges and more as discussed in section 5.3 of this

chapter confirm the subtractive approach to MTE in Addis Ababa for speakers of languages other than Amharic. MTE as observed by Dutcher (2004:26) should offer children a better start in school as they demonstrate increased self-confidence and continue to perform better than those who start school in a new language. When children begin school learning first through a mother tongue, they do not only learn this language in a limited scope, they learn concepts and intellectual skills that will allow them to function in the national language (Dutcher 2004:24 *ibid.*). If learners whose primary language is not Amharic are not comfortable and do not feel confident in using Amharic as LoLT it means MTE in Addis Ababa becomes a barrier rather than a resource for a smooth and successful primary education. Kioko et al. (1999) concur when they observe that,

On starting school children find themselves in a new physical environment. The classroom is new, most of the classmates are strangers and the center of authority (teacher) is a stranger too and the structured way of learning is new; if, in addition to all of these there is an abrupt change in the language of interaction, then the situation can get very complicated and affect the child's learning negatively (Kioko et al. 1999:25).

The above observation from Kioko et al. (1999) summarises the views of some administrators, learners and teachers on the fact that MTE in Addis Ababa serves a subtractive rather than an additive purpose in the learning process of learners who speak languages other than Amharic.

6.5 What are the feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa?

6.5.1 Introduction

The fourth research question (what are the feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa?) seeks to find out what hinders Afaan Oromoo or any other language from being introduced as LoLT in Addis Ababa. Djité (2008:54) points out that education is the most important aspect in language planning because development is directly connected to languages of

education. Language(s) used as LoLT map out a vision for the future of every country and serves as a stepping-stone for children with a brighter future. The 1994 Education and Training policy of Ethiopia states that the government will take cognisance of the pedagogical advantage of the child in learning in its mother tongue (see 3.7.3.2).

Berhanu (2009) points out that following the introduction of the new Education and Training policy in 1994, regional governments in Ethiopia could determine their own policies on the medium of instruction in grades 1-8. This implies that the decision to introduce Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa is the sole decision of the language-in-education policy makers of Addis Ababa. A qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews with administrators will be merged with a quantitative analysis of learners' interviews; qualitative analysis of focus group discussions and a quantitative analysis of teachers' questionnaires will all be integrated in an attempt to answer this research question.

This section will discuss these constraints: lack of political will, the presence of too many languages and the dominance of Amharic, lack of funding and political tensions between Amhara and the Regional State of Oromia.

6.5.2 Lack of a political will

Semi-structured interviews with administrators portrayed the opinions of some administrators who believe it is the lack of a political will by the government that has hindered the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa. Teachers echoed the thoughts of administrators during focus group discussions. Administrators from the Bole sub-city/Oromia education offices as well as a majority of teachers from both schools believe that the government has never treated the case of immigrant learners in Addis Ababa as urgent. While the administrators argue that the government has shown no discernible effort at ameliorating the learning conditions of learners who

speak languages other than Amharic, teachers believe that the government has so far displayed no interest in challenges that have been channeled from the classroom to the government officials (See 5.7.5).

Teachers commented on the silence and seemingly comfortable position of the government with Amharic as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa where there are hundreds of learners whose primary language is not Amharic; education experts stressed on the government's nonchalance in addressing the problems immigrant learners face using Amharic as LoLT. According to a clear statement from the head of the bureau:

Government must see first and accept there is a problem in the learning of our children. The language problem cannot be ignored by our government. Children...many children from all the regions learning in Addis Ababa have this language problem for the government to see.

This implies that introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT might not be possible any time soon. The possibility of introducing any language lies in the political will or determination of the government to ensure that all children enjoy the benefits of MTB-MLE. This can only be possible if other languages are introduced as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

6.5.3 The presence of too many languages and the dominance of Amharic

Education experts through semi-structured interviews (see 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4) and teachers through a quantitative analysis of questionnaires (5.11) indicated that the presence of too many languages and the dominance of Amharic in Ethiopia might hinder the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa. Semi-structured interviews during focus group discussions also revealed the views of parents on the dominance of Amharic in Addis Ababa. According to education experts and teachers, choosing one or two languages amongst the 70-80 languages spoken in Ethiopia might suggest discrimination. Teachers on the one hand insisted that the presence of hundreds of immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic in Addis Ababa should be a motivating factor for the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT;

education experts on the other hand highlighted the importance of many languages in a country like Ethiopia. The presence of many languages, according to them, should serve as a resource for the successful implementation of MTB-MLE in the country.

Commenting on the dominance of Amharic, education experts from the Bole Sub-city/Oromia education office pointed to the influence of Amharic which is the common language of communication(CLC), the “working language of the government” and also known as the national language in Ethiopia (Benson et al., 2006:41). Implied is the fact that Amharic is used in all public and private sectors in Addis Ababa making it even more complicated for any other language to be introduced as LoLT. These administrators believe that the supremacy of Amharic over all other languages in Ethiopia contributes to its being the sole LoLT in Addis Ababa. According to teachers, what appears to be the concern of policy makers in Addis Ababa is not to ensure equal learning opportunities for all children but the functional dominance of Amharic.

Sieber (2002) highlights the importance of teachers to be part of the language-in-education policy and planning of all institutions. She brings out the connection between the way teachers organise their programmes and practices and the opportunities that are available for learners in school and in the society. The national scheme of things in Ethiopia dictates that anyone who desires any meaningful participation in the national affairs must learn and speak Amharic. This reality compels children who speak languages other than Amharic to struggle and acquire Amharic and at the same time use it as LoLT in order to stand a chance of benefitting from the system. The different perspectives on the presence of too many languages in Ethiopia from administrators and teachers contribute to the fact that introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa seems to be a challenge the government still has to consider before any other language can be used as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

6.5.4 Lack of Funding

Focus group discussions with parents, teachers and education experts (5.7.5) and semi-structured interviews with administrators (5.2, 5.3, 5.4) indicated that lack of funding might be one of the feasible constraints that hinder the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa. In the main, education experts were of the opinion that the cost of introducing another language, as LoLT in Addis Ababa, might not necessarily be the reason why the government is hesitant about introducing other languages; teachers on their part believed that the fear of costs is behind much of the reluctance to introduce Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

In as much as there was a general consensus on the huge funds needed for introducing any new languages as LoLT in Addis Ababa, the overwhelming majority of participants during focus group discussions insisted that lack of planning from the side of the government resulted in lack of funds. This in turn contributes to the delay of introducing any other languages as LoLT in Addis Ababa. Tapping from the vast literature reviewed in chapter 2 of this study to concur with teachers' views, multilingualism poses serious challenges for language-in-education policy makers, especially the choice of a LoLT (Tollefson, 1991; 2002a; 2006; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, 2003; Prah, 2000a; 2005; Brock-Utne & Hopson, 2005; Tollefson & Tsui; 2004a; Ferguson, 2006).

According to teachers, immediate affordability is always the cry from the government when it comes to spending huge amounts of money on any kind of project. Administrators from the Addis Ababa education office complained that introducing any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa must begin from the building of new schools to the training of new teachers and making available all the learning and teaching materials for that language to be used as LoLT in Addis Ababa. These will cost a lot of money which the government at the point in time could not afford.

Owen-Smith (2011:4) stipulates that multi-bilingualism will require some additional financing but this should not be presented as prohibitive before being properly investigated. This would suggest that whatever additional costs the implementation of MTB-MLE programmes in Addis Ababa might require, the cost should be properly investigated before final decisions are taken. The government might just realise that the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language might not be as expensive as it looks. The argument about needing to build new schools and thereby bearing huge costs, for example, could be nullified with the counter view that the existing infrastructure in schools could accommodate a two-stream policy.

6.5.5 Political Tensions between Amhara and the Oromia Regional State

Teacher questionnaires, focus group discussions with parents, teachers and education experts plus semi-structured interviews with administrators revealed the political tensions that have characterised the relationship between Amhara (Addis Ababa) and the Oromia Regional State. An outright majority of teachers (see Table 5.13), a majority of parents (5.7.5) and administrators (5.3, 5.4) attested to the existence of political tensions between Amhara and Oromia Regional State. What was very evident from all the participants was the refrain from dishing out any details as to why there have been political tensions between these two regions and why these tensions are partially responsible for the delay in introducing Afaan Oromoo as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

During focus group discussions, teachers took the liberty of commenting on the attitude of the government towards the political tensions that have strained the relationship between the two states for some years now. According to them, these tensions have resulted in fighting in which many people have lost their lives, thus suggesting that these political tensions might be the very reasons why Afaan Oromoo in particular cannot be introduced as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter analysed and interpreted the data presented in chapter 5. Data collected through the different instruments indicate a wide range of challenges, some of them wellnigh insurmountable, faced by learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo but are using Amharic as LoLT. The data also indicated the current teaching strategies in multilingual classes highlighting the effectiveness of each teaching method. Data analysed and interpreted in this chapter revealed the extent to which the MTE policy in Addis Ababa serves or favours learners whose primary language is not Amharic. It points to an educational approach that mostly favours learners whose primary language is Amharic. Immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic struggle to acquire and use the LoLT in the various learning areas. The data also shows that certain factors and conditions hinder the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language in some schools (see 2.7) as LoLT in Addis Ababa.²

Cummins' theories became critical in explaining the importance of L1 to the cognitive development of children in the early years of school. Models of MTB-MLE as propounded by Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) and Baker (2001) were used to distinguish between subtractive and additive approaches to MTE. The different choices that are available for sustaining additive MLE in a country such as Ethiopia were discussed. Ricento & Hornberger's (2006) language planning and policy together with Spolsky's (2004) theory of language policy emphasise a language planning policy that commences from the community. This approach to language policy and planning ties in with the "bottom-up" language policy or "grass roots" policy (Webb, 2009) suggesting that any change in policy must originate with individuals who represent the speakers of a specific language.

² It must be noted 22 schools were recently opened in Addis Ababa where Afaan Oromoo is being used as LoLT.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the thesis by summarising the findings, reaching a conclusion and providing answers to the research questions. Discussed against the background of a vast body of literature, theoretical frameworks and language policy models, the findings of this study clarify and explore the implications of the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa. In addition, the chapter discusses the contribution of the study and also recommends possible future actions regarding MTE in Ethiopia.

7.2 Findings

This section discusses the findings of this study based on the research questions, as formulated in chapter 1:

- What are the challenges that immigrant children from the Oromia region studying in selected schools (in Bole sub-city) in Addis Ababa face?
- What are the teaching strategies employed by teachers of multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa?
- How does the current MTE policy in Addis Ababa favour/serve the interests of children whose primary language is not Amharic in selected primary schools in Addis Ababa?
- What are the feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other languages as LoLT in some schools in Addis Ababa?

7.2.1 Challenges faced by immigrant children from the Oromia region studying in selected schools in Addis Ababa

This section is concerned with the first research question. It tackles the particular challenges that the children in the research group, that is, migrant

Afaan Oromoo children in Bole sub-city, face when they attend school in Addis Ababa. They must learn Amharic as a second language and at the same time use it as LoLT to master subject content in different learning areas.

A key finding that emerged from the data collected in this study is the fact that **the LoLT is a barrier to the learning process of Afaan Oromoo learners from Grades 1-3 in the selected schools.** The LoLT prevents them from developing cognitively, psychologically and socially according to their potential. Using an unfamiliar language as LoLT is tantamount to being forced to learn in a language which breaks down communication in the classroom and slows down the learning process. In this scenario, learners are not engaged and fully involved in the learning process that guarantees the acquisition of basic skills and knowledge.

This finding resonates with research outcomes reported on by Myburgh, Poggenpoel and Rensburg (2004:576) who maintain that when a child reaches school age it is assumed that he/she has acquired some knowledge through his/her first language. This child will feel more at home in school and learn comfortably and faster if the language he/she has already acquired is used to his/her advantage as a LoLT (Myburgh et al., 2004). If this is not the case the child suffers psychologically, physically, socially and most importantly cognitively as reflected in the case of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in Addis Ababa.

7.2.1.1 Psychological and social challenges

The data revealed that Afaan Oromoo learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa suffer from **low self-esteem and a lack of confidence.** Intimidated by Amharic speaking learners during lessons, the learning spirit is killed and an abject feeling of low self-esteem and lack of confidence is instilled. The inability to communicate freely and participate during lessons, deepens the wound of low self-esteem and discouragement in these learners.

Children with a low self-esteem do not feel comfortable around new people or situations and they tend to avoid anything unfamiliar (Revermann, 2017:5). This implies that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo and are going through their primary education in Addis Ababa have the tendency to avoid unfamiliar classroom activities and also shy away from new challenges that come with learning new subject content in the classroom. From a theoretical angle, this finding ties in with Skutnabb-Kangas' (2000: 582) submersion model: it is a subtractive learning condition for Afaan Oromoo learners in some schools in Addis Ababa which neglects their mother tongue and insists on the use and the importance of the majority language (see 2.9.2). She highlights the frustrations of such learners:

These children suffer from stress, alienation, disaffection and lack of self-confidence in class. These negative consequences are due to the extremely high demands which occur in a learning environment where children are constantly under the dual pressure of having to learn curriculum content and acquire a new language simultaneously (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000:582).

When learners are unable to activate and rehearse language in the classroom due to low self-esteem and lack of confidence as in the case with Afaan Oromoo speaking leaners, they fail to engage fully in the learning process and suffer psychologically. Luckett (1993) maintains that this situation occurs when the L1 of the child is not valued and supported by the education system. L1 is therefore regarded as a barrier and deficit in the education system. This approach to education has a negative impact on a child's psychological and cognitive development (Luckett 1993).

Findings from this study also reveal that some learners whose primary language is not Amharic suffer socially. Pain is inflicted on these learners when Amharic speaking learners laugh and mock them when they make mistakes in class. The immediate response to such intimidation in the classroom is to shy away from classroom participation. These learners feel uncomfortable amongst their peers in and outside the classroom. This finding concurs with previous research by Cummins (1991); De Klerk (1995b); Myburgh et al. (2004) and Probyn (2005a) which showed that a

majority of learners find it difficult to cope in classrooms which rely solely on an additional language rather than on using learners' mother tongue. Harmer (1991:40) echoes the thoughts of these researchers when he stresses the importance of classroom participation. He points out that learners must be given a chance to speak and interact with others in the classroom; they must be provided with opportunities to activate the knowledge they have received without which they feel like strangers in the classroom.

According to Harmer (1991:40), language production in the form of classroom participation allows learners to rehearse language use in classroom conditions whilst receiving feedback from teachers, other learners and from themselves. In this way, learners develop psychologically, socially and most importantly cognitively. This is not the case with Afaan Oromoo speaking learners because their inability to communicate in the LoLT instead inflicts psychological pain and prevents them from connecting socially with their peers in and outside the classroom.

7.2.1.2 LoLT: a barrier to cognitive development

A major finding of this study is the fact that LoLT is **a barrier to the cognitive development of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa**. Learning in a L2 (Amharic) means being denied the privilege of using L1 (Afaan Oromoo) in the learning process. Learning in L1 according to Cummins (1978, 1989, 1981, 2008,) serves as a foundation for the acquisition of L2 which will in turn lead to proficiency in both languages. Proficiency in the L1 and L2 will lead to the effective development of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills; without these learners cannot develop cognitively (see 3.3, 3.9.3.2).

In practice, the fact that Amharic is still being used as the only LoLT in some schools in Addis Ababa hinders Afaan Oromoo learners from acquiring the basic skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking as reflected in the classroom observations. It is easier and better for learners to identify and

understand signs and symbols in their mother tongue in a learning situation. According to UNESCO (1953), the mother tongue is a system of meaningful signs and symbols that work automatically for expression and understanding in the mind of the learner; it provides the first recognition of facts and events. Implied is the fact that when the language of LoLT is different from the MT of learners (as in the case of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners), learning to read and write in an unfamiliar language becomes excruciatingly more demanding. This finding echoes the thoughts of Kioko et al (1999:28) when they state: "When learners speak and understand the language used to instruct them they develop listening, reading and writing skills faster in a more meaningful way." It emerged from the study that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo do not develop cognitively because the basic learning skills in the L2 have not been acquired.

Another finding concerns the inability of Afaan Oromoo learners in the two primary schools selected for this study to do homework which prevents them from developing cognitively. The home is considered an extension of school according to Bempechat (2010:190) and children have two educators with parents as the prime educator. He stresses that homework is the best channel through which children can receive guidance and training to become mature and independent learners. Parental involvement in assisting children with homework has a significant impact on the child's cognitive development, literacy and numeracy skills (Bempechat 2010:190).

Thirumurthy (2014:10) affirms this when she points out that homework is the perfect platform to help children discover the easiest way to learn by linking the academic concepts that children learn at school to real life values and ideologies. It encourages daily learning and ensures the development of study skills in children. Afaan Oromoo speaking learners learn in a language that is different from the language that is spoken at home, with the result that parents cannot be the educators they are supposed to be and they therefore have limited influence on the social and cognitive development of their children. In order for immigrant learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo

to develop cognitively the influence of a parent as the prime educator should be considered as posited in Ricento and Hornberger's LPP model (see 3.9.1).

7.2.2 Teaching strategies used by teachers in multilingual classes

This section is concerned with the second research question: what are the current teaching strategies used by teachers in multilingual classes in selected schools in Addis Ababa? The data gathered revealed that there are no official guidelines or specific teaching strategies for teachers who teach multilingual classes in Addis Ababa. In fact, it was ascertained that teachers who teach multilingual classes do not receive any form of training during the official study years. However, the presence of hundreds of learners who speak languages other than Amharic has compelled these teachers to devise and use a number of teaching strategies in their multilingual classes.

The current teaching strategies used in the two selected schools for this study include code switching, learner translation, teaching aids and classroom demonstrations, group/pair work and reading from textbooks. Findings on how these teaching strategies assist learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo will be discussed in this section.

7.2.2.1 Code switching

Code switching appears to be one of the teaching strategies that facilitates learning or bridges the gap between teachers and Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in the classrooms of selected schools in Addis Ababa. Unfortunately, only a third of the teachers from both schools speak and understand this language (see 5.3). Learners' limited proficiency in the LoLT is the main reason why teachers codeswitch (Adendorff 1993:16). Classroom observations revealed that code switching serves important communicative and cognitive functions but the conditions under which it

occurs, and the manner in which it is employed, determines the extent of its usefulness (Butzkamm 2010).

Classroom observations also revealed code switching as a teaching strategy that can mislead learners if not properly done (5.8.2.1 Grade 1A). Cook (1991:20) maintains that teachers can use code switching by starting the lesson in the LoLT and then codeswitch to the minority language and back. This approach allows the teacher to balance the use of languages in each lesson with the teacher opting to switch at key points such as when important concepts are introduced or when the students get distracted (Cook, 1991). Classroom observations in other instances portrayed code-switching as a teaching strategy that can only facilitate communication between the teacher and the learners in the context of a classroom discussion.

It emerged from the study that codeswitching can only be used to facilitate communication during lessons because Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa were still not able to read and write properly in Grade 3 (see 5.8.2.2 Grade 1B); implied is the fact that code switching can only help learners to acquire BICS according to Cummins (2008) (see 3.9.3.3). Code switching as a teaching strategy in this case does not help in the cognitive development of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners going through their primary education in Addis Ababa.

7.2.2.2 Learner translation

When the teacher feels that learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo do not understand the subject content, question or instruction during a lesson, the teacher calls on another learner who is fluent in both Amharic and Afaan Oromoo to translate into Afaan Oromoo. Davies & Pearse (2000:7) suggest that if children do not understand immediately, teachers can resort to other teaching methods that will facilitate communication in the classroom. Learner translation as a teaching method, according to an outright majority of learners in this study, facilitates communication and promotes the

understanding of subject content in the classroom (see Fig. 5. 2). Translation of any type fits within the boundaries of work that has been done on multilingualism. It usually entails “a repetition of an oral or written text in the more accessible home language of learners” (Probyn, 2015). This teaching strategy, according to Pluddemann (1998), may sometimes have mixed results as in the case in point.

It emerged from the study that the learner translator sometimes enables Afaan Oromoo speaking learners to understand the subject content, answer a question or follow the teacher’s instruction correctly. This would suggest that learner translation as a teaching method may sometimes facilitate communication and assist Afaan Oromoo learners to understand the lesson content. However, at other times, two important drawbacks of this method have emerged: 1) the learner translator appears to go beyond the call of duty by giving the answer as well, thereby short-circuiting the learning process; 2) the learner translator fails to give the correct translation and totally misleads Afaan Oromoo speaking learners (see 5.7.2.1 Grade 3A).

Jancova (2010:89) observes that translation as a teaching strategy encourages learners to think in one language and transfer to another one with a possibility of negative transfers to the LoLT. He argues that learners in this situation are forced to always view the LoLT through their mother tongue which causes interferences and dependence on the MT; this inhibits free expression in the LoLT (Jancova *ibid.*). Theoretically, the use of learner translators as a current teaching strategy will only facilitate the acquisition of BICS if the translations are well done. On the other hand, CALP which is necessary for academic success for learners will not be attained because more understanding of subject content is needed as they participate effectively with teachers (Cummins 1981).

7.2.2.3 Teaching aids and classroom demonstrations

One interesting finding of this study is that it seems to be natural for learners to learn through visual aids or the demonstration of certain actions.

Sometimes teaching aids and classroom demonstrations did help learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo to understand a new concept more easily in the classroom. Sieber (2002) observes that illustrations/classroom demonstrations and the use of visual aids are extremely important in teaching; it falls in place because children grow up expecting their world to be visual as they constantly receive visual support where communication is concerned. This study reveals that the percentage of learners who find it easier to understand a lesson when teaching aids and classroom demonstrations are used increases gradually from Grades 1-3 (Fig. 5.2). This would suggest that as Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in schools which still use only Amharic as LoLT get mature, they get used to the LoLT and teaching aids and classroom demonstrations which help in developing understanding as they process the information being conveyed. Subsequently this understanding would lead to high levels of reasoning and assessment abilities in them.

This teaching strategy becomes problematic in this scenario because the LoLT is different from the language Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa speak at home. Sieber (2002) argues that the most important aspect about teaching aids is that they arouse curiosity and encourage learners to develop their own questions and learn to develop strategies for answering those questions. The LoLT in this situation hinders Afaan Oromoo learners from asking or answering any questions in the classroom. They may understand the subject content when teaching aids and classroom demonstrations are used but are unable to write or express themselves in the LoLT even when it involves merely copying directly from the board into their exercise books, let alone during tests or exams they are expected to demonstrate levels of reasoning and assessment abilities. The difficulty in attaining the BICS threshold in the LoLT and the nigh impossibility of acquiring CALP lead to poor results and demoralising assessment outcomes.

7.2.2.4 Group and pair work

If given the opportunity to listen to the ideas and opinions of other learners during group and pair work, learners are usually stimulated to the point of an interactive exchange that helps in developing creativity and the skill of speaking. According to the Centre for Innovation in Research and Teaching (CIFT, 2017), group and pair work develops communication and team work skills in learners. They learn to talk, share ideas and communicate more readily with one another.

CIIT echoes the importance of group work for creating an environment where learners ‘teach’ and ‘explain’ concepts to one another. They further explain that group work reinforces the information given by the teacher and also provide learners the opportunity to ‘hear’ and ‘learn’ the material from a peer who may be able to explain it in a way that makes more sense to the other learners (CIIT 2017). This is not the case with Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa who constantly shied away from talking during group discussions. This would suggest that whatever was ‘heard’ and ‘learnt’ as indicated by CIIT (2017), benefitted only Amharic speaking learners.

Classroom observations revealed that group and pair work tends to favour only learners whose first language is Amharic because they discuss content fluently in Amharic during group work and do most of the classroom presentations as demanded by the teacher (see 5.8.1.1 Grade 2A). During group and pair work discussions in these multilingual classes as observed, learners who speak languages other than the LoLT had the tendency to avoid attention or to avoid appearing uneducated should the answer or solution they offered be incorrect. Instead, they preferred to stay quiet. This enforced silence and abstaining from speaking on the part of Afaan Oromoo speakers hinder the acquisition of BICS because they do not participate in the exercise as intended. Implied is the fact that group and pair work as a teaching strategy only benefits Amharic speaking learners.

7.2.2.5 Reading

Barr (1984:165) defines reading as an “interactive and social process in which readers use information from the printed text along with what is in their heads to construct meaning in a given situational context.” The Progress International Reading and Literacy Strategy (PIRLS) also refers to reading as the ability to understand and use written language forms which enables young readers to construct meaning from a variety of texts (PIRLS 2006:2). Learning to read in a L2 makes it difficult for Afaan Oromoo speaking learners to make sense of the text; it makes it difficult for them to assimilate, understand and process information, let alone be able to apply the knowledge in different learning situations and contexts. According to Pretorius (2002), for children to comprehend what they read, they must read with sufficiency, fluency /accuracy, speed and prosody.

It emerged from the study that learners from Grades 1-3 from the two selected primary schools for this study are only able to word count if asked to read individually repeat aloud after the teacher suggesting that they do not understand and are not able to make meaning from the reading text. This is confirmed by the overwhelming majority of learners who indicated that they find it difficult to read in Amharic, do not understand the lesson and cannot answer questions correctly when they read from the text books (see Fig. 5. 2). Howie et al. (2008:40) describe an early reader as a primary school learner who after some elementary but guided engagement with texts is able to recognise letters of the alphabet, write letters of the alphabet, read some words, write some words and read some sentences. An early reader is supposed to be fashioned and guided by his/her educator.

As pointed out in Chapter 2, Benson (2009: 73) proposes that educationists need to focus on a set of widely agreed principles of language learning and cognitive development. She argues:

For effective development to occur, children require input and interaction with more knowledgeable speakers of the mother tongue, as well as exposure to a range of new information and experiences, like

that which schools can offer. Reading, writing and cognitive development contribute significantly to this process (Benson, 2009:73).

The inaccessibility of the Amharic texts shows that the LoLT serves as a barrier for Afaan Oromoo learners in the selected schools to acquire the expected reading skills and prevents them from succeeding academically. This is because the ability to read a text and make sense of it is a skill that is used in every subject or area of learning. Without this basic skill, the learner has little or no chance of attaining the minimum competence or threshold (BICS) that will in turn make it possible for CALP to be acquired. A critical finding that emerged from this study therefore is the fact that reading from the textbook during lessons does not help learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo to acquire the requisite reading skill.

7.2.3 How does the MTE policy serve/favour the interests of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa?

This section is concerned with the third research question (how does the MTE policy serve the interests or favour learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa?). The study found that the MTE policy in Addis Ababa mostly serves the interests and **favours Amharic speaking learners as it is designed with this group in mind**. Consequently, it ignores the interests of any other group in general and in this case learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in particular. It is a top-down, submersion approach to policy making that engenders well-nigh impossible challenges for Afaan Oromoo speakers in the two selected primary schools used for this research in Addis Ababa.

The study by Heugh et al. (2007:67) provides clear evidence that particular learning outcomes are associated with the extent to which mother tongues have been successfully used in education in Ethiopia. The Ethiopian experience demonstrates that theoretically sound MLE can enhance school results in multilingual countries (Heugh et al. ibid.). Despite these recorded successes and the fact that decentralised educational decision-making has made it possible for semi-autonomous regional states to choose regional

and/or local languages as LoLT, the language-in-education policy of Addis Ababa recognises only Amharic as LoLT; although in June 2017 Afaan Oromoo was declared the second LoLT in Addis Ababa. Added to these indigenous languages (Amharic/Afaan Oromoo) is English which is used as LoLT from secondary school. English according to the 1994 constitution, will be taught as a subject in primary schools and will be used as LoLT for secondary and high schools (see 2.4.2/Table 2.3). French and Italian are only used as LoLT in some schools which are not in the main educational structure of Ethiopia. The curriculum used in these schools do not reflect the national curriculum used in formal schools in Ethiopia (see 2.5 and 2.6).

Key factors that seem to prevent learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa from enjoying the benefits of MTE in Ethiopia are pointed out below: the dominance of Amharic in Addis Ababa, a subtractive approach to MTE, a top-down model of MTE, LPP and perceived negative effects of the free promotion policy.

7.2.3.1 The Dominance of Amharic

The choice of Amharic as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa relates to the dominance of Amharic in Ethiopia. While it is true that in Addis Ababa itself, where close to 80 local languages are used, Amharic is the mother tongue of only 28% of the population, many sources attest to the historical and present dominance of this language. (Yohannes, 2005; Cohen, 2007; Heugh et al, 2007; 2010; Akalu, 2011; Roseman, 2018).

The functional dominance of Amharic in the natural scheme of things in Ethiopia is echoed by Gobana (2014:42). He argues that the supremacy of Amharic dictates that anyone who wishes for a meaningful participation in the national affairs must learn to speak and write in Amharic. Other compelling sources attesting to the dominance of Amharic include Woldemariam, 2007; Sibilu, 2015 and Benson & Kosonen, 2010.

Consequently, the amount of pressure imposed on minority language learners to shift to Amharic as LoLT is unbearable. Learners who speak languages other than Amharic are expected to accept Amharic as LoLT not least because it is supposedly “a gate way” to economic empowerment in the future. Interviews with learners (see Fig 5.1) demonstrate a choiceless acceptance of Amharic as LoLT suggesting that MTE policy in Addis Ababa does not take cognisance of the presence of learners who speak languages other than Amharic and the implications of an unfamiliar LoLT on learners and teachers of a multilingual class.

Further evidenced in this study is the negative effect of the dominance of Amharic on Afaan Oromoo speaking parents. These parents complain but at the same time tend to condone the systemic erosion of the rights of their children to learn in Afaan Oromoo despite their inability to assist children with school work. Their consolation is that the mere thought of letting their child study in Amharic and become bilingual gives great satisfaction; moreover, Amharic represents a guarantee for an economic break-through in the future. In this regard, parents consider it needless to challenge the status quo and impress on policy makers the desperate need to revise the language-in-education policy in favour of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in Addis Ababa.

7.2.3.2 Subtractive instead of an additive approach to MTE.

The approach to MTB-MLE in Addis Ababa serves a subtractive rather than an additive purpose. Through powerful arguments, Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty (2008:172) paint a vivid picture of multilingual classes in Addis Ababa. They maintain that a subtractive approach to education occurs when linguistic minority children with a low-status mother tongue (in the present case, Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in some schools) are forced to accept instruction through an alien majority/official/dominant language as LoLT (Amharic) in classes where the teacher may or may not understand the minority mother tongue. The choiceless acceptance of Amharic as LoLT in some primary schools in Addis Ababa fits into this category of learners

who experience a subtractive approach to education or better still a submission model of education as described by Skutnabb-Kangas (2000). Also see 2.9.2.

This approach to MLE in Addis Ababa has led to an inactive, low self-esteem and lack of confidence species of learners. They are disengaged, disaffected and demotivated. As a result, there is a huge increase in early school drop-out and/or an eventual failure in the first regional exams in Grade 8 among Afaan Oromoo learners in selected schools in Addis Ababa. An additive model of education on the other hand permits the learner to learn a new language in addition to the mother tongue which continues to be developed. This approach to education guarantees cognitive development for learners if their L1 is maintained to help in the mastery of content in L2. This explains why speakers of Amharic as L1 in Addis Ababa if compared to learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo among learners of the research group, are seen as having benefitted vastly more from primary education because they only need to learn one new language, English (Benson, 2009).

7.2.3.3 Top-down instead of a bottom-up MTE policy and planning

The language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa fits a well-nigh top-down instead of a bottom-up model. A top-down approach to language policy and planning involves decision-making at the national level, and governments solving complex problems as their point of departure (Ndlovu 2013:42). According to Webb (2008:5), language planning has always been seen as a top-down process formulated, implemented and managed by those in power with the aim of allocating language to official functions thus controlling peoples' language behaviour in public domains. The top-down approach to language planning policy has actually been very successful in Addis Ababa as demonstrated by the dominance of Amharic in Ethiopia. Despite the successful implementation of MTE in Ethiopia, the presence of hundreds of immigrant children who speak languages other than Amharic in Addis

Ababa makes the effective implementation of MTE in the capital city very challenging.

This study revealed that the bottom-up approach to language planning which is community rooted, is communicative of the needs of the speakers of the languages in question, and is representative of the views of those directly affected, (Webb 2009). This is not reflected in the language-in-education policy planning of selected schools in Addis Ababa. The views and opinions of all teachers and parents who deal directly with Afaan Oromoo speaking learners on a daily basis were not taken into consideration before now. This probably led to the choice of Amharic as the only LoLT before 2017. Spolsky (2004:44) echoes the importance of a bottom-up LPP when he points out that if the perspective of the grass root sector is consulted there will be a deeper analysis and appreciation on the occurrence of LPP.

7.2.3.4 The negative effects of the free promotion policy

Findings from this study also reveal that the “free promotion” policy that allows all learners to be promoted from Grade 1 up till Grade 4 has negative effects on learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo. A report on the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP), ‘Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap (2018-30)’ by the ministry of education (2018) presents an evaluation of the language-in-education policy from 2013 and looks at the way forward from 2018. According to this report, there has been poor practice of continuous assessment in the learning and teaching process in primary schools. A majority of learners tend to have little motivation, interest and commitment in their education (Ministry of Education 2018:16). No mention is made of an assessment of the free promotion policy. The way forward according to this document (*ibid*: 19) states that:

-the assessment of Grades 1-6 will be aligned with the learning activities (contents) and learning outcomes. Minimum learning competencies should

be checked at every grade level and diagnostic assessment should be introduced to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the learner.

-prepare and administer regional exams at the end of primary school in Grade 6.

-prepare and administer national exams at the end of Grade 8.

-prepare primary education promotion policy at the regional level.

No mention is made of **the cancellation** of the free promotion policy that allows all learners to be promoted from Grade 1 up till Grade 4 in all primary schools in Addis Ababa.

To further confirm the current practice of the free promotion policy in primary schools in Ethiopia, the researcher conducted an interview with a Grade 3 Science teacher from Marie school (interviewed on the 28th of January 2019). During this interview, the teacher confirmed that the free promotion policy that allows all learners to be promoted from Grade 1 up till Grade 4 is still been practised in the school. Interviews with administrators from the Addis Ababa education bureau (interviewed on 25th of January 2019) also confirmed this fact.

According to an overwhelming majority of teachers, the free promotion policy is part of the reason why learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo perform well below expectations in Grade 4 (see Table 5.10). Gibbons (2002:11) argues that pedagogically it is necessary to start school from where the children are. The starting point of learning how to read and write is the language spoken (and understood) by the children. The free promotion policy guarantees promotion of learners from Grade 1-4 without proper assessment of who deserves a meaningful promotion. Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in Grade 4 in this case are unable to read and write to the expected minimum level in Amharic.

These findings portray a policy that encourages “free riding” right up to Grade 4 where reality sets in and learners are unable to succeed in exams. According to Obanya (2003:131), seeking, using and giving information are the essential parts of the process of learning and are usually carried out through language. If Afaan Oromo speaking learners do not speak, cannot read and write properly in Grade 4, it means that the free promotion policy is potentially causing more harm than good to learners whose primary language is not Amharic. Implied is the fact that promoting these learners on the assumption that moving to the next class will bring a “feel good” factor, motivate them to work even harder and thereby automatically improve on their performance is not proven by assessment outcomes in Grade 4.

7.2.4 Feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa

This section is concerned with the fourth research question (what are the feasibility constraints of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa?). Although the new language-in-education policy framework of Ethiopia legislates a philosophy of education for all and preaches a curriculum that promotes MTE and inclusivity, there remains a challenge at the level of implementation. The 1994 declaration of the right to MLE for every child in Ethiopia suggested that the language-in-education policy makers of every region had to be mindful of the best policy decisions that will ensure the successful implementation of MLE in Ethiopia.

Findings from this study reveal that certain key factors still hinder the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa. These are discussed below: the need to revise the language-in-education policy, the presence of too many languages, the need for a review of teacher training and factors surrounding allocation of resources.

7.2.4.1 The need to revise the language-in-education policy in selected schools in Addis Ababa

Emerging from the analysis of the data collected for this study was the clear need to revise the language-in-education policy of Addis Ababa. That the policy is indeed changing, is heart-warming.

The challenges faced by learners who speak only Afaan Oromo in selected schools in Addis Ababa and the pressure on teachers to assist immigrant learners whose primary language is not Amharic in multilingual classes, support the policy change. The exclusive use of Amharic in administrative, social and educational systems in Addis Ababa has mounted pressure on parents and learners to shift to Amharic at the expense of their first language.

It also emerged from the study that a lack of political will on the side of the government until fairly recently (see 2.7) to ensure a revision of the language-in-education policy of Addis Ababa was reflected in the seemingly lack of interest or reluctance to dispatch experts to follow-up classroom activities in multilingual classes. Also, there seemed to be a reluctance to effectively evaluate the extent to which every child enjoys and benefits from MTB-MLE as the constitution stipulates.

It must be noted that language-in-education policy makers in Addis Ababa have been aware of the imbalance and challenges caused by using only Amharic as LoLT in Addis Ababa for some time (Getachew, 2006:34). The consequences of using only one language as LoLT in such a multilingual town like Addis Ababa have too serious consequences. Over the years, the political will by the government to address these challenges has been weak. Only fairly recently, (June 2017) after the researcher had completed her data collection and analysis, the Ethiopian Council of Ministers announced the introduction of Afaan Oromoo as a second LoLT in primary schools in Addis Ababa (Agence de Presse Africaine. (APA)) (See 2.7). With the introduction of Afaan Oromoo as second LoLT in Addis Ababa, a push on

the government on the need to effect proper learning and teaching conditions in the newly created schools in Addis Ababa will be necessary. Effective implementation can only be assured if the government puts in place proper infrastructure, train more teachers and provides teaching and learning materials for the newly opened schools.

The findings presented below rest on the interviews and focus group discussions with administrators, parents and learners of the research group. These participants were interviewed in 2015/2016 when there existed no schools in Addis Ababa that used Afaan Oromoo as LoLT. The following sections must therefore be seen as reflecting past views. These views are important to record within the context of this study.

7.2.4.2 The presence of too many languages

Another finding which emerged from this study, as in many other African countries, is the presence of too many languages. Worthy of note is the fact that Ethiopia is characterised by cultural pluralism where there are anywhere around 80 ethno-linguistic groups. Ethiopia has always been and remains a multi-ethnic, multicultural and multilingual society (Dereje 2010). The migration of families from all other regions into Addis Ababa makes the linguistic diversity of this capital city more difficult to manage.

A rise in linguistic diversity, according to the European Commission (2008:8), should be approached in a positive manner, as a resource that should be tapped for the successful implementation of multilingualism and not to be seen as an obstacle. Contrary to the views of these researchers (Dereje 2010, Ouane & Glanz 2010, European Commission 2008), the sheer range of languages in Addis Ababa seems to be a complex issue in itself. It appears that the language-in-education policy makers consider this linguistic diversity an obstacle instead of a resource to the successful implementation of MTE in Addis Ababa.

Emerging from this study is the fact that introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in separate schools or in a two-stream system might give room to more confusion in already confused multilingual classrooms. This is because there will always be learners who will speak languages different from the two languages of learning and teaching (Amharic & Afaan Oromoo) and a cry for inclusion from these learners. This might also mean discrimination with serious political consequences. Ouane & Glanz (2011:182) observe that if the language-in-education policy of any country should apply a meaningful multilingual approach to learning, that is, learning in which language is recognized as an integral part of a learner's cultural identity and the most important factor in the learning process; the implementation of that policy must take cognizance of the linguistic diversity of the learners. Implied is the fact that the presence of too many languages in Addis Ababa should serve as a resource rather than a hindrance to the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other languages as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa.

7.2.4.3 Teacher training

Findings from this study reveal that introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in all primary schools in Addis Ababa is not feasible without the training of teachers. The successful implementation of MLE includes the support of all stakeholders with appropriate human and material resources (Rubagumya, 2006). A feasible constraint of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in all primary schools in Addis Ababa is the absence of trained teachers with the appropriate skills of teaching and managing multilingual classes. Rubagumya (2006) echoes this view when he points out that trained teachers in the field of MTB-MLE can positively influence the learning process inn the classroom. Mulatu, Basha and Abera (2013) also maintain that trained bi/multilingual teachers who are fluent and proficient in a language of instruction are those needed in the classrooms where learners from various backgrounds attend school. Presently, only 30% of teachers speak Afaan Oromoo as L1 in the selected

schools of this study implying that more teachers would have to be trained if Afaan Oromoo were to be introduced as LoLT in Addis Ababa.

Gobana (2014:277) discovered that the number of teachers who can use Afaan Oromoo as LoLT in primary schools in Oromia are not sufficient especially in rural schools. Implied is a shortage of teachers who can effectively teach through Afaan Oromoo in Oromia Regional State where Afaan Oromoo is already the LoLT. A feasible constraint for the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa is the need for an in-service training for teachers who are already in the field and the training of in-coming teachers. This training should incorporate the appropriate skills of managing and teaching multilingual classes. Teaching through mother tongue is not an easy task for teachers. It requires innovative teaching skills which calls for creativity and appropriate methods of teaching because it builds a foundation for the teaching and learning of other languages (Cummins, 2001:22; Rubagumya, 2006, Alidou 2004).

7.2.4.4 Allocation of Resources

Another finding regards the availability of resources that would facilitate the revising and implementation of a new language-in-education policy. The allocation of resources for the training of teachers, building of new schools and the increase and expansion of learning and teaching materials can make it possible for other languages to be introduced as LoLT in Addis Ababa. Gobana (2014: 279) suggest that if the government could provide teaching materials like teachers' guides, students' textbooks and reference books in the mother tongue, this could facilitate learning and teaching.

Teshome (2003) clearly states that the policy provides only a 'broad outline' of the educational language policy goals but the policy does not provide for 'budgetary, human and physical resources'. In order for the government to supply all these resources, a financial and logistical plan must be put in place to effectively carry out the execution.

7.3. Summary of the research findings

The findings, based on the empirical data of the study, can be summarised as follows:

- The use of Amharic as the only LoLT in Addis Ababa in selected schools in Addis Ababa prevents immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic from developing psychologically, socially and cognitively and reaching their full potential to achieve academic success.
- Code switching, learner translation, teaching aids and classroom demonstrations are the current teaching strategies that facilitate communication and sometimes help learners to understand subject content. However, these teaching strategies fall short and are not adequate to help learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo amongst learners of the research group to develop cognitively.
- MTE that only includes Amharic as LoLT in selected schools does not serve the interests of those immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic in Addis Ababa because the approach to learning serves a subtractive rather than an additive purpose in education.
- Conspicuously lacking in most of the research carried out in Ethiopia has been classroom data exploring the use of language in the learning situation. Through classroom observations, insights into current teaching strategies used to assist learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo in selected schools in Addis Ababa have been revealed.
- The language-in-education policy and planning in Addis Ababa seems to lack consultation, collaboration and coordination between the top and the bottom; suggesting a policy that appears to ignore the interests of the community of Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in the selected schools in Addis Ababa.
- Introducing Afaan Oromoo as a second LoLT in Addis Ababa was a step in the right direction by the government but it is yet to be

effectively implemented. The lack of trained teachers, insufficient resources and the presence of many languages in Addis Ababa makes effective learning and teaching in the newly opened schools difficult (see 2.7).

7.4 Contribution

This study contributes to a growing body of literature on MTB-MLE and language policy and planning, especially in Africa, in several ways:

- It helps to fill the gap in the literature that deals with immigrant learners who speak languages other than Amharic and are going through their early years of schooling in Addis Ababa.
- It contributes to a better understanding of the diverse challenges these learners face and the need for effective change in the language-in-education policy in all of Addis Ababa that will respect and consider the rights of all children to learn in their MT as stipulated by the 1994 constitution.
- As is clear from the interpretation of the data in Chapter 5, the study calls for attention on the plight of some immigrant learners from Oromia Regional State in Addis Ababa and suggests that the government should consider a ‘bottom-up’ language policy that will include the opinions of teachers and parents of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo.
- The study contributes to the area of teaching strategies used in multilingual classes. It points to a gap in the practical use of language in a learning situation in Addis Ababa. By doing so, it contributes to a better understanding of how different teaching strategies are used in multilingual classes in Addis Ababa.
- The importance of well-trained teachers in the field of MTB-MLE who can teach and manage multilingual classes is brought to light.

- The development, training and ability of teachers to deal with diversity are highlighted and more research is suggested.
- The study points to some yet unexplored angles for future research, like dealing with diversity from teachers' perspectives in multilingual classrooms in Addis Ababa.
- The study also points to a gap in the way policy has been implemented in terms of serving the interests of immigrant learners from diverse cultures and backgrounds going through their primary education in Addis Ababa. It will serve as an eye opener to some on key factors which indicate that only Amharic speaking children in the schools selected for this research actually benefit from the present approach to MLE in Addis Ababa, while at the same time praising the current developments in Addis Ababa.

Finally, this study will contribute to the area of policy implementation by highlighting certain key factors that have hitherto prevented the introduction of Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in all schools in Addis Ababa. These factors hinder certain immigrant learners from using their primary languages in the learning process and points to a gap in the effective implementation of MTE throughout Addis Ababa. Although the study does not deny that changes are taking place, its focus and data point to the dominance of Amharic in Addis Ababa. This is to be expected, but the possible implication for the effective implementation of MTB-MLE in Ethiopia and especially in Addis Ababa might be investigated further.

7.5 Limitations of the study

Like all research, this study had certain limitations that prevented it from gaining complete and thorough insights into the research problem. The limitations are mentioned below.

The need for an interpreter from the very beginning of the research did not only mean some information might have been transmitted wrongly but the cost of hiring one was not easy for the researcher to bear.

Considered to be a very sensitive topic at the moment in Ethiopia, the present political tensions between the Oromia Regional State and Amhara region prevented some participants from divulging certain detailed information. Furthermore, the political tensions between these two regions was part of the reason why permission to video or audio record classroom observations was not granted. This meant the researcher could only take down detailed notes. Audio and video recordings which add creditability to research like this one were of necessity absent. Nevertheless, with the help of the interpreter detailed notes of all interviews and classroom procedures were taken down in a notebook.

7.6. Recommendations

Based on the results and findings of this study I propose the following recommendations:

1. That the current approach to MLE in Addis Ababa that allows only Amharic to be used as LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa be revised and replaced with an option to work towards an additive approach to multilingualism as discussed in (3.10.3). In this case, the MTs of some immigrant learners will be kept and used as LoLT throughout the educational system (Heugh, 2006). This approach allows learners to be introduced to a second language (or even more languages) but the second language will not replace the primary language in education; rather, it will complement the primary language throughout primary education. (Heugh et al., 1995: vii).
2. That there is need for the promotion of a friendly learning and teaching environment in the multilingual classroom in Addis Ababa. A friendly environment created by the teacher encourages a child to talk in class;

this begins with allowing children to speak a language they speak and understand very well (first language). Cabansag (2016:6) confirms that when learners enter the portals of the classroom carrying with them insights of the first language, they will be able to understand better, enjoy more and will be highly motivated to attend classes because they understand the language used inside the classroom. This will in turn develop high self-esteem and confidence in the learners.

3. That there is also need for an adequate training of new teachers and in-service training for teachers who are already in the field. These programmes should incorporate new strategies on how to deal with multilingual classes. The training programmes should comprehend the specific requirements for MLE and allow teachers to use different teaching strategies that will facilitate learning for both dominant and minority language speakers.
4. That the language-in-education policy in Ethiopia should adopt a 'bottom-up' approach to MLE for all schools in Addis Ababa which should include the selected schools that have been used for this research. Webb (2009) recommends a 'bottom-up' LPP which begins from the community and includes the opinions of parents and teachers who are directly concerned with the users of the language. The background and socio-economic conditions of learners should be a vital consideration for the choice of a LoLT. In this way, the interest of learners who are directly concerned with learning in the language is taken into consideration (Ricento & Hornberger: 2006). Also, the opinions of teachers and parents who are directly concerned from the community will be considered for the effective implementation of education policies in Addis Ababa.
5. That the 'free promotion policy' practice in all primary schools which allows all learners to be promoted from Grade 1 to Grade 4 should be abolished. This policy does not serve the interests of learners who

speak languages other than Amharic. These learners often fail, repeat or drop out of school in Grade 4 where there is no free promotion.

6. That the language-in-education policy in Addis Ababa should reconsider the LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa if the rights of all learners are to be respected as stipulated by UNESCO (2000:08). To begin with, Afaan Oromoo can be introduced as LoLT alongside Amharic in a two-stream system in the two selected schools for this research and any other schools along the borders of Addis Ababa and Oromia. In this way MTE will serve the interests of hundreds of immigrant learners from Oromia who speak only Afaan Oromoo. While this is being done, better plans on how to include other languages as LoLT that will guarantee success for all learners should be in process.

7.7. Conclusion

This study has attempted to investigate the case of immigrant children who speak only Afaan Oromoo in the research group but are using Amharic as LoLT and going through their primary education in Addis Ababa. Practical observations on the use of the LoLT in a learning situation highlighted the educational challenges children face in the classroom as they struggle to learn a new language and at the same time use the language for learning. An analysis of the current teaching strategies used by teachers to assist Afaan Oromoo speaking learners in these schools has also been carried out in this study. The extent to which MTE serves the interests of learners whose primary language is not Amharic has also been examined. The possibility of revising the language-in-education policy to include Afaan Oromoo or any other language as a LoLT in selected schools in Addis Ababa has been examined in this study.

A vast review of related literature that establishes the research that has already been done in the world, in Africa, and particularly in Ethiopia has been carried out in this study. This study explores the divergent views of

researchers in the field of LPP, MTB-MLE and the medium of instruction used in primary schools in the world, in Africa and in Ethiopia. Spolsky's (2004, 2011) theory of language policy supported by Ricento and Hornberger's (2006) LPP, Cummins' threshold and interdependence theories (1978), bilingual education models by Skuttnab-Kangas and Garcia (1995), additive and subtractive bilingualism (Skuttnabb-Kangas, 1988 & Luckett, 1993) are the four main theories and conceptual frame works that form the basis on which this study has been analysed and interpreted.

Designed as a case study, the research focused on one sub-city (Bole sub-city) in Addis Ababa. In this sub-city, two schools from the Ayart district whose population is made up of mainly children from the Oromia Regional State were selected for this study. The mixed concurrent/triangulation research design which integrates or connects the qualitative and quantitative research designs have been used for this study. Four different research instruments were used for the collection and presentation of data for this study: interviews, classroom observations, questionnaires, and focus group discussions. Data for learners' interviews and teachers' questionnaires were collected quantitatively while data for administrator's interviews, classroom observations and focus group discussions were collected qualitatively. The mixed research design enabled the researcher to merge qualitative and quantitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem.

Data collected through questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations and focused group discussions is presented as contributing towards answering the research questions. In connection to the literature reviewed and theories of this study, the data presented was analysed and interpreted in accordance with the aims, objectives and research questions of this study. The findings of the study, contributions of the research to the field of MTB-MLE education and further research, the limitations of the study and recommendations based on the research findings have been presented in this last chapter of the study.

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APPENDICES

Appendix.1: Data collection Instruments

Classroom observation sheet.

Learners' Interview

1. How old are?
 2. Which language do you speak at home (your first language)?
 3. How many languages do you speak?
 4. From which part of Ethiopia do you come from.... Amhara, Oromia or from another area?
 5. Who takes care of you at home...Your mother, father or another person?
 6. Do you like learning in Amharic...Why.
 7. Do you understand the lesson when the teacher?
 - a. Speaks in Afaan Oromoo
 - b. Calls on another learner to explain the lesson in Afaan Oromoo
 - c. Uses different objects and demonstrations to explain
 - d. Reads from the textbook and explains
 8. Are you shy or feel confident during lessons to ask and answer questions?

9. Do you always complete your homework at home?
 - a. Do you receive assistance from your parents or siblings to do homework?
10. Choose between Amharic and Afaan Oromoo...which one would you like to use and learn in school.... Why?

Administrator's Interview

1. How old are you?
2. For how long have you been working in this service?
3. How many languages do you speak?
4. What is your highest academic qualification?
5. To which ethnic group do you belong?
6. How important is mother tongue education in the early years of a child's life and how successful do you think it has been in Ethiopia?
7. What challenges do you think learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo face as they use Amharic to learn?
8. What are the current teaching strategies used by teachers in multilingual classes in Addis Ababa?
9. How does mother tongue education serve the interest of learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo?
10. Is there any possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as language of learning and teaching in Addis Ababa?

Teachers' Questionnaires

Dear respondent

This questionnaire is intended to investigate the challenges learners who speak only Afaan Oromoo face in the classroom, the different teaching strategies used in teaching and the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as language of teaching and learning in Addis Ababa. You need not write your name or any other identification. The information given by you will be kept as confidential, and will be used only for this

research. Please be honest in your response. Thanks for your willingness to participate and support this research.

1. Personal Information

Fill in the spaces provided or circle one of the given alternatives.

S/N	Description	Response
1	Sex	Female/Male
2	Age	
3	Your ethnic group	Oromo/Amhara/others
4	For how many years have you been teaching?	
5	How many languages do you speak? And name them	
6	What is your current educational level	Masters/First degree/Diploma/TTI (10+1 or 12+1)

2. Your views on MT Education and its Success in Ethiopia (Q 7- 14):

Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

N/o	Statements	Teachers Response		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure
7	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue in primary schools enhance learning achievement			
8	Learning and Teaching in the first language in primary schools limits learner's world and hinders understanding of subjects			
9	Learning and Teaching through mother tongue increases learner's participation in class			
10	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue destroys learner's self confidence			
11	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue increases dropout & repetition of classes			
12	Learning and Teaching in mother tongue enables the child to learn additional languages			
13	Mother tongue has been very successful in Addis Ababa			
14	Mother tongue has hinder the success of many learners in Addis Ababa			

**3. Your Preference on English/Amharic as Language of LoLT and Why
(Q 15-17):**

Fill in Agree, Disagree or Not sure in the spaces provided.

N/o	Statements	Number	%
15	I prefer to use Amharic as LoLT because mother tongue education allows the child to use their first language in school		
16	I prefer to use English as because it is a global language with better opportunities		
17	Not sure		

4. Your attitude towards English as LoLT from Grade 9 and in higher institutions (Q 18- 22): Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

No.	Statements	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Not sure (%)
18	The switch from MT to English in Grade 9 is necessary because English is a global language			
19	The switch from MT to English in Grade 9 is not necessary because learners are not able to handle the switch			
20	Learners can handle the switch in Grade 9 and they cope very well			
21	The use of English as LoLT from Grade 9 has affected MT as LoLT in primary schools			
22	The switch from English to MT should be in Grade 4			

5 Your attitude towards Amharic as the only LoLT in primary schools in Addis Ababa. (Q. 23-24): Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

S/N	Statement	Yes	No
23	Amharic should be the only LoLT in Addis Ababa		
24	Amharic should be the only LoLT in Addis Ababa because it is the common language of communication		

6 Your views on the challenges Afaan Oromoo learners face in the classroom (Q 25-29). Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box

No.	Statements	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
25	Afaan Oromoo learners can easily be identified during lessons because they shy away from classroom activities			
26	Afaan Oromoo learners do not participate freely during lessons			
27	Afaan Oromoo learners lack self-confidence or self-esteem at the beginning of grade 1 because of language barrier			
28	Afaan Oromoo learners find reading and writing in Amharic very difficult			
29	AFAAN Oromoo learners do not do their homework			

7 Your views on the policy of free promotion from Grade 1 to Grade 4 in primary schools in Addis Ababa (30-33): Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

No.	Statement	Yes (%)	No (%)
30	Free promotion is good and encourages children to work hard		
31	Free promotion gives learners a positive attitude towards working hard and success in school		
32	Free promotion affects the performance of learners from Grade 4 positively		
33	Free promotion should be discontinued in primary schools		

8. Your views on the idea of an in-service training for teachers of multilingual classes (Q 34-37): Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

No.	Statement	Yes	No	Not sure
34	On-job training will be good because it will develop teachers' skills			
35	A period of two weeks and more will be necessary for the training			
36	On-job training will develop teachers' awareness and creativity on how to use different teaching materials			
37	On job training will serve as motivation for teachers to teach multilingual classes			

9. Different teaching strategies teachers use to help Afaan Oromoo learners in the classroom (Q 38-41): Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

No.	Statement	Yes	No
38	I make use of teaching aids and classroom demonstrations when I teach		
39	I make use of group and pair work during lessons		
40	I use other learners to translate to Afaan Oromoo during lessons		
41	I code switch to Afaan Oromoo during lessons		

10. Teachers' views on the possibility of introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa (Q 42-44): Select your response from the given alternatives and put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
42	I think introducing Afaan Oromoo or any other language as LoLT in Addis Ababa is possible			
43	The presence of huge numbers of learners who speak languages other than Amharic is a good reason for the government to introduce any other language as LoLT			
44	There are political or religious reasons why the government cannot introduce AFAAN Oromoo as other LoLT in Addis Ababa			