



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

**PUBLISHING IN ENGLISH AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCHERS AND
HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN MULTILINGUAL CONTEXTS IN
AFRICA: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY**

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THIS THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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ABSTRACT

African universities are often considered teaching-intensive as opposed to being research-oriented. More recently, however, some flagship universities are focusing on becoming more research-intensive. Against this backdrop, and taking the case of two flagship universities in Ethiopia and Mozambique, this multidisciplinary PhD research investigates the major English language-related issues that have implications for research publishing. A particular focus is given to concerns about the English language with the argument that although the language serves as a gateway through which universities and researchers join global knowledge systems, the implications of its use for multilingual scholars, especially in African contexts where the language is additional or foreign remain under-investigated. Semi-structured in-depth interviews with 40 academic staff members and university leaders across career stages and disciplines inform the analysis of the study. Bibliometric data from Scopus is used to assess language and research publishing landscapes, provide a robust case description and support the primarily qualitative study. A theoretical framework is adopted from Bourdieu's views on language as cultural capital, and perspectives are drawn from rethinking higher education in terms of decolonisation to provide comprehensive coverage of the multi-faceted research objectives.

The findings suggest that English is perceived as both an asset and a liability among researchers in both case study universities. Impacts on research quality, quantity and access to research-related capital varied depending on subjective understandings of these dimensions and perceived levels of individual and collective English language capital. Disciplinary differences were also noted in the overall assessment of the research topic. In addition, this exploratory study highlighted the need to assess the impacts of English for research and publication purposes (ERPP) in relation to other core university functions such as teaching and learning and university-community engagement. The results also reveal that ERPP needs to be assessed in relation to other contextual variables that impact overall research production. Although the application of Bourdieu and decolonial perspectives provided a strong and nuanced theoretical lens for the study, the results demonstrated the need to complement the perspectives with theories with greater explanatory powers of the material conditions and cultural economy of knowledge production.

KEYWORDS

Higher education

Research

Publishing

English language

English for research and publication purposes

Bourdieu

Linguistic capital

Language and decolonisation



DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis entitled, *Publishing in English and its Implications for Researchers and Higher Education Institutions in Multilingual Contexts in Africa: A Multiple Case Study*, is my work and has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university. I also declare that all the sources that I used or cited have been indicated and duly acknowledged by complete referencing.

Addisalem Tebikew Yallew



August 2023



ACADEMIC OUTPUT RELATED TO THIS THESIS

I make an additional declaration that the following publications and conference presentations were made in relation to the thesis and that some of the published content has been incorporated in Chapters One, Two and Three.

Peer-reviewed publications:

- Yallem, A. T. (2019). The Expanding use of the English language for research and its implications for higher education institutions and researchers. *Journal of Comparative & International Higher Education*, 11, 209–212.
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- Yallem, A. T., Langa, P. V., & Nkhoma, N. (2021). English language in African higher education: A systematic review. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 39(1), 5–29. <https://doi.org/10.2989/16073614.2021.1914695>
- Yallem, A. T., & Dipitso, P. O. (2021). Higher education research in African contexts: Reflections from fieldwork in flagship universities in South Africa, Mozambique and Ethiopia. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 41(3), 967–980.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2021.1877626>
- Lwandle, N., & Yallem, A. T. (2021). Towards enablers of decolonisation of the curriculum in universities in South Africa. In L. Sosibo & E. Ivala (Eds), *Creating effective teaching and learning spaces: Shaping futures and envisioning unity in diversity and transformation* (pp. 211–227). Vernon Press.
- Yallem, A.T., & Dereb, A. (2022). Ethiopian-affiliated research in Scopus and Web of Science: A bibliometric mapping. *Bahir Dar Journal of Education*, 21(2), 22–46.
<https://journals.bdu.edu.et/index.php/bje/article/view/924>
- Yallem A. T., & Diptiso, P. O. (forthcoming, 2023). Language and employability in international higher education research: A scoping review. In A. Wiseman (Ed.), *Annual review of comparative and international education 2022*. Emerald Publishing Limited.

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- Yallem, A. T., & Chetty, R. (2023). *Publishing in English and multilingual scholars in African contexts: Quality-related concerns*. 16th Multi-disciplinary Conference of the AUGent Africa Platform on Knowledge production, Research Ethics and Authorship in African Contexts, Cape Town, South Africa.
- Yallem, A. T. (2022). *Language and research publishing: Towards creating multilingual research ecosystems and cultures*. South African Society for Critical Theory 4th Annual Conference, Potchefstroom, South Africa.
- Yallem, A.T. (2022). *Language, research publishing and technology: An assessment of opportunities and challenges*. 9th South African Education Research Association (SAERA), Cape Town, South Africa.
- Yallem, A.T. (2022). *Language, knowledge production and decoloniality: Perspectives from a university in Ethiopia*. Association for African Studies in Germany (VAD) Conference, Freiburg, Germany.
- Yallem A.T., & Dereb, A. (2022). *Ethiopian-affiliated research in Scopus and Web of Science: A bibliometric mapping*. 3rd Higher Education Forum for Africa, Asia and Latin America (HEFAALA) Symposium and 20th International Conference on Higher Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Yallem, A. T. (2019). *Decolonising higher education in Africa: Perspectives from recent literature*. 32nd Annual Conference of the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER), Kassel, Germany.
- Yallem, A.T. (2019). *English Language capital and its implications for research universities and researchers in Africa: The case of three flagship universities*. 63rd Annual Conference of the Comparative and International Higher Education Society (CIES), San Francisco, USA.

- Yallem, A. T. (2019). *Exploring the implications of using English for research and knowledge production: Perspectives from universities in Ethiopia and Mozambique*. “Pedagogies in Context” Conference of the Higher Education Learning and Teaching Association of South Africa (HELTASA), Rhodes University, South Africa.
- Yallem, A. T. (2018). *English as a lingua franca of Higher Education: A Bourdieusian Perspective*. Sixth biennial Power Conference on Power & Governance: Forms, Dynamics, Consequences Conference, University of Tampere, Finland.



DEDICATION

In loving memory of my beloved mother, Messelech Derib Ibssa

You were my unwavering cheerleader, encouraging me to pursue knowledge, wisdom and excellence, እምረ. Your unyielding belief in my potential instilled in me the courage to embark on this journey and persist through all its challenges. The seeds of curiosity and passion for learning that you sowed in me have blossomed into the pursuit of higher learning.



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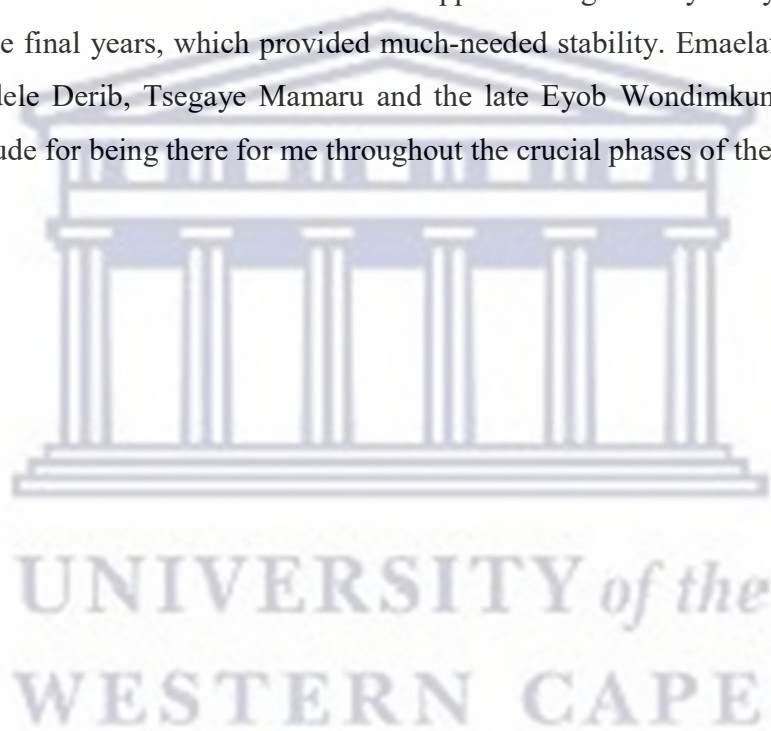
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AAU	Addis Ababa University
AI	Artificial intelligence
APC	Article processing charges
ARUA	African Research Universities Alliance
EMI	English medium instruction
ERP	English for research and publishing
ERPP	English for research and publication purposes
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
HERANA	The Higher Education Research and Advocacy Network in Africa
HSSREC	Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee
MoE	Ministry of Education (of Ethiopia)
MoSHE	Ministry of Science and Higher Education (of Ethiopia)
NPHS	National Population and Housing Survey (of Mozambique)
UEM	Eduardo Mondlane University
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNPF	United Nations Population Fund
UWC	University of the Western Cape
WoS	Web of Science

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ¹

1.1. Introduction

The knowledge era has made universities one of the central institutions for the production of new knowledge (Douglass, 2016). In line with this development, many African universities, which were often regarded as teaching-learning laden (Atuahene, 2011; Mavhunga, 2017), are now reorienting their missions to embrace research intensiveness as one of their aspirations. This study on the use of the English language for research publishing in selected flagship universities in Ethiopia and Mozambique is conducted against a backdrop where questions related to the research function of universities are becoming more central not only to higher education institutions but to higher education research pertaining to the continent (Cloete et al., 2015; Van Schalkwyk & Cloete, 2019).

Relevant to informing this study, some research has already been conducted to address challenges related to the transition of African universities into becoming more research-oriented (e.g. Altbach, 2013; Cloete et al., 2018, 2022; Moshi, 2022). Initiatives inspired by African and international agencies have also been undertaken in the past decade. The Higher Education Research and Advocacy Network in Africa (HERANA) and The African Research Universities Association (ARUA) are two of the significant initiatives that are aimed at facilitating the transition and differentiation of some national universities into active agents of knowledge production and research (Cloete et al., 2015). This study explores research publishing in flagship universities from a linguistic vantage point by selecting universities with an explicit research-driven agenda belonging to either the ARUA (Addis Ababa University) or HERANA (Eduardo Mondlane University) networks.

¹ A version of this chapter is published as Yallew, A. T. (2019). The Expanding use of the English language for research and its implications for higher education institutions and researchers. *Journal of Comparative and International Higher Education*, 11, 209–212.

In addition to being purposively selected as case studies to investigate the English language and its implications for researchers and research universities in Africa, it is noteworthy to indicate that the two higher education institutions embrace this quest for research intensiveness in their mission and vision statements. Addis Ababa University “has recently welcomed a new vision of becoming a pre-eminent research university in Africa” (AAU, n.d.). Eduardo Mondlane aspires “To be national, regional and international reference university in the production and dissemination of scientific knowledge as well as innovation, highlighting research as the foundation of teaching and learning processes, extension and outreach activities” (UEM, n.d.).

Questions related to language are deemed worthy of exploring when addressing public flagship universities’ global and continental standing on the one hand and local research intensity and relevance on the other. The quest for international standing while at the same time maintaining a sense of national and regional identity (in which language choice is an aspect) seems to be one of the contemporary dilemmas universities are facing. Exploring the language of research publishing becomes more pressing since, as Saarinen (2017) states, recent developments like the knowledge economy and internationalisation of higher education that have bearings for researchers and research-intensive universities are highly language-intensive activities. The language question seems even more relevant in multicultural and multilingual Africa, where concerns are raised about indigenising and Africanising knowledges (Mazrui, 2003; Mbembe, 2016).

Besides the above reasons, this study addresses the use and status of English as a medium of research publishing rather than as a medium of teaching and learning since much previous research on the English language in education systems in Africa have focused on medium of instruction—for example, the National and trans-national research projects on English and African Languages such as LOITASA (Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa). The focus on English as a medium of teaching and learning since independence in the 1960s and 1970s until the turn of the 21st century is understandable, as teaching and learning have been the default mission of African universities (Mavhunga, 2017). According to Andoh (2017), although African higher education institutions were initially envisioned to serve the three purposes of teaching and learning, research and community outreach, sometime after 1970, teaching became

their default mission. Andoh (2017) refers to the period from 1970 to 2000 as the era of the lost research mission as far as African research universities are concerned. What makes this research-function-focused PhD project in the selected universities relevant is that it is conducted in a period when African universities are trying to reclaim this mission.

This study will use and interplay the definition and concept of flagship university as employed by Douglass (2016) and Teferra (2017). Teferra (2017) defines flagship universities in the African context as the first higher education institutions established during the period leading up to independence and post-independence. They are currently considered the leading institutions in their respective countries. He goes on to describe them as “mother” institutions. Through the process of isomorphism, they have also become trendsetters in their respective countries in regard to curriculum content, academic culture, and policy guidelines. Typically, they have the largest number of graduate and academic programmes, senior academics, and enrolment; this results in them having the largest producers of graduate students, research, and publications and playing an important role in national capacity building and innovation. Lastly, flagship universities tend to be the most internationalised in terms of institutional cooperation in their countries.

Douglass (2016) notes that flagship universities are comprehensive institutions that seek strength across disciplines. Secondly, flagship universities are autonomous and publicly financed and have a strong internal culture focused on self-improvement. Ultimately, top-tier institutions require sufficient independence to develop internal cultures of quality and excellence and incentives. Lastly, flagship universities also play a nurturing role and develop practices that influence the quality and performance of other higher education institutions (Douglass, 2016).

1.2. Problem Statement

Language as a means of communication and organising thought is essential to the quality of education and the production and archiving of knowledge (Brumfit, 2004). Language is also the primary “tool for collaborative remembering, thinking, problem-solving and acting” (Chang-Wells & Wells, 1997, p. 149). To underscore the need to research language in higher education, Absalom (2004, p. 123) states that “without language/s, education could not exist”. In the

contemporary world of globalisation and the internationalisation of higher education, language has an added dimension of achieving much-needed networks, collaborations and funding (Kuteeva & Airey, 2014; Saarinen, 2012).

This study analyses the implications of using the English language for research publishing, cognizant that English is considered to be the lingua franca of the global and continental scientific communities (Altbach, 2013; Jenkins, 2017). Emphasising the increasing importance of English, especially for this sample of two flagship research universities, Altbach (2013, p. 325) asserts that "... research universities must, without exception, have appropriate competence in the global scientific language—English". I consider the arguments presented by scholars on the need to interrogate English's status as the international language of science, especially taking into account the perspectives of key scholars such as Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986), Canagarajah (2002, 2022a,b), Mazrui (2003, 2004), and Altbach and De Wit (2020).

According to Brumfit (2004), among the three functions of language in higher education (i.e. a medium for teaching and learning, a means of archiving knowledge, and an object of theoretical study), the latter two functions have not been prominent in higher education research (Saarinen, 2017). Stressing the need for further investigation into the implications of language for research publishing, Kuteeva and Mauranen (2014, p. 1) argue that this particular function of the language is "a surprisingly under-explored" topic. As demonstrated in the systematic literature review in the next chapter, the lack of scholarly engagement on the topic seems to be more pronounced in African contexts. Earlier literature not covered in the ten-year systematic review manifests an overwhelming focus on approaching language from a teaching and learning vantage point (Bamgbose, 2004; Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004; Webb, 2006), rendering this study a relatively unexplored terrain. In line with the argument by Teferra (2003a), this research is, therefore, an attempt to bring what Mazrui (2003) phrased as the "language question" to the forefront of discussions related to intellectual production on the African continent. Teferra (2003a) argues that using European languages such as English in African higher education is one of those hidden yet subversive elements in the continent's higher education systems and should be studied, problematised and upgraded as one of the significant variables that have possible implications for quality of education and research.

1.3. Research Objectives

The general objective of this research is to investigate the implications of using English for research publishing and how that affects research and multilingual scholars in selected flagship African universities.

The specific objectives are to:

- Assess general impressions regarding the use of English for research publishing;
- Interrogate the possible implications of the use of the language for research publishing with a specific focus on the quality and quantity of research output;
- Investigate connections between levels of proficiency in English and access to research-related capital such as funding and collaboration; and
- Examine the implications of the status of English in terms of rethinking higher education, especially in the context of internationalisation and decolonisation of higher education.

1.4. Research Questions

The main research question of the study is: *What are the implications of the expanding use of English for research publishing in selected African flagship universities?*

The specific research questions are:

- What are the overall perspectives regarding the use of English for research and publication?
- What would the expanding use of the language for research in the contexts being studied mean in terms of quality and quantity of research?
- What (if any) are the implications of the current distribution of English language capital on other forms of research-related economic and social capital?

- What would the increasing use of English in African higher education systems mean for rethinking higher education through discourses such as internationalisation and decolonisation of research?

1.5. Significance and Scope of the Study

Much of the previous research on English in higher education in Africa has focused on teaching and learning. Hence, the emphasis on the English language as a medium of research publishing is significant. The study investigates the use of the language and the possible implications of that phenomenon in selected flagship universities by considering issues of research productivity, quality, quantity and access to research-related capital. This study is limited to investigating ERPP and its ramifications in Addis Ababa and Eduardo Mondlane universities. Although the case studies are selected to represent linguistic landscapes where English is considered either an additional or “foreign” language, the findings of this research might not be generalisable to all African higher education contexts.

1.6. Organisation of the Study

This thesis is organised into eight chapters. Chapter One provides an overview of the study. Chapter Two presents a review of recent literature and theoretical framework that considers recent scholarship on English in African higher education systems, developments in the study of English for research and publication purposes (ERPP), and Bourdieu’s and decolonial theoretical perspectives. Chapter Three contains discussions on the methodology of the study. Chapter Four presents a detailed description of the case-study contexts and includes both the linguistic and research landscape of the two universities. Chapters Five and Six thematically present the findings of the semi-structured in-depth interview data from Addis Ababa and Eduardo Mondlane universities, respectively. Chapter Seven provides a cross-case analysis and a nuanced discussion and interpretation of the findings, while Chapter Eight presents concluding remarks for the study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the literature reviewed for the study within the ambit of the objectives and the research questions. The first section systematically reviews recent research on English in African higher education with the aim of identifying the research gap for the study². The review addresses the need to research the implications of using English for research and publication, given that the research in this area has generally been limited to the role language plays in teaching and learning or as a medium of instruction. After establishing the gap through a systematic analysis, the next section presents and analyses the state-of-the-art research on English for research and publication purposes (ERPP) and provides a global overview.

Capitalising on the preceding two sections, the third section of the review presents the theoretical framework. As the review from African contexts, as well as the analysis of ERPP literature, suggests, there is a need for a more multidisciplinary theoretical engagement to investigate the implications of using English for scholars and universities located in multilingual contexts. Therefore, taking into account the empirical gap the research seeks to examine, and after exploring theories in the fields of institutional, sociolinguistic, African and critical higher education studies, a theoretical framework informed by Bourdieu's ideas on language as capital and perspectives from the decolonisation of higher education are presented.

2.2. Perspectives from Recent Research in Multilingual Contexts

Even though this study focuses on investigating the implications of using English for research in Ethiopia and Mozambique, it is worth noting that the use of the English language as a medium of higher education is growing rapidly in Africa, as noted in its use by 26 of the 54 countries of the

² This systematic review is published as Yallem, A.T., Langa, P. V., & Nkhoma, N. (2021). English in African higher education: A systematic review. *Journal of Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 39(1), 5–29.
<https://doi.org/10.2989/16073614.2021.1914695>

continent (Plonski et al., 2013). The cases for this study were selected after exploring the nature and focus of recent research after undertaking a continent-wide systematic review of the topic, as presented in this section.

The “Anglicisation” of African higher education systems is becoming increasingly visible with countries such as Rwanda and Gabon, which traditionally use French in higher education, changing their medium of instruction to English (Hasselriis, 2010; McGreal, 2009). The youngest country in Africa, South Sudan, has also opted to use English as its official language (Goldsmith, 2011). The use of English is also growing in universities located in Lusophone African countries (Plonski et al., 2013). Ethiopia, a country without an English colonial legacy (no direct colonial legacy, for that matter), has been using English as the medium of higher education for over seventy years. In light of this expansion and considering the objectives of the study, this part of the review aims to map what has already been researched on the English language in recent literature as a background for this study.

A systematic review approach was adopted for this part of the review to effectively appraise, summarise, synthesise and evaluate relevant research on the given topic (Bettany-Saltikov, 2012; Oxman, 1994; Tight, 2018). This section of the review mainly addresses the following questions:

- What are the main focuses and themes of research focusing on English language use in multilingual African higher education?
- What are the major theoretical perspectives used to conduct the studies?

2.2.1. Overview of Articles Reviewed for this Section

The 30 articles included in this systematic section of the literature review are published in 23 journals, half of which (n=12) focus on educational research. None of the articles were published in journals specialising in higher education studies. This finding resonates with Haggis’s (2009) observation that critical and often sociological perspectives are limited in mainstream higher education journals, and in cases like sociolinguistics, such works are published in specialist journals of each field. The majority of the type of articles reviewed

(n=23) were found to be based on empirical research. Review articles accounted for 20% (n=6) of those reviewed. It was also noted Kamwendo's (2016) article was a research note based on a larger research project.

Forty per cent of the publications regarding English in African higher education (n=12) come from South Africa. Seven other countries in the continent accounted for the other 60% of the articles. Among these, four articles focus on English language issues in Rwanda. Three focused on Tanzania, while two articles focused on Ethiopia. Two articles were based on Malawi. Bouazid and Le Roux (2014) and Dako and Quarcoo (2017) investigate issues related to English in the Algerian and Ghanaian contexts, respectively. Three of the articles have a continental and transnational scope.

2.2.2. An assessment of the Foci and Objectives of Recent Literature

The broad objective of mapping literature on the use of the English language influences the categorisation in this section, which is based on three lenses that focus on the study of English language use in African higher education contexts. According to Brumfit (2004), language in higher education (English for this review) has three main functions. First, it functions as the primary medium of teaching, across all disciplines, in lectures, seminars, reading groups and private study. Second, it is the primary means for storing records and data in libraries, archiving results from theoretical analyses and empirical studies, and for reference material in books, theses and reports. Third, language has been an object of scientific study in linguistics or for skilled performance. Therefore, the following two subsections present a thematic categorisation of the articles using Brumfit's ideas noted above. However, it must be noted that the categories are not mutually exclusive and that there might be articles that could belong in the blurred line between categories.

2.2.2.1. English-Medium Instruction

It was discovered from the review that the majority (80%, n=24) of research on the English language in higher education in Africa investigated issues related to the language from the vantage point of teaching and learning or as a medium of instruction, justifying the need for this study. The articles in this category focused on contexts from South Africa, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Ghana and Algeria. The three articles that have a continental scope (Brock-Utne, 2010; Koosimile & Suping, 2015; Nabukeera, 2012) also focus on this aspect. Table 2.1 presents a list of the articles belonging to this category. The objectives of the papers, the theories used, and the names of the authors are presented for the sake of clarity of presentation.

Eleven of the 24 articles are from South African research settings where English serves as a medium of instruction. These articles focus on raising issues about English language policies and questions related to language and identity (Abongdia, 2014; Hurst, 2015, 2016; Kamwendo et al., 2014; Ngcobo, 2014; Parmegiani, 2014; Seabi et al., 2014; Webb, 2012), and levels of language proficiency (Grosser & Nel, 2013; Nel & Müller, 2010; Posel & Casale, 2011). Reflecting on matters related to language policies, Webb (2012) examines the concept of multilingualism and multilingual universities and the type of research that should be carried out to create a multilingual space in South African universities. In a similar vein, Abongdia (2014) examines the implications of an English-only medium language policy for the University of the Western Cape on students from multilingual backgrounds. Finally, Kamwendo et al. (2014) focus on practices and challenges associated with the implementation of isiZulu as a medium of instruction at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 2.1*Summary of articles that explore issues related to English from the vantage point of medium of instruction*

Theme	Context	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
English as a medium of instruction	South Africa	Abongdia (2014)	Impacts of a monolingual (English) medium instruction at the University of the Western Cape.	Language ideologies, language policy and planning
		Grosser & Nel (2013)	Relationship between critical thinking skills and academic English language proficiency of prospective teachers at a South African university.	Critical Thinking Appraisal
		Hurst (2015)	Student perspectives on language support at the University of Cape Town, where English is the medium of instruction.	Bourdieu's cultural capital
		Hurst (2016)	Strategies students from disadvantaged backgrounds at the University of Cape Town used to navigate the English-dominated higher education system.	Decolonial perspectives
		Kamwendo et al. (2014)	Practices and challenges faced in the implementation of a South African language (isiZulu) as a medium of instruction at the University of KwaZulu-Natal where English is the primary medium.	African scholarship, Africanisation of higher education, the African Renaissance, and transformation
		Nel & Müller (2010)	EMI and its impact on the language development of	Krashen's perspectives

Theme	Context	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
			English among second language students—teachers and learners at the University of South Africa.	on second language acquisition
		Ngcobo (2014)	Relationship between language identity and bi/multilingual education.	Linguistic anthropology
		Parmegiani (2014)	Role that English and isiZulu play in the identity construction of a group of black South African university students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.	Postmodern, feminist and postcolonial conceptions of identity
		Posel & Casale (2011)	Language proficiency and labour market outcomes in the context of South Africa's language-in-education policy.	Language proficiency
		Seabi et al. (2014)	Explores how students experience life, learning and teaching transformation at the University of Witwatersrand.	Phenomenology
		Webb (2012)	Fundamental aspects of multilingual higher education in the South African context focusing on historically (white) Afrikaans universities.	Multilingualism
	Malawi	Kamwendo (2010)	Malawian language policies since independence and implications of the privileged status of English on Malawian languages.	African Renaissance
		Kamwendo (2016)	A critique of the results of the Malawian language policy	Not specified
	Rwanda	Sibomana (2014)	Constraints, challenges, possibilities and promises	

Theme	Context	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
			regarding the acquisition of English in the Rwandan sociolinguistic context, including higher education.	
		Twagilimana (2017)	The extent to which the use of feedback practices as strategies of assessment of students' academic writing in English act as meaningful processes to the learning process.	Student writing, teacher feedback practices and academic literacies.
	Tanzania	Mohamed & Banda (2008)	Academic writing among students for whom English is a foreign language considering lecturers' discursive practices.	Critical discourse analysis
		Qorro (2013)	Reviews studies conducted on the language of instruction in Tanzania from 1974 to 2013.	Linguistic imperialism
	Algeria	Bouazid & Le Roux (2014)	The challenges experienced by Arabic-speaking university students and lecturers in their attempts at meeting proposed learning outcomes in English Literature.	Not specified
	Ethiopia	Jha (2013)	English language teaching methods and major linguistic and non-linguistic impediments to mastering English in post-secondary institutions.	Not specified
	Ghana	Dako & Quarcoo (2017)	Attitudes towards the English language and English-medium education at workplaces in Ghana's commercial sector.	Not specified

Theme	Context	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
	Nigeria	Obioha & Obioha (2014)	The effects of bilingualism in English and Nigerian languages and its implications on learning, mentorship and entrepreneurship.	Speech act theory
	Cross-national studies	Brock-Utne (2010)	Extent of research on the impact of English as a medium of instruction informs language policy in Africa.	Not specified
		Koosimile & Suping (2015)	Influences of globalisation on science education in Anglophone Sub-Saharan Africa.	Not specified
		Nabukeera (2012)	Recent literature on the challenges faced by non-native English speakers who teach the English language.	Not specified



Regarding language and identity in South Africa, Ngcobo (2014) discusses the relationship between bi/multilingual education involving English and Bantu languages on the one hand, and the struggle to maintain identity, on the other. Parmegiani's (2014) exploration of the roles English and isiZulu play in the identity construction of a group of black South African university students from disadvantaged backgrounds enrolled in a bridge programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal also falls into this category. Hurst's (2015) article, related to teaching and learning and the English language in South Africa and recent debates on decolonisation and transformation of the university, focuses on student perspectives of language support at the University of Cape Town. Hurst (2016) also investigates the strategies and transitions relating to what she referred to as the "colonial wound" in South African education that she discussed in her 2015 paper. Finally, Seabi et al. (2014) investigate students' perceptions of the challenges they face and factors that facilitate and impede transformative teaching and learning at the University of the Witwatersrand.

The implications of English language proficiency are also considered in articles from this category. Grosser and Nel (2013) investigate the relationship between critical thinking skills and academic language proficiency among first-year teacher education students working towards obtaining a Bachelor of Education degree, whereas Posel and Casale (2011) explore 2008 data on language proficiency and labour market outcomes. Finally, Nel and Müller (2010) studied the implications of teachers' limited English language proficiency on second-language learners of English.

In Malawi, Kamwendo's (2010) literature-based paper entitled, "Denigrating the local, glorifying the foreign: Malawian language policies in the era of African Renaissance" presents the argument that it is possible to develop English without disregarding or undermining African languages. In his 2016 article, Kamwendo critiques the policy on English-medium language instruction in Malawi, highlighting the devastating impact of English as the medium of instruction from the first year of primary school to higher education. Sibomana (2014) builds on factors which are perceived as affecting second language acquisition in an exploration of the constraints, challenges, possibilities and promises enshrined in the attainment of the English

language in Rwanda. In addition, Twagilimana (2017) critically examines the extent of the meaningfulness to the learning process of feedback practices that form part of strategies used in the assessment of student work at the former National University of Rwanda.

In Tanzania, Mohamed and Banda's (2008) qualitative study investigates student writing from the perspective of lecturers' discursive practices that include the use of English as a medium of instruction. The authors seek to make lecturers take responsibility for their pedagogical and linguistic practices, which have implications for students' unsuccessful writing practices. Qorro (2013) reviews 18 studies conducted on language and education in Tanzania from 1974 to 2013. She focuses her analysis on why research findings and policy recommendations on the language policy of the country are ignored, and factors that influence the choice of language of instruction.

Using a multi-instrument qualitative case study, Bouazid and Le Roux (2014) examine the challenges experienced by Arabic-speaking students and lecturers in their attempts to meet proposed learning outcomes in English literature at a university in Algeria. In contrast, Dako and Quarcoo (2017) discuss attitudes towards the English language and English-medium education in the workplace, commerce, and higher education in Ghana. Their mixed-methods paper includes an analysis of interviews with higher education students. Jha's (2013a) qualitative study that uses ethnographic and phenomenological approaches investigates "the dismal" state of English in post-school institutions in eastern Ethiopia to explore English language teaching methods and major linguistic and non-linguistic impediments to mastering the language. Finally, from a Nigerian vantage point, Obioha and Obioha (2014) investigate the effects of bilingualism on mentorship and entrepreneurial development by posing the following central questions on English: "How does mother tongue interfere with the acquisition of proficiency in the learning of English of tertiary students? Does code-borrowing affect English language learning? Does culture affect tertiary students' English (p. 74)?"

The three cross-national and Africa-wide studies also focus on issues concerning the medium of instruction. Anticipating Qorro (2013), Brock-Utne (2010) addresses questions on why research on language policies does not seem to inform actual language policies. Brock-Utne's (2010)

paper draws on secondary data and the author's personal experience as a consultant in four research projects in Namibia, Tanzania and South Africa. Koosimile and Supings' (2015) review-based study investigates the influences of globalisation on science education in Anglophone Sub-Saharan Africa by assessing patterns, trends, themes, implications and outcomes. In this article, the English language emerged as one of the themes of previous research in science education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Finally, Nabukeera (2012) reviews recent literature on the challenges that non-native English language teachers face, including job marginalisation and students' perceptions of teachers.

2.2.2.2. English as a Medium for Knowledge Production and Archiving

Six of the reviewed articles for this section of the literature review focused on aspects related to the English language and its role in producing and archiving knowledge and as a subject of theoretical study. Table 2.2 presents the main objectives and theories of the papers included in this section.

The main focus of Mendisu and Moges's (2014) research is to examine whether or not academic staff members at Addis Ababa University use Ethiopian languages in any significant way in knowledge production. This Ethiopian case study assists both researchers in their call for the need to restore African studies to its linguistic identity. This observation arises from the researchers' content analysis of a decade of academic publications from the College of Humanities, Language Studies, Journalism and Communication (CHLSJC) at Addis Ababa University, and a further content analysis of the language of publication in a five-year archive of the *Journal of Ethiopian Studies* (JES) from the Institute of Ethiopian Studies (IES).

Sibomana (2016) discusses findings from a study on the challenges experienced by a group of postgraduate students from Rwanda studying at a South African university. These challenges arise from the reality that the students' primary languages are Kinyarwanda and French, while the university uses English as the medium of teaching and research. The study also focuses on the strategies the students use to address these challenges and the support offered by the university to them to complete their studies.

Table 2.2

Summary of articles that explore issues related to the English language focusing on studying the language itself as a theoretical study and the role it plays in knowledge production and archiving

Theme	Context	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
English as a theoretical study and medium for research or archiving knowledge	Rwanda	Uwambayinema (2016)	Challenges regarding perceptions and production of North American English vowels, faced by Rwandan students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).	Not specified
		Sibomana (2016)	Challenges experienced by a group of postgraduate students from Rwanda studying at an English-medium South African university.	Not specified
	Ethiopia	Mendis & Yigezu (2014)	Attempt to assess the use and status of African languages in research in an English-medium university, taking the case of Ethiopian studies.	language and decolonisation
	Nigeria	Ezema (2016)	Scholarly communication and authorship patterns in language research drawing on evidence from a citation analysis of English language theses and dissertations at the University of Nsukka.	Not specified
	South Africa	Cloete (2011)	The potency of English in expressing issues about nature such as the animal, the wilderness experiences and hunting practices.	Critical language awareness
Tanzania	Halvorsen (2012)	A linguistic turn to investigate ICT participation in the University of Dar es Salaam.	Lindner's paradigm theory	

Cloete (2011) examines the potency of English in expressing issues about nature in Africa, such as the animal, the “wilderness experience”, hunting practices, and “the African bush”. The article also explores how these meaning systems are reflected in environmental education concerning conservation areas in Eastern and Southern Africa. Cloete (2011) highlights the necessity for greater interlanguage exchange in the study of Africa’s natural and, in particular, conservation environment.

Halvorsen’s (2012) qualitative study takes a linguistic turn in its investigation of information communication technology participation at the University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The author examines whether the university’s staff and students regard themselves as participants and contributors in a knowledge society. Ezema (2016) investigates scholarly communication and authorship patterns in language research drawing on evidence from a citation analysis of 87 language theses and dissertations from the Department of English at the University of Nsukka, Nigeria, between 2005 and 2014. In contrast, Uwambayinema (2016) investigates the challenges that Rwandan students of English as a Foreign Language encounter regarding the perceptions and production of North American English vowels.

2.2.3. Theoretical Perspectives

Underscoring the need for more theory-informed analysis of studying the implications of using English in African higher education systems, thirteen of the analysed papers for this section did not indicate the specific theoretical perspectives informing their analysis. This finding is evident in five of the seven review-based articles. There was no explicit inclusion of theoretical frameworks/perspectives in three qualitative (Bouazid & Roux, 2014; Jha, 2013a; Seabi et al., 2014), three quantitative (Ezema, 2016; Posel & Casale, 2011; Uwambayinema, 2016), and two mixed-methods papers (Dako & Quarcoo, 2017; Webb, 2012). In one article, Sibomana (2016) uses grounded theory, while Halvorsen (2012) uses Linder’s paradigm theory, borrowed from the field of economics, in order to investigate linguistics-based ICT participation at the University of Dar es Salaam. Perspectives and theoretical orientations from traditions in applied linguistics, anthrolinguistics and sociolinguistics seem prominent in the studies as presented in

Tables 2.1 and 2.2. Fifteen articles analysed in this review utilised macro (applied and socio) linguistic theories.

2.2.3.1. Theories of Second Language Acquisition

Various papers explore issues related to the use of the English language from a more functionalist perspective and raise practical concerns regarding the implications of the levels of English language proficiency. The theoretical perspectives include Krashen's and Brown's (2007) model of second language acquisition (Grosser & Nel, 2013; Nel & Müller, 2010). Grosser and Nel (2013) use descriptive statistics to investigate the relationship between critical thinking skills and the academic language proficiency of prospective teachers. They also use a combination of theoretical perspectives borrowed from Watson Glaser's critical thinking appraisal and Krashen and Brown's (2007) views on academic writing. Furthermore, Nel and Müller (2010) use a mixed-methods research design to investigate the implications of teachers' limited English language proficiency on second-language learners. Krashen's theory of language acquisition, which states that teacher talk is an essential input for second language acquisition, is adopted for Nel and Müller's (2010) study. A study that investigates academic writing and feedback practices at a university in Rwanda carried out by Twagilimana (2017) also uses theoretical perspectives drawn from the development of student writing (Coffin et al., 2003), teacher feedback practices (Brown et al., 1997) and academic literacies in English as a second language (Zamel, 2011). Finally, Obioha and Obioha (2014) use the speech act theory in their discussion on bilingualism and its implications for mentorship and entrepreneurship at two higher education institutions in Nigeria.

2.2.3.2. English in Relation to Identity, Power, Ideology and Decolonisation

The remaining papers that had a clear theoretical underpinning adopt a more critical view on language use in higher education. These articles critically consider language, ideology, power and politics in their studies. The theories used in this category include: linguistic anthropology (Ngcobo, 2014), language ideologies (Abongdia, 2014), language policy and planning (Abongdia, 2014), critical discourse analysis (Mohamed & Banda, 2008), critical language awareness theories (Cloete, 2011), feminist and postmodern perspectives (Parmegiani, 2014),

and Bourdieu's theory on language as cultural capital (Hurst, 2016). Although Mohamed and Banda's (2008) article draws mainly on discourse analysis, it also uses Bourdieu's perspectives on language to inform their research on lecturers' classroom discursive practices in Tanzania.

The dominant theoretical perspectives engaging with aspects related to the English language were found to be drawn from decolonial and postcolonial studies (Hurst, 2015; Kamwendo, 2010; Kamwendo et al., 2014; Mendisu & Yigezu, 2014; Parmegiani, 2014). Hurst's (2015) study, which is informed by decolonial perspectives from Mignolo (2009, 2005), discusses student perspectives on language support at the University of Cape Town. In addition, Mendisu and Yigezu based their analysis of research output in the field of Ethiopian studies at Addis Ababa University in Ethiopia from the perspectives of Kenyan author and postcolonial critic, Ngugi wa Thiong'o. Kamwendo's (2010) analysis of language policy in Malawi is informed by Ali Mazrui's and Ngugi wa Thiong'o's ideas. Kamwendo et al. (2014) also based their analysis of language policy and practice at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on perspectives from African scholarship, the Africanisation of higher education, and the concepts related to the African Renaissance and transformation. Qorro's (2013) study on language policy in Tanzania, which uses Robert Philipson's theory of linguistic imperialism, could also fall into this category of articles. The articles that adopted decolonial/postcolonial/Africanist perspectives seem to present an argument similar to Pennycook's (1998), which is that popular views that regard English as a neutral language of global communication must be challenged since the language remains a carrier of colonial discourses and meanings. At the heart of these arguments is the question of the relative absence of African languages in the continent's higher education systems and institutions both in teaching and learning and knowledge production.

2.2.4. The Implication of This Section of the Review for this Study

A classification of the studies categorised using Brumfit's (2004) broad categorisation of the functions of language in higher education shows that the expanding use of the English language as a medium of instruction and its implications has been the preoccupation of researchers in the field. A review of articles using Tight's (2012) work on systematically categorising the themes of higher education research shows that the pedagogical categories (teaching and learning,

course design, and student experience) feature dominantly in the reviewed articles as opposed to the other major higher education research themes such as quality, system policy, institutional management, academic work and knowledge. This focus on English and the role it plays in teaching and learning seems to be a continuation of earlier literature exploring the topic from African vantage points (Alexander, 2003; Bamgbose, 2004; Brock-Utne, 2002, 2007; Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004; Mazrui, 2003; Rubagumya, 1991; Webb, 2006). Therefore, it can be argued that more research needs to be conducted on widening English language use to increase an understanding of the implications of its expansion.

Even though the function that language plays as a medium of instruction still needs further research, especially in multilingual African contexts, these findings concur with Brumfit's (2004) observation that a lesser emphasis is given to functions that the English language plays in archiving knowledge and research. It is suggested that the increased role of English in internationalised higher education systems and the emerging knowledge economies on the continent indicate that the role played by language in academic purposes, such as in conducting, disseminating and achieving research and knowledge, should receive more attention. It is also essential to investigate the particular function played by language while considering the move African universities are making towards research-intensive statuses. Therefore, this section of the review confirmed, in line with Kuteeva and Mauranen's (2014) reflection that the use of English for research remains an under-explored area of inquiry.

Diverse theoretical perspectives are used in the reviewed studies, except for seven articles that did not incorporate explicit theories. Theoretical perspectives in applied and sociolinguistics and decolonial and postcolonial studies attempt to problematise ideological, contextual sociolinguistic and cultural factors that dominate in many of the articles. The adopted theoretical perspectives, which include decoloniality, language anthropology and linguistic imperialism, are appropriate for such an investigation. It is, however, worth noting that these perspectives, granted that they have the efficacy to critique the use of the language within the sociolinguistic realities in the contexts studied, could also have contributed to the largely negative views presented in the studies. Therefore, in order to create a body of knowledge that is informed by diverse epistemological and theoretical underpinnings, it is argued that interdisciplinary and

multiple theoretical framing has the potential to strengthen the studies and would render the practices and implications of using English in African higher education systems more intelligible.

This section of the review only focused on articles drawn from selected research databases and, as a result, might not be comprehensive, especially given the fact that not much research from Africa is well represented in international research databases. A more extensive search using more keywords might result in more articles worth reviewing. Besides, the analysis has focused on articles published in English, which could also be considered as a limitation. Since research from the specific case-study contexts in Ethiopia and Mozambique has not been prominently featured in this systematic review of recent literature, a broader overview of the national and institutional linguistic and research contexts is presented in Chapter Four, where I describe the case-study contexts in detail.

2.3. The Spread of English as a Global Language of Science

This part of the literature review focuses on a global overview of the extent of using English for publication, along with explaining the reasons for the expansion. The general implications of using the language for higher education are presented considering the literature on the topic thus far.

It is evident that publications in the English language form the lion's share of research and publication output globally. This has been documented in studies focusing on research assessment (Van Weijen, 2012; Vera-Baceta et al., 2019) as well as in studies focusing on English for research and publication purposes (Flowerdew, 2013; Lillis & Curry, 2010). For instance, in 2010, Lillis and Curry reported that more than 90% of the natural and social sciences articles published in high-impact factor journals indexed in the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) database are predominantly published in English. A 2012 study also indicates that roughly 80% of all the journals indexed in Scopus, the most extensive global abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature, are published in English (Van Weijen, 2012). In 2018, the dominance of English as the language of science continued. An article comparing the language of research in Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus databases indicates that 95.37% of

the documents in WoS and 92.64% of the documents in Scopus are in English (Vera-Baceta et al., 2019); the second most popular languages of publication being Spanish (1.26%) in WoS and Chinese (2.76%) in Scopus (Vera-Baceta et al., 2019).

Although no studies have surveyed the use of English for research considering the Ethiopian and Mozambican contexts, the focus of this research, the dominance of English, has been established in bibliometric studies on African contexts. For instance, a WoS-based study indicates that 99.76% of research from Ghana is published in English (Boamah & Ho, 2018). Similarly, a study focusing on assessing research from Cameroon from 1936 to 2015 concluded that 91% of all documents were published in English. In the Cameroon study, English is followed by French, with 9.0% of articles (Tchuifon et al., 2017). The dominance of English is also highlighted by other disciplines and country-based bibliometric studies in biomedical research (Hsieh et al., 2004), environmental sciences (Chiu & Ho, 2007; Zhi et al., 2015), Russia (Moed et al., 2018), Costa Rica (Monge-nájera & Ho, 2012), and European social science research (Heilbron & Gingras, 2018). In their article exploring language usage in Scopus and Web of Science, Vera-Baceta et al. (2019) presented the languages represented in Figure 2.1 as being included in publications in the databases. The only language with roots related to the African continent, Afrikaans, is left out of the Vera-Baceta et al. (2019) analysis because the number of publications was found to be less than 0.01%. One can infer from this analysis that there are no African languages other than English, French, Portuguese, and Spanish indexed in these comprehensive global research databases.

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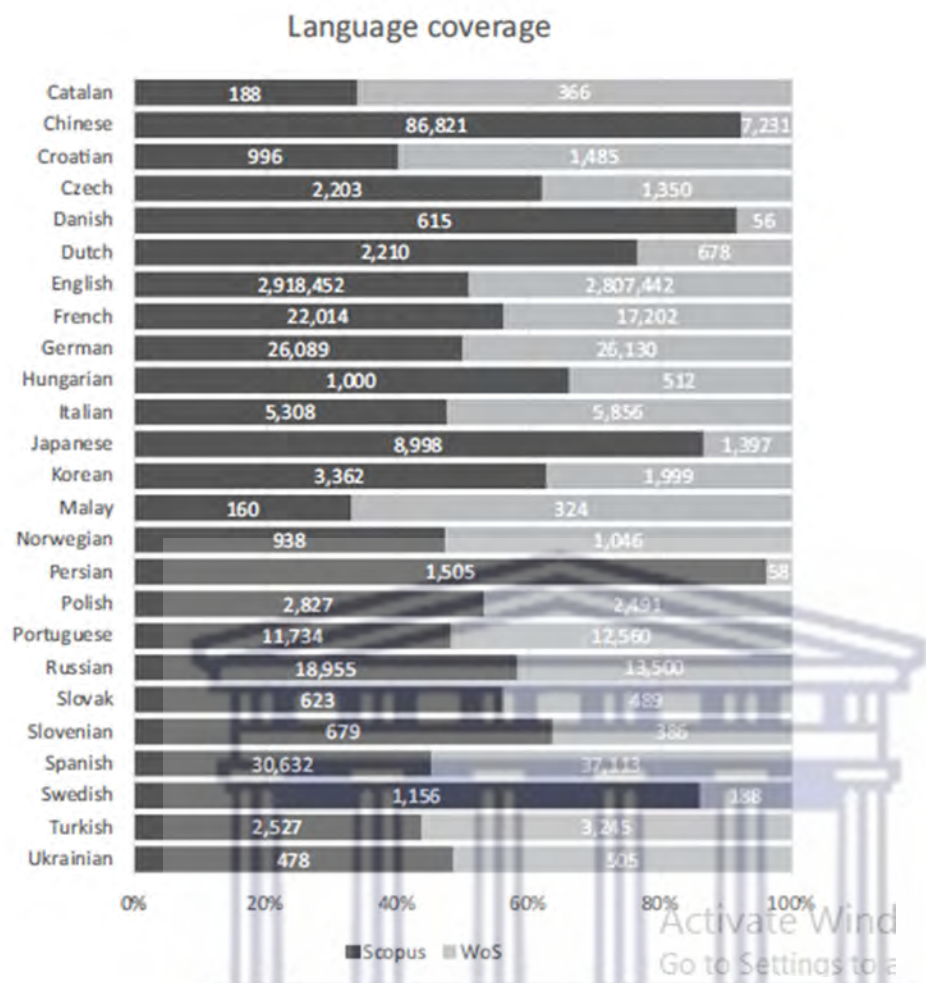


Figure 2.1. Proportion and number of documents indexed in WoS and Scopus by language (Vera-Baceta et al., 2019)

It has to be noted that the data from WoS and Scopus used in the analysis mentioned above are in no way comprehensive and representative of the research landscapes and disciplines assessed. The databases are used for their claim to be comprehensive and because there are no other comparable platforms with analytical tools that undertake a language and publication disaggregated analysis. Both WoS and Scopus are considered selective and commercial databases with standards of assessment “whose standards and assessment criteria are mostly controlled by panels of gatekeepers in North America and Western Europe” (Tennant et al., 2019, p. 15). In addition, these databases are biased toward research in the medical and natural

sciences with a considerable underrepresentation of social sciences and humanities research (Aksnes & Sivertsen, 2019; Archambault et al., 2006). Especially relevant to this study, another consideration that needs to be made when analysing data from these databases is the limited coverage they have of journals and publications from the non-English speaking world (Tennant et al., 2019).

It is worth noting that even though English serves as a medium for the bulk of research and publication worldwide, the prominent role the language plays as the lingua franca of science is a relatively recent phenomenon. According to Spolsky (2004), the discussions on English as the dominant language have become noticeable only in the past few decades. Englander (2014) concurs that, at the dawn of the twentieth century, there seemed to be a multilingual scholarly culture in the Global North, with French, German, Russian and English all serving as languages of written science communication as well as in conferences. In the early 20th century, before the end of the First World War, German was actually the dominant language of publication (Ammon, 2001), especially in the health and natural sciences (Hamel, 2007). In scholarly circles, the emerging dominance of English was not perceived even thirty years ago (Spolsky, 2004). In the language studies community, English was considered just like any other language and was not viewed as deserving of special scholarly attention in the 1970s and 1980s. However, by the end of the 1990s, English had already become so dominant in the world that de Swaan (1998) states it has become like the sun in the linguistic galaxy where other planets and their moons (regional, national and tribal languages) revolve around it.

Spolsky (2004) credits Fishman (1977) as having the foresight to predict the impending and globalising dominance of English when no one else did. In addition to the work of Fishman (1977) where he attempted to establish that English has become the global language, more critical engagement related to the language emerged with the publication of Phillipson's *Linguistic Imperialism* in 1992 and Pennycook's *The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language* in 1994. Other notable early works include: Flaitz (1988), Kachru (1992), Hartmann (1996), Ammon (2001), and Canagarajah (2002).

Several reasons contribute to the global dominance of English as the language of science. Some scholars attribute the rise of English to happenstance and a series of accidents favouring the language (Brumfit, 2004; Kaplan, 2001). According to Kaplan (2001), the outcomes of the Second World War and the concomitant establishment of the United Nations, along with unprecedented growth in science and technology with the invention of computers led to the coincidental emergence of English as the dominant language of science.

Although Kaplan (2001) frames it as accidental, other scholars point to the relevance of investigating the spread of English as the language of science and technology through the lens of power relations, history and political sociology (Hultgren, 2020; Pennycook, 2017). Adopting this lens implies, among other things, considering the role played by the British Empire and colonialism, the rise of the USA as a global superpower as well as the impact of globalisation, neoliberalism and neoliberal policies in relation to the growing use of the language (Bourdieu, 2001; Mazrui, 1997).

The critical perspectives presented in this category suggest some of the unfavourable views towards the increasing use of English in Education. Considering it as an extension of his linguistic imperialism thesis, Phillipson (1992, 1997, 2006, and 2008) referred to the language with names such as “a killer language”, “A cuckoo in the European education nest”, and “Lingua Frankensteinia”. Other terms used to refer to the impact of the spread of English include: *linguicide* (Skutnabb-Kangas et al., 1995), “linguistic genocide” (Day, 1985), Trojan horse (Cooke, 1988), and a many-headed hydra (Rapatahana & Bruce, 2012). Critical voices such as Hultgren (2020) and Spolsky (2004) criticise the explanations offered by the linguistic imperialism camp as lacking sophistication or even as “conspiracy theory” (Spolsky, 2004) that fail to take into account the various intersecting socio-cultural, historical and economic reasons that should be taken into account when analysing the reasons and implications of using the language. Using the concept of “Worldliness of English”, Pennycook (1994) also underscores the need to analyse the role English plays through a power-sensitive, but nuanced and situated multi-dimensional analysis considering the factors mentioned above.

By contrast, scholars such as Jenkins (2006), Seidlhofer (2011) and Crystal (2012) view the language from a more functional perspective, considering it as a much-needed lingua franca serving as a tool for creating a more coherent and connected world. Although empirical research is needed, this perspective appears to be the dominant reason African countries are sticking to English, and some of them are even moving their higher education systems towards it at the political level. For instance, President Odimbwa of Gabon deems English as “a necessary working language” crucial for “diversifying our partnerships, ensuring that the people of Gabon are armed and better armed” (Hasselriis, 2010). Rwanda has shifted its higher education from a French medium to an English one for globalisation and regionalisation-related reasons as well (McGreal, 2009). In the current scholarship, English is regarded as a world language that builds bridges of understanding on the one hand and a confining imperialist language on the other. An in-depth exploration of both views will be made to answer the research questions posed in this study.

2.4. English as the Language of Research and Publication

Following the general discussion on the extent, reasons, and general implications of using English worldwide, this section specifically focuses on exploring the use of English for research and publication. As multilingual scholars are at the heart of this research, the review explores ERPP from the vantage point of these researchers. Objectives of this section of the review are to assess and investigate:

- The overall mapping of ERPP literature and the significant reasons multilingual scholars publish in English;
- Research on the topic considering the overall impacts of researching English along with the opportunities and challenges identified thus far; and
- The contribution of this study in relation to the gap meant to be filled by the current study.

2.4.1. Multilingual Scholars and ERPP Literature

English has become the undisputed language of research and publication in the past few decades. Discussions on the use of the language for scholarly communication studies started in the 1980s following pioneering works such as Fishman et al. (1977). One of the earliest works exploring the topic was conducted by St. John (1987), focusing on the writing processes of Spanish researchers publishing in English. Another notable work is by Swales (1997), which foregrounds the critical views represented in the work of Phillipson (1992) and Pennycook (1994). He described English as a “Tyrannosaurus rex”—“a powerful carnivore gobbling up the other denizens of the academic linguistic grazing grounds” (Swales, 1997, p. 374).

Similar in tone to Swales (1997) are two volumes by Ammon (2001) and Canagarajah (2002). In the edited volume titled *The Dominance of English as a Language of Science: Effects on Other Languages and Language Communities*, Ammon (2001) provided one of the earliest and most comprehensive overviews of the use of language as a medium of scientific production. This volume presents perspectives from contexts that have used their own language as a language of science but now had to shift to English, such as Germany and France, and countries that are shifting from one foreign language to another foreign language (Finland, Sweden) and contexts where English is dominant although not a native-tongue (Philippines). In the *Geopolitics of Academic Writing*, Canagarajah (2002) argues that peripheral scholars could be disadvantaged by how scholarship from the centre often creates publication conventions, requirements and practices that may be hard to navigate and used the University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka, as a case study. Canagarajah makes these assertions based on the epistemic premise that knowledge is contextual, constructed, value-laden and discursive.

Tardy (2004) surveyed graduate students in a university in the US, of whom 73% were from South Korea and China and endeavoured to determine whether informants deemed English as the Swalesian tyrannosaurus rex or as a lingua franca. The answer to this predicament was not unambiguous as the majority of research participants saw value in the use of English as a lingua franca, while some respondents did not perceive it as a neutral communication medium and highlighted concerns about potential disadvantages for non-native English-speaking academics.

Tardy's study suggested that, after returning to their home countries, the participants would likely face similar challenges experienced by those of "off networked scholars", as Canagarajah (2002) suggested. Two noteworthy special issues by the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* published in 2008 and 2014, edited by Cargill and Burgess (2008) and Kuteeva and Mauranen (2014), respectively, also provided more coverage on the question of English for research and publication purposes. The findings of the articles included in these volumes will be reflected upon in the next section, which is dedicated to providing an overview of the implications of English for research and publication.

Recognition of the relevance of investigating the impact of geopolitical specificities as suggested by Pennycook (2017), ERPP research thus far is conducted taking into account various geopolitical contexts, including countries such as Denmark (Petersen & Shaw, 2002), Poland (Duszak & Lewkowicz, 2008), Brazil (Vasconcelos et al., 2008), Portugal (Bennett, 2010), Spain (Ferguson et al., 2011), Sweden (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012), Germany (Gnutzmann & Rabe, 2014), Romania (Muresan & Pérez-Llantada, 2014; McGrath, 2014), Canada (Gentil & Séror, 2014), China (Li & Flowerdew, 2007; Li, 2014), and Mexico and Taiwan (Hanaur et al., 2019). In addition to accounting for geopolitical contexts, ERPP researchers also highlight the importance of exploring disciplinary differences when researching the implications of using English for research (Kuteeva & Airey, 2014).

When it comes to investigating the reasons why multilingual scholars choose to publish in English, several intrinsic and instrumental reasons have been forwarded in the literature (Uzuner, 2008). One of the reasons, not surprisingly, is the predominant publish or perish culture across academia (Lillis & Curry, 2006). Other reasons mentioned as drivers for publishing in the language include university reward and incentive policies (Curry & Lillis, 2004). Quality demands imply rewarding publishing in journals with high impact factors, which in turn implies publishing in English since many of the top-rated journals are in English medium. Another reason for publishing in English is related to the quest for recognition of scholarship and the desire to contribute to global science and knowledge production. As Gosden (1992) and Flowerdew (1999) indicate, publishing in local languages might limit the audience for multilingual scholars. Publishing in English is also how scholars from the periphery receive

legitimacy for their scholarship (Duszak & Lewkowicz, 2008; Giannoni, 2008). Yet another reason for writing and publishing in English, especially for PhD students, has to do with degree requirements (Gosden, 1996; Li, 2006).

This research is cognisant of what scholars noted as the important changes that have taken place since the first decade of the 21st century and that are worth reflecting on when researching the implications of the dominance of English for research and publication. One such change is the often taken-for-granted notion of centre-periphery, which is often used as an analytical tool in ERPP literature. Recent changes in this regard include the rise of countries like China and Korea from the periphery towards the centre, demonstrating that the centre-periphery notion is a shifting one, and its application as a fixed tool for analysing global dynamics needs more interrogation. Even the African continent's share of research and publication has risen from stagnation and decline in the 1980s and 1990s (Maassen, 2020; Tijssen, 2007) to take up 1.5% in 2005 to 3.2% in 2016, surpassing the world average growth rate (Mouton & Blanckenberg, 2018). Another relevant change in the past decades has been the acceptance of different varieties of English (Kachru et al., 2006; Mauranen, 2012) and the questioning of the significance of the native/non-native dichotomy as an analytical category (Hyland, 2016). Flowerdew (2013) suggests that the native versus non-native distinction is being blurred. Instead, the level of professional know-how and academic rank is more significant when it comes to fruitful academic publishing.

2.4.2. Multilingual Scholars and Publishing in English

Both empirical and theoretical research has been conducted reflecting the challenges of publishing in English for multilingual scholars on the one hand, and challenging the very notion that multilingual scholars are disadvantaged by the dominance of English as a language of science and research. For instance, researchers such as Flowerdew (2013), Englander and Uzuner-Smith (2013) and Yen and Hung (2019) have highlighted the various linguistic, sociocultural, political and economic forces that disadvantage multilingual scholars publishing in English. Foreshadowing these critical views is a review article by Uzuner (2008, p. 261) that states: “international publication is more of a challenge to multilingual scholars than it is to

others who are endowed with economic, cultural and symbolic capitals, and thus able to respond to the demands of the core academic discursive practices with relative ease.” A strong theme in the 2008 special issue of the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* was compared to native speakers, multilingual researchers are often at a disadvantage, especially if they are located in the “periphery” and do not possess the same access to resources and information as those situated in the Anglophone world.

Hyland (2016) challenges this notion of multilingual scholars’ disadvantage, arguing that research and publishing in English is not a challenge unique to multilingual scholars and that even native speakers of the English language face similar challenges when it comes to academic English. Several articles in the 2014 special issue of the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* also question the claim that multilingual researchers are disadvantaged or stigmatised as a result of using English for research (Gnutzmann & Rabe, 2014).

When it comes to the opportunities embedded in the growing use of English for research, the literature suggests that increased use of the English language in global higher education could be considered a positive development because the language has become the lingua franca of the global and continental scientific communities (Altbach, 2013; Crystal, 2012). Proficiency in the English language in the contemporary world of globalisation and internationalisation of higher education seems to have the added advantages of enhancing academics’ and higher education institutions’ involvement in research networks, collaborations and access to funding (Kuteeva & Airey, 2014). According to Tijssen (2007), having a predominantly English-language-derived cultural heritage of modern higher education could positively affect citation rates as well, and this has been the case in South Africa and Kenya. Arabic and French language-dominated higher education systems of North Africa are at a disadvantage in the English language-dominated global higher education (Tijssen, 2007).

Nonetheless, the growing use of English has been one of the major dilemmas affecting higher education systems around the world as they seek to enhance their global standing and visibility while at the same time maintaining their local identity and relevance. This dilemma seems even more pronounced in the immensely multicultural and multilingual African region as higher

education institutions on the continent wrestle with two distinct challenges. On the one hand, they are tasked with achieving their aspirations of becoming active participants of the English language-dominated internationalised higher education. On the other, they are expected to take measures to decolonise the academy through “intellectualising” African languages and by re-examining the implications of coloniality (Mazrui, 2003; Mbembe, 2015).

Several reasons have been put forward in the literature as to why researchers might find the use of English for publishing challenging. Providing a generalised perspective, Van Dijk (1994, p. 276) states that scholars from non-dominant linguistic cultures face a three-fold disadvantage: they are required to read, conduct research and write in English. Flowerdew (2008) concurs that with the extra effort required to do these activities, they are expected to produce acceptable manuscripts in a second language, putting them in an even more disadvantaged position.

Some of the more specific challenges multilingual scholars face while publishing in English are related to linguistic and cultural differences in reporting research that is misrecognised as containing inadequacies or as lacking in incompetency (Uzuner, 2008). For instance, researchers coming from linguistic and cultural contexts where making bold claims regarding their research is frowned upon, may be interpreted as weak in the English-speaking world. For these researchers, this perception may, in turn, lead to a lack of credibility among the English language-dominated academic and disciplinary communities where making vocal and confident claims about one’s study is a legitimate rhetorical move. Tardy (2004) notes a similar observation for East Asian postgraduate students studying in the US, while Mauranen (1993) asserts that Finnish researchers’ general lack of authorial presence in their manuscripts may be viewed as a disadvantage.

Writing for disciplinary and discourse communities was found to be more difficult for researchers for whom English is a second and foreign language and might lead to desk rejections of manuscripts (Duszak & Lewkowicz, 2008; Uzener, 2008). Some of the English language-related challenges multilingual scholars often face in this regard include: inappropriate use of idioms, limited vocabulary, over complicated sentence structure and inappropriate use of modifiers (Flowerdew, 2001; Kaplan & Baldauf, 2005). Using regional language and dialect

might also minimise the acceptance chances of these scholars, especially when the journals are not accommodating of such diversity (Curry & Lillis, 2004). Empirical evidence also indicates that for multilingual scholars, writing the introduction, literature review, and discussion sections of a manuscript in English can be the most challenging part of composing manuscripts in English (Li, 2007; St. John, 1987). In addition to poor English language proficiency, this challenge can also be partly attributable to literary and cultural differences.

Another concern with mixed research findings is, on the one hand, the issue of potential bias against multilingual scholars. In their findings, Li (2002) and Liu (2004) indicate the absence of possible editorial proficiency and reviewer bias with submissions made by researchers for whom English is not a native language. On the other hand, other researchers (Aydinli & Mathews, 2000; Belcher, 2007; Cho, 2004) state that multilingual scholars face discrimination with regard to manuscripts they submit to English-medium journals.

It is worth mentioning that African researchers may face biases that have not been discussed in mainstream ERPP literature. There is evidence that global scientific systems tend to overlook and undervalue African research (Maclure, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2020). Besides, even with research about the continent, more credibility seems to be given to academics based in the Global North. For instance, in the field of education, it was found that articles co-authored with researchers based outside the African region have more than twice as many citations (Mitchell et al., 2020). Research published in collaboration with researchers from the Global North receives 9.7 citations per publication on average while the average citations for collaborations not involving partners from the Global North was found to be 3.8. Africa-based researchers are also less likely to have their publications accepted for publication in international journals, even in fields like African Studies, thereby adding to the “credibility deficit” that researchers based in the continent experience (Briggs & Weathers, 2016; Walker & Martinez-Vargas, 2020).

2.5. Theoretical Underpinnings

This section presents the two main theoretical perspectives that are used to inform the study. In the subsequent sections, Bourdieu’s views on language as capital and decolonial perspectives that inform the research conceptualisation and analysis are presented. The interplay between the

theories and how it would lead to a more nuanced understanding of the study is also discussed towards the end of the chapter.

These theoretical choices have the explanatory power to render the research questions and the contexts more intelligible. Bourdieu's theory is seen as appropriate to examine the issue of the status of English in the universities as an asset or as a possible liability. Critical decolonial theoretical perspectives are used to address the use of English and its possible implications for rethinking higher education considering coloniality and initiatives on Africanising and indigenising academia and research. This research also presents new considerations to the language question not only by exploring the implication of using English for research vis à vis its function as a medium of teaching and learning, but also by attempting to adopt multidisciplinary theoretical perspectives drawn from sociolinguistics and critical decolonial studies. This theoretical framework is also designed with the idea that no single theory completely explains a complex phenomenon as a language choice for research and knowledge production in higher education. The choice of multiple theoretical perspectives is also expected to add theoretical validity to the research. As Johnson (1997) states, the use of multiple theoretical perspectives can be used as a tool to ensure validity by helping the researcher interpret and explain data from multiple perspectives.

Combining the perspectives is also grounded in establishing an understanding of the research questions by transcending dialectical and conceptual dichotomies in favour of dialectical pluralism. For instance, this approach is adopted in (re)conceptualising the often dichotomised epistemic relationship between the local and universal through critical universalism. To interrogate the implications of using English for research, this study deploys a universalistic understanding of knowledge that at the same time takes into serious consideration multiple particularities. This understanding of universalism in its 'places' is based on ideas underpinning the work of Houdontonji (2005) that are further expounded by Dübgen and Skupien (2019). Transcending dialectical dichotomies also extends to the way agency and structure are conceptualised in this study. Bourdieu's views on agency and structure are relevant as he has adopted a more reconciliatory and relational route. He asserts that social relationships in a given field can be viewed in terms of being spaces where external structures are internalised into the

habitus while the actions of agents externalise interactions between actors into the social relationships that guide this study.

Another attempt at transcending binaries also extends to the often normalised ways of conceptualising centre-periphery relations. The argument here is that the language and knowledge production dynamics that categorise the world into the inner circle, outer circle, or expanding circle (Kachru, 1985) or centre and periphery (Altbach, 2009) have limited efficacy when it comes to understanding systems that fall within the same category. The claim here is not to categorically dismiss such hierarchies but to be critical in line with the arguments made by Teferra (2003b) that the centre-periphery paradigm, while relevant for making distinctions where considerable differences exist, is simplistic and has limited efficacy in terms of explaining dynamics where marked variations between nations are not there. This thesis is written in agreement with Teferra's (2003b, p. 10) assertion that the centre-periphery binary would not "capture the subtle and minor, but significant, differences within African countries". In agreement with Teferra, this thesis is, therefore, grounded on the idea that it may not be that significant to frame and conceptualise the state of scientific knowledge generation, access, consumption, communication, and dissemination using the centre-periphery paradigm that simply collapses African contexts into one category of "periphery" (Teffera, 2003b, p. 11).

2.5.1. Pierre Bourdieu on Language Capital

French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu's work on capital is chosen to develop a comprehensive and nuanced analysis of English and research in the contexts selected by going beyond the functionalist, structuralist and post-structuralist perspectives of language. Bourdieu's theory of language capital is deemed to have a much higher explanatory power to address the objectives of this research, for this investigation focuses on interrogating aspects of the English language that involve universities' and researchers' national and global standing, as well as their identity going beyond addressing the mere utility of the language. Bourdieu (1991) considers language not just a communication method but also a mechanism of power, as a particular kind of *field* transcending all *fields* (Bourdieu, 1977). He asserts that communication and message content

remain unintelligible if it does not take into account the totality of the structure of the power positions that are present, yet invisible, in the exchange.

From a linguistic perspective, explaining the efficacy and explanatory power of Bourdieu's approach to language, Thompson (1991) states:

One of the merits of the work of French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu is that it avoids to a large extent the shortcomings which characterise some of the sociological and socio-theoretical writings on language (such as formal and structural linguistics), while at the same time offering an original sociological perspective on linguistic phenomena. (p. 2)

At the heart of his analysis of language and power is what Bourdieu calls *symbolic dominance* or, as Gramsci (1971) would have it, the hegemony of one language over other languages and the possible implications of inequality resulting from that. Explaining the need to dig deeper into inquiring how dominant cultures and languages, English in this case, need to be critically looked into, Bourdieu (1991) states:

The dominant culture produces ... ideological effect by concealing the function of division beneath the function of communication: the culture which unifies (the medium of communication) is also the culture which separates (the instrument of distinction) and which legitimates distinctions by forcing all other cultures (designated as sub-cultures) to define themselves by their distance from the dominant culture. (p. 167)

Exploring the role English plays as a possible unifier or "instrument of distinction" of research activities in the selected universities is seen as worth undertaking in light of the above statement. Bourdieu's assertion is important for this research when considering the distribution (English) language capital might play a role in deciding one's position as a researcher or an institution's position. Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) argue that access to a legitimate (dominant) language, in this case, academic English, is not equal. They also state that some monopolise linguistic competence. When considering the case of African research universities, this research argues that

the processes through which national and international conventions and academic cultures seem to value one language and undervalue others must be systematically understood. Through this process, we will better understand how the perceived amount of English language capital both inculcates research knowledge, imposes domination, and affects the participation of African universities in the research discourse.

Another concept related to symbolic dominance relevant to informing this study is Bourdieu's view of language as having symbolic power (prestige associated with having a legitimate status). Without Bourdieu's concept of viewing a language as a possible instrument of exerting possible symbolic power only by assessing institutional and researchers' competence of the language, it would be difficult to come up with a nuanced and critical analysis of English in African Higher Education. The literature review indicates that the implications of studying English from the vantage point of prestige and status attached to it are crucial. An annual report issued by the British Council states that the English language is England's greatest "invisible, God-given asset" at a time where the country no longer has the economic and political clout to dominate the world, can serve as a case in point to illustrate the above assertion. The document notes that British influence will endure through the high demand for the language (British Council Annual Report 1983–84, p. 9).

Bourdieu (1991, p. 164) argues that "...symbolic power is that invisible power which can be exercised only with the complicity of those who do not want to know that they are subject to it or even that they themselves exercise it". The postcolonial critic Wa Thiong'o (1994, p. 5) also affirms Bourdieu's assertion stating that African intelligentsia "...even at their most radical and pro-African position in their sentiments and articulation of problems... still took it as axiomatic that the renaissance of African cultures lie in the languages of Europe". Hence, the imperative to inquire if researchers and selected institutions are somehow complicit in giving English even more symbolic power, undermining African cultures and issues in the process.

Other Bourdieusian perspectives adopted for the study are operationalised as follows:

Linguistic capital refers to the standardised forms of speech or writing used by dominant social groups, thus legitimising their authority (Gal, 1989; Woolard, 1985). Relating linguistic capital

to class, Bourdieu states, “What expresses itself through the linguistic habitus is the whole class habitus of which it is one dimension” (1991, p. 83). For this study, language capital is seen as an aspect of cultural capital that may have implications for research universities’ access to other forms of capital and habitus in general.

Cultural Capital refers to “knowledge, skills and other cultural acquisitions, as exemplified by educational or technical qualifications” (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 14). The concepts of language capital and linguistic capital are used interchangeably in this study.

Field refers to “A separate social universe having its own laws of functioning independently of politics and the economy” (Bourdieu & Johnson, 1993, p. 162). In Bourdieu’s approach, language is considered as a field.

2.5.2. Decolonial Perspectives on Language and Higher Education

Decolonial perspectives are seen as relevant to understanding the implications of using English for research since the language question is often raised when rethinking higher education considering issues such as coloniality of power, the cognitive empire and complicity.

Relating Bourdieu’s concept of language as a way of exerting symbolic dominance to Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s perspective on decolonising the mind, Alexander (2003) calls for a change in “linguistic habitus” in African higher education. Ngugi wa Thiong’o (1986) advocates the use of indigenous African languages and argues that the dominance of English in African academic discourse is a remnant of the continent’s colonial past and needs to be reconsidered.

The real aim of colonialism was to control the people’s wealth ... (but) economic and political control can never be complete or effective without mental control. To control a people's culture is to control their tools of self-definition in relation to others. For colonialism, this involved two aspects of the same process: the destruction or the deliberate undervaluing of a people’s culture, their art, dances, religions, history, geography, education, orature and literature, and the conscious elevation of the language of the coloniser. The domination of a people’s language by

the languages of the colonising nations was crucial to the domination of the mental universe of the colonised. (Ngugi wa Thiong'o, 1986, p. 16)

Bourdieu's conception of the potential of language as an instrument of promoting inequality or symbolic oppression seems to be powerfully articulated in the works of Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986). Mazrui and Mazrui (1998) agree with Ngugi wa Thiong'o regarding his vision of decolonising African minds through the use of indigenous languages:

... intellectual and scientific dependence in Africa may be inseparable from linguistic dependence. The linguistic quest for liberation, therefore, must not be limited to freeing the European languages from their oppressive meanings in so far as Black and other subjugated people the world over are concerned, but must also seek to promote African languages, especially in academia, as one of the strategies for promoting greater intellectual and scientific independence from the West. (pp. 64–65)

This study takes a language perspective on decolonising research, capitalising on the works of decolonial and postcolonial critics. In doing so, however, an attempt to come up with a more nuanced analysis of English in African higher education is made, considering both colonial legacies and contemporary socio-political and cultural contextual issues. As Pennycook (2000) underscores:

Any concept of the global hegemony of English must, therefore, be understood in terms of the complex sum of contextualised understanding of social hegemonies ...but such hegemonies are also filled with complex local contradictions with the resistance and appropriations that are a crucial part of the postcolonial context. (p. 117)

For this study, decolonisation refers to the ongoing process of radically and critically rethinking higher education considering contextual realities (Le Grange, 2016; Mbembe, 2015). This implies, among other things, interrogating the implications of Eurocentric and colonial epistemic hegemony and the resultant epistemic injustices (Heleta, 2016; Lwandle & Yallem, 2021). It can

be seen as a move towards critical universalism (Dübgen & Skupien, 2019) that sees endogenous knowledges that have been marginalised and invisibilised by colonialism as part of the greater knowledge of humanity. Decolonisation does not refer to the idea of going back in time and romanticising the past and indigenous knowledges (Lange, 2019) or as the promotion of Ethnoscience (Hountondji, 2005). This research also makes a distinction between decolonial initiatives and what Prah (2004) calls populism, “Populism in Africa has been disposed to the glorification and sentimental celebration of the African past. It attempts to evoke an idyllic past shorn of slavery, feudalism, war rivalry, and technological backwardness. The roughness or unevenness of African history is glossed over or silenced. While populism decried imperialism, it is also short on truth about old Africa” (Prah, 2004, p. 96).

2.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, the systematic review has made it clear that there is a need to conduct research on the implications of using English for research and publication in that the focus of research thus far has been on the role the language plays in teaching and learning or as a medium of instruction. After establishing this gap, the next section of the literature review focuses on presenting and analysing state-of-the-art research on English for research and publication purposes (ERPP) by providing a global overview. This section suggested that while there is some research conducted on ERPP mainly coming from bilingual contexts in Europe, the dimensions this research seeks to explore, such as the implications of using English for quality, quantity and perceived relevance of research, as well as other research related capital such as funding and collaboration, remain under-researched. The question of critically rethinking higher education and the use of the English language for research considering the discourses of internationalisation of higher education (which is often an outward-looking phenomenon) on the one hand, and considering questions on decolonisation and Africanisation that often call for more inward-looking higher education systems, on the other, still remain one the unexplored terrains of ERPP in higher education.

In the section discussing the theories used to inform the study, I have presented the precepts drawn from Bourdieu’s perspectives on language as an aspect of cultural capital and perspectives

on decolonisation. These theoretical perspectives informing the study are complementary in that they are designed in such a way that one theory scaffolds the weakness of the other in terms of addressing the research questions and objectives. When it comes to investigating micro, macro levels of analysis as to what the level of English language proficiency would mean to researchers' access to collaborations and funding, Bourdieu's perspectives and concepts on linguistic capital, linguistic habitus and linguistic market are used. When it comes to reflecting on the language question in terms of rethinking higher education, perspectives drawn from Africanisation and decolonisation scholarships are deemed to be more appropriate.



CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

As argued in the literature review and in the conceptual framework for the study, there is a gap in terms of what the implications of using English for research are, especially for multilingual researchers and higher education institutions on the African continent such as Addis Ababa University and Eduardo Mondlane universities. To accomplish the research objectives of specifically investigating: (1) the norms, rules, and values involved in choosing English for research; (2) the implications of English language capital on other forms of research-related values such as funding collaborations; (3) the implications of using English on aspects of research productivity, quality and relevance; and (4) the implications of using English in light of renewed discussions on rethinking higher education in African contexts, a multiple-case study based on a primarily qualitative research design is seen to be appropriate.

In this chapter, the methodological strategies and choices used in the study are presented. The first section presents an overview of choosing a primarily qualitative methodology. This is followed by a presentation on the multiple-case study design adopted for the thesis. The instruments of data collection, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, limitations of the research methodology and discussion on the measures to ensure methodological rigour in the study are discussed. This follows a presentation on procedures undertaken to ensure ethical procedures are upheld for the research. Finally, challenges related to conducting fieldwork are discussed.

3.2. Qualitative Research Design

Although it is buttressed by bibliometric data as presented in Chapter Four, a fundamentally qualitative research paradigm is preferred for this study, considering the open-ended nature of the research. Rather than seeking measurable outcomes and with specific and narrow questions, the exploratory nature of the research calls for a more open-ended qualitative inquiry. The research adopts a constructivist ontological paradigm viewing the linguistic landscapes in the selected case study universities as socially constructed. This is considered as an appropriate

choice given the exploratory nature of the study where an in-depth analysis of participants' views of the phenomenon is being studied, while, at the same time, recognising their backgrounds and experiences of using English for research.

A multiple case-study design is adopted to ensure an in-depth and comprehensive understanding of issues pertaining to the English language and research in the selected African universities considering their historical, linguistic and other contextual specificities. As Adelman et al. (1976) state, researchers use case study design to especially explore and inquire how a phenomenon (English language for this study) behaves in a given context. The following figure adopted from (Creswell, 2012, p. 466) illustrates the kind of case study used for this study.

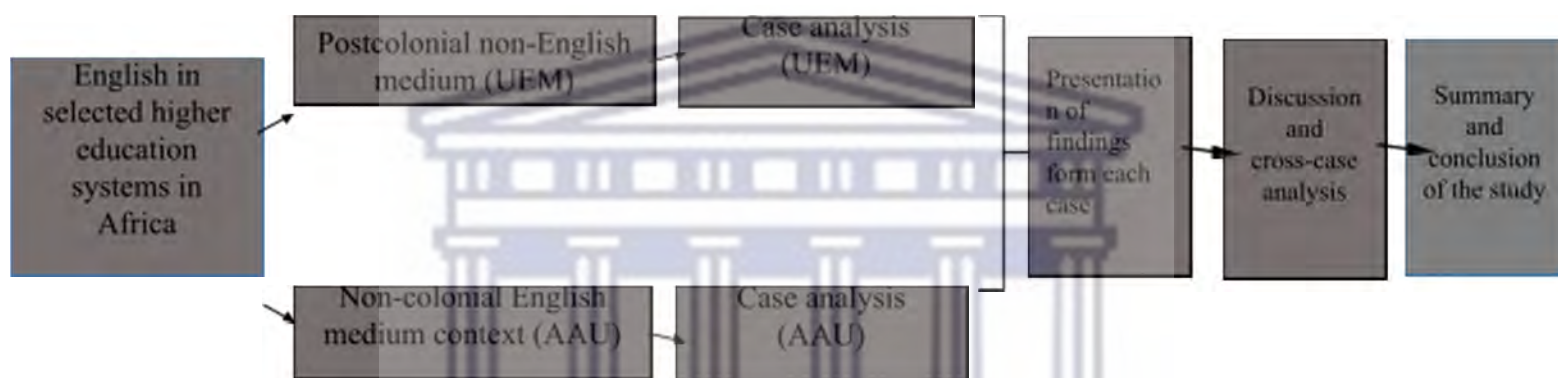


Figure 3.1. Multiple or collective case study design

3.3. Multiple (Collective) Case Study Research Design

According to Creswell (2012), a multiple instrumental case study or a collective case study presents several cases that provide insight into an issue or theme. It is a type of instrumental case study where "...we gave a research question, puzzlement, a need for general understanding and feel that we may get insight into the question by studying a particular case" (Stake, 1995, p. 3). For this study, the collective or multiple-case study design is chosen for several reasons. First, the research questions and objectives call for a selection of contexts where English is used in multilingual contexts on the African continent so that the phenomenon (the expanding use of the language for research) is studied considering the views of researchers, editors, and university

leaders in specific, bounded contexts and settings. To this end, the flagship universities selected in Ethiopia and Mozambique are expected to be instrumental in terms of enhancing our understanding of the use of English for research in multilingual contexts. Secondly, as Baxter and Jack (2008) state, and as presented in the data presentation and analysis section of the study, the multiple-case study enables data analysis to be undertaken in two ways (a) within each setting or context (see individual chapters about AAU and UEM), and (b) across each setting (see the chapter on the cross-case analysis). This type of analysis is intended to provide depth and nuance regarding participants' views on the implications of using English for research. Lastly, the case study method is expected to scaffold the theoretical framework adopted for the study by enabling the researcher to analyse how the implications of using English for research and publication purposes are perceived at the institutional, individual and to some extent at systemic levels.

The theoretical orientations adopted for this study are, in turn, expected to enrich the methodological choice made with regard to the study design for the research. In their attempt at determining the complexities of conducting case study research in higher education, Jones et al. (2006) state:

Because case study is both a unit of analysis and a methodology without a presumed philosophical tradition attached to it, it is both common and important to see case studies described with an anchor in a particular theoretical perspective.... This connection to a theoretical perspective both adds philosophical richness and depth to a case study and provides direction for the design of the case study research project. The case study methodology then becomes emblematic of the philosophical tradition and the particular unit of analysis. (pp. 53–54)

Just as the pragmatic theoretical orientation of the study is based on transcending binaries, this collective case study draws from both “interpretivist” and critical realist orientations of qualitative research as explained in the work of Schwandt and Gates (2018, p. 344). Even though they might sound dichotomous, the complementarity of the approaches is also emphasised in the work of Schwandt and Gates (2018). It can be regarded as ‘interpretivist’ since

(1) It views knowledge (scientific, linguistic knowledge) as historically situated and entangled in power relationships (2) Constructivist in viewing the world as socially made (3) The research interest on language and symbolic systems. In line with interpretivist traditions, in this case-based research, attention is given to the primacy of understanding the case study contexts in line with Flyvbjerg's (2006) argument that case-based knowledge is always context-dependent. Prefiguring this, Stake (2005, p. 443) emphasises designing a case study "to optimise understanding of the case rather than to generalise beyond it". It can be regarded as being driven by critical realist views in that even though the focus is made to study the implications of using the English language in the two universities; an attempt is made to make "causal explanations beyond the case at hand while attending carefully to the limits of such generalisations" (Schwandt & Gates, 2018, p. 345).

This methodological choice is also made, cognisant of the considerable contribution of case studies in terms of articulating higher education research and higher education studies as an interdisciplinary field of study. In support of this, Daniel and Harland (2018, p. 73) state that with "careful use of evidence in supporting claims, and if it is of quality, it (case-based research) should have the potential to create an impact on the field and practice". To ensure the quality of the studies, any attempt at making generalisations in this study is therefore made "only through the power and worth of the ideas produced, and how these contributions are seen more broadly and the impact they make in the higher education community" (Daniel & Harland, 2018, p. 42). Validity measures that Yin (2018) suggests for case studies are also adopted.

As per the classifications of Stake (2005), the case study design adopted for this research can be considered as an instrumental collective case study. A collective case study focuses on several instrumental cases in order to draw some conclusions or theorise about a general condition or phenomenon. In other ways of categorisation, this multiple-case study research is designed to be descriptive (Schwandt & Gates, 2018) and holistic (Yin, 2018). This research can be regarded as a meso level case study since the selected higher education institutions are the unit of analysis (Schwandt & Gates, 2018).

3.4. Case Selection

In multiple-case study research, researchers select more than one case to achieve some kind of representation (Cousin, 2005, p. 422). Even though representation and generalisability are not the core objectives of this study, each case selected is instrumental in learning about the implications of using English for research in multilingual contexts where the language is not the primary medium of day-to-day communication. The cases are selected keeping in mind what Stake (1995) states, “A positive example... may increase the confidence that readers have their (or the researcher’s) generalisation” (p. 8).

Concerning multiple instrumental case studies, or all case studies for that matter, a crucial question that researchers need to focus on and engage with is “what is this a case of” (Schwandt & Gates, 2018, p. 342). This particular aspect is discussed in detail in Chapter Four. It is, however, worth stating here that the cases were selected to “maximise what we can learn” from them (Stake, 1995). In addition to this, based on Creswell (2007), the researcher selected the case study universities for the quality of the sites in informing an understanding of the phenomenon the research questions are trying to address. The cases are also selected for their likelihood of leading us to a better understanding, and even perhaps to “modifying generalisations” (Stake, 1995) about the topic of the research. Even though several challenges marred the data collection processes as presented in the last part of this chapter, the cases were also selected for the relative ease of access they provided. As Stake (1995, p. 4) states, “if we can, we need to pick cases which are easy to get and are hospitable to our inquiry, perhaps for which a prospective informant can be identified and with actors (the people studied) willing to comment on certain draft materials”.

3.5. Semi-Structured In-depth Interviews as Data Collection Tools

Main stakeholders who are concerned with the issue of English and research in the selected universities are participants of this study. Researchers across disciplines, research managers, academic journal editors and experts who specialise in studying language and research universities are involved in the in-depth interviews. A total number of 40 interviews, 20 from each case-study context, were conducted.

3.5.1. Interview Sampling

This qualitative study uses purposeful and convenience sampling. Purposeful sampling is used to recruit researchers, institutional leaders, experts in language and higher education research and journal editors. Researcher participants were selected, making sure they come from different disciplines and levels of research experience. For researchers within the same discipline, a convenient sampling is used although their level of research experience is considered as a parameter to include them in the study.

Disciplinary differences are added as one dimension to recruit researchers considering current scholarship on English as a language of research and publication. As Kuteeva and Airey (2014) argue, when it comes to English language use in higher education, taking into consideration disciplinary differences and differences in knowledge structures might be relevant. Karmi (2014) also adds that there are linguistic and epistemological dimensions associated with disciplinary differences. Disciplinary differences are also noticed when it comes to research in higher education studies, research epistemologies, structures and cultures (Rorkens, 1983).

Scholarship on the sociology of knowledges and higher education studies was consulted (Braxton, 1995; Becher & Trowler, 2001) to make decisions on selecting which disciplines to include in the study. As it can be observed from the bibliometric overview of research in the universities that demonstrate varying research output, it was considered a worthy endeavour to investigate whether any language-related dimensions might have implications for research productivity and researchers across disciplines. The two research areas selected to recruit researchers for the study are:

- Engineering, medicine and health sciences, natural sciences
- Social sciences, arts and humanities.

Besides the works of the scholars mentioned above, the OECD and the Web of Science disciplinary categories were consulted.

Three researchers were chosen from each category, considering the level of their research experience and level of productivity. Since it is one of the indicators for promoting researchers, the academic rank is used to recruit participants; these decisions were made consulting faculty deans and heads of research in individual universities and consulting the list generated from Web of Science. Three levels of productivity were considered when selecting participants based on their level of experience:

- Most productive researchers—full professors and associate professors
- A researcher with a relatively moderate level of productivity—assistant professors
- Early career researcher—recent PhD graduates and PhD students.

The sampling is, however, done keeping in mind what Curry and Lillis (2019, p. 5) warned about using researchers' level of experience as a parameter to recruit research participants—"Framing research about multilingual scholars' practices primarily in terms of a novice-to-expert trajectory devalues the expertise of experienced academics and may preclude researchers from acknowledging and further exploring scholars' linguistic and rhetorical assets and resources."

3.5.2. Role as Interviewer

In line with Dornyei's (2007) suggestion, my role as the interviewer was to follow the interview guide and provide guidance and direction in the interview process while at the same time enabling and allowing the interviewee to elaborate and explain issues about the research. A reflexive tool, "participant objectivation" (Bourdieu, 2003), was adopted as the researcher conducts the interviews with researchers and other authority figures in the case study contexts. Bourdieu (2003, p. 282) explains participant objectivation as "objectivation of the subject of objectivation, of the analysing subject – in short, of the researcher herself". Bourdieu (2003) argues that the social world (social origins, position in a scientific field, the trajectory in social space and other demographic variables) that made both the researcher, and the conscious and unconscious theoretical perspectives that she/he engages in her research need to be "objectivised". In this case, it means that during designing research questions and conducting interviews, I need to be aware of my positionality as a PhD student conducting interviews with professors and researchers in the respective universities. I also needed to be fully aware of what

my previous experience as an English language lecturer and research manager in an Ethiopian public university might reflect in the way I designed and conducted the interviews.

My role as interviewer involved a balancing act of reflexively accounting for the impact of my own habitus on the project while at the same time avoiding the rigidities of positivistic ways of conducting interviews. This is done keeping in mind Scheurich's (1995) assertions on the matter. Scheurich states that the interviewer is a person historically and contextually located, carrying unavoidable conscious and unconscious motives, desires, feelings and biases—hardly a neutral tool. Scheurich (1995) also maintains that "...the conventional, positivist view of interviewing vastly underestimates the complexity, uniqueness, and indeterminateness of each one-to-one human interaction" (p. 241).

3.5.3. The Semi-Structured Interviews

The semi-structured, in-depth individual interviews for this study (see Appendices D and E for interview guides) were conducted using the sociological interview approach, as suggested in the work of Bourdieu (1993). In order to give room to interview participants to question and reflect on their views, the interviews are conceived in line with what Bourdieu (1993, p. 915) refers to as "provoked and accompanied self-analysis". According to Bourdieu, interviews are deemed "provoked" because they take place when requested or "provoked" by researchers to pursue the object of their study. They are "accompanied" because the interviewer must accompany the interviewees, according to the sense conveyed by their remarks.

The length of the interviews conducted for this study ranged from 30 minutes to an hour and a half. Except for a few interviews conducted in Amharic at the request of participants, the rest of the interviews were conducted in English. In Mozambique, all researchers were okay with being interviewed in English, although I offered to arrange for an interpreter to assist with English-Portuguese translation. This might be related to the participants' realisation that I am a non-Mozambican who is not well versed in Portuguese or other Mozambican languages. With the permission of the interviewees, the majority of the interviews were also recorded, while a few did not permit the recording of the interviews.

3.6. Procedures for Data Collection

Three rounds of data collection were conducted both at Addis Ababa and Eduardo Mondlane universities. In addition to going to the universities in person, and in the case of UEM conducting Skype interviews, conferences were also used to collect data. For instance, the Comparative and International Higher Education Society's conference (CIES) was used to interview high-level officials of Addis Ababa University, whereas the Higher Education in Africa and Asia and Latin America symposium in Addis Ababa was used to interview researchers and university leaders from both Ethiopia and Mozambique. In Ethiopia, events organised by the Ethiopian Academy of Sciences (EAS) on higher education research in Ethiopia served as a good occasion to establish contact with researchers, research managers and policy makers both at the institutional and national levels. The seminars and symposiums organised by the doctoral programmes in higher education studies in Cape Town, where some Mozambican and Ethiopian researchers and postgraduate students were present also served as avenues to collect data.

3.7. Data Analysis

Stake (1995) emphasises the importance of both description and interpretation in collective case study presentation and analysis. Emphasising the importance of the detailed description of cases, Stake (2005, p. 452) states:

Qualitative researchers have strong expectations that the reality perceived by people inside and outside the case will be social, cultural, situational, and contextual—and they want the interactivity of functions and contexts as well described as possible.

An attempt has been made to describe the contexts in Chapter Four, considering this emphasis. Emphasising interpretation, Stake (1995, p. 12) states, “Ultimately the interpretations of the researcher are likely to be emphasised more than the interpretations of those people studied, but the qualitative case researcher tries to preserve the *multiple realities*, the different and even contradictory views of what is happening” .

The analysis of the data is thematic through building data from particular to general themes. After the interviews were conducted, first detailed notes on the context and conduct of the interview were prepared. Secondly, the interviews are transcribed in full. Thirdly, interpretation resulting from each interview was made considering research objectives and theoretical perspectives before making a comprehensive data analysis. Transcripts are coded manually to interpret the meaning of data (Creswell, 2014). The level of analysis of the research is mainly at the meso (institutional) and micro (researcher) levels, but the research also includes analysis of macro (national level) and supranational levels of analysis whenever deemed relevant. To aid the data analysis and interpretation process, I also chronicled the research process and reflected on the various aspects of the literature, theory, and data, using a research journal as suggested in the work of Richards (2005).

3.7.1. Transcribing and Coding Interview Data

The following steps were followed to transcribe interview data collected from the interviews. The interview transcription process started while in the field to collect the data. Most of the interviews were recorded, and the transcription process started when the researcher was in the field. First, all transcriptions were read. This was followed by a careful reading of individual transcriptions and labelling relevant pieces of the transcribed information. Then decisions were made regarding which codes are important to create categories by bringing several codes together. The categories are then labelled, and decisions are made as to which are the most relevant. Then the final write-up of the results and interpretations is made.

3.7.2. Cross-Case Analysis

According to Creswell (2014), compared to single case study research, a multiple-case study research design opens the door for more research and analysis into a given topic. By gathering data from the two-case study universities, I was able to conduct not only individual case analysis within both cases, but I was also able to conduct a cross-case analysis. Creswell (2014) states a cross-case analysis identifies themes across each case. After completing the case analysis for the individual institutions, I conducted the cross-case analysis by reviewing the themes created from the data for the studies. I did so by looking for commonalities and differences in themes and

responses for both cases. This cross-case analysis led to a more nuanced understanding of the data while recognising similarities and differences between the case-study institutions.

3.8. Methodological Limitations

This study seeks to understand and to increase our understanding of the implication of using English for research. In doing so, however, there are some methodological limitations worth reflecting on. First, the number of cases selected might not be enough to make more significant generalisations. More cases could illuminate more insights into the matter. For example, had the researcher's attempts been successful in adding a university in South Africa where the language and higher education question is hotly debated with layers of British colonialism, apartheid, and post-apartheid praise of African languages underpinning the discussions, this would have yielded a more insightful analysis. Including case study universities from North Africa and Francophone Africa could have provided a more comprehensive analysis. Given the limited time and resources for the study, doing so was not possible. The second limitation could be related to the qualitative nature of the study. Although an attempt has been made to objectify the data for this study using systematic reviews, bibliometric analysis, it might be insightful to conduct quantitative research, especially on the relationship between English and other forms of research-related capital. The decision to undertake this qualitative study is made with the realisation that the broad and exploratory nature of this study, which is informed by multiple theoretical perspectives, calls for the use of qualitative approaches.

3.9. Ensuring Validity and Reliability

Researcher bias has been indicated as one of the weaknesses of qualitative studies, with accusations that qualitative researchers often find out what they want to find out and compile the results (Johnson, 1997). It, thus, becomes vital for case-based qualitative studies such as this one to account for what measures are taken to minimise researcher bias and ensure the validity of the research. A significant concern to address while discussing data collection for case study research is the issue of validity and reliability (Yin, 2013). However, some might argue that achieving them might be difficult due to the subjective nature of selecting cases and collecting data.

Different tactics, as suggested by Yin (2013), are used to ensure construct validity (correct operational measure for concepts), internal validity (establishing causal relationships) and reliability (repeatability of operations of the case studies). To ensure construct validity in this study, multiple sources of evidence were used, the chain of events was explained, and key informants reviewed the draft case study report during the data collection process. To guarantee internal validity, pattern matchings and explanation buildings were undertaken, and rival explanations were addressed while collecting data. Case study protocols and case study databases were developed to ensure reliable research. To increase the validity of interview instruments, pre-testing and getting feedback from colleagues and researchers working in the interrelated fields of higher education studies, language studies, and postcolonial studies was undertaken. It is, however, conceded that ensuring external validity (establishing the domain for generalisation) could not be guaranteed for this research owing to the limited number of case studies selected, and the qualitative nature of the study design. Table 3.1, taken from Yin (2018, p. 87), summarises the strategies that were adopted to ensure validity and reliability in this study.

Table 3.1

Tests, tactics and research stages to ensure validity and reliability of case study research

Tests	Case study tactic	Research stage in which tactic is addressed
Construct validity	• Use multiple sources of evidence	• Data collection and composition
	• Have key informants review draft case study reports	
Internal validity	• Do pattern matching	• Data analysis
	• Do explanation building	• Data analysis
	• Address rival explanations	• Data analysis
	• Use logic models	• Data analysis
Reliability	• Use case study protocol	• Data collection
	• Develop a case study database	• Data collection
	• Maintain a chain of evidence	• Data collection

3.9.1. Construct Validity

To ensure construct validity, multiple sources of evidence are used (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), the chain of events is explained, and key informants review the draft case study report during the data collection process. To further enhance construct validity, it is worth mentioning that I personally conducted the interviews as opposed to using researchers and secondary sources of interview data (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). Along with the interviews, copious amounts of observational field notes were also taken.

Another strategy used in this study to ensure this kind of validity is peer debriefing. As many methodologists suggested, peer debriefing enhances the trustworthiness and credibility of a qualitative research project (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Having transcripts and drafts of the evolving case studies reviewed by peers enhanced the construct rigour, credibility and trustworthiness of the study. The peer debriefing conducted for this study included receiving feedback from peers before and after the study. Before going to the field, this process involved piloting interview guides and discussions with experts. After data collection, peers were also involved in the rereading of data and reading of the final report.

Yet another strategy that the study deployed to ensure construct validity is establishing a chain of events or evidence to enable readers to trace the pathways the researcher has taken from research questions to conclusions (Yin, 2018). Accounting for this process involved reflecting on data collection and analysis procedures, including reflections on planned versus actual activities (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). Describing other aspects of the circumstances of data collection, such as institutional access and the procedures of selecting interviewees, were also undertaken to ensure construct validity. Other measures included elaborating data analysis procedures through a detailed description of contexts (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). All these aspects were considered when conducting the fieldwork and writing the final thesis.

3.9.2. Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to a researcher's capacity to construct plausible causal arguments convincing enough to warrant the research conclusions (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). In other

words, it refers to addressing the methodological concern that Silverman (2005) refers to as “anecdotalism” by demonstrating that the study findings are “genuinely based on critical investigation of all their data and do not depend on a few well-chosen examples” (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010, p. 713). One way this study addressed this concern was through ensuring data saturation, where the data collection in the respective case-study institutions was stopped when the ability to obtain new information was attained (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Guest et al., 2006).

Another concern of ensuring internal validity this study sought to address has to do with the broader concern of making inferences. With regard to this, Yin’s (2018, p. 91) questions were considered throughout the data analysis process: “Is the inference correct? Have all the rival explanations and possibilities been considered? Is the evidence convergent? Does it appear to be airtight?”

Although internal validity is a primary concern for explanatory case studies where researchers try to explain the relationship between variables (Yin, 2018), additional strategies for ensuring internal validity were used for this study. One of these strategies was formulating a clear framework for the study that presents how the study variables are related to each other, as Yin (2018) suggested. Another measure taken was to demonstrate that the framework of the study variables was directly derived from the literature through diagrams or verbal descriptions. What Yin (2018) refers to as pattern matching, where researchers are supposed to compare observed data with “either predicted ones or patterns established in previous studies and different contexts” (Gibbert et al., 2008, p. 1466) was also made part of the data analysis procedure of this study. The other strategy of ensuring internal validity adopted in this study was theoretical triangulation, where findings were verified from multiple angles, drawing from diverse theoretical perspectives to inform their data collection and analysis (Gibbert et al., 2008).

3.9.3. Reliability

Reliability for this research refers to the idea that other researchers could arrive at similar conclusions and insights if they follow the steps the earlier researcher followed. For this to happen, measures were taken to ensure that the research is free from random errors (Yin, 2018). To improve the reliability of the case studies, protocols that detail how the study was conducted

were created, and case databases that included interview transcripts, observational data and other preliminary conclusions were set up. Accounting for all the steps as if someone were looking over my shoulders (Yin, 2018) was also a strategy I used to increase the reliability of this case-study-based research.

3.9.4. Researcher Subjectivity and Reflexivity

Another issue worth mentioning concerning the qualitative approach adopted is the issue of reflexivity. Stake (2005, p. 449) states that the case study involves a considerable amount of “brainwork” that is observational and, even more relevant, a reflective one. In this research, this is kept in mind, and reflective tools, especially those of Bourdieu, are used to conduct the study. All the necessary steps are taken to have a higher awareness of the role of the researcher in “openly discussing his or her role in the study in a way that honours and respects the site and participants” (Creswell, 2012, p. 474). As Okely (1992, p. 2) notes, “those who protect the self from scrutiny could as well be labelled as self-satisfied and arrogant in presuming their presence and relations with others to be unproblematic”. Reflexivity as an ethical concern implies that I needed to reflect critically on my positionality and power in the research process and its inclusiveness and barriers to participation (Banks et al., 2013), especially since, as a PhD student, I dealt with university researchers and leaders having different levels of experience and linguistic backgrounds. It is worth noting that reflexivity is an important concept for this research not only as an ethical concern but also as a methodological one, for an approach to research based on Bourdieu, “Only a reflexive method guards against an overly constructed interpretation, where the researchers’ conclusions can be regarded as the uncovering of a God-given truth” (Grenfell & James, 1998, p. 177). Another issue pertaining to positionality that I needed to reflect on continually was my preconceived notions about the English language in African universities, formed from my more than eight years of experience teaching the English language in Ethiopian universities and working with researchers from different disciplines.

3.10. Research Ethics

This research is conducted with the idea that “The value of research depends as much on its ethical veracity as on the novelty of its discoveries” (Walliman, 2011, p. 267). The research is

guided by the codes of the University of Western Cape Higher Degrees Committee, which provides guidelines relating to the quality and integrity of the study. I ensured that this research is independent and impartial by seeking informed consent and voluntary participation (Denscombe, 2010). Per the University of Western Cape Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) guidelines for obtaining informed consent, measures were taken:

- Utilising the criteria stated in the document mentioned above, the researcher developed consent forms designed to obtain informed consent from research participants.
- In line with UWC-HSSREC criteria, the consent forms were brief while being comprehensive, readable and understandable to the research participants, and were used as “a script” for face-to-face discussions with participants.
- Letters from universities that are targeted for the research shall be requested and obtained to ensure official permission to conduct the study.

Though it is considered as a low-risk study, another ethical dimension the research upholds is strictly respecting the confidentiality and anonymity of research participants and avoiding harm to participants whenever necessary during the research process. As stated in the UWC Social Sciences and Humanities research guideline, a specific guarantee of confidentiality or anonymity were provided to protect participants whenever necessary.

Anonymity was insured through:

- Using pseudonyms;
- Avoiding any unintentional revealing of participant identity; and
- Avoiding linking individual responses with participants' identities.

To ensure confidentiality:

- Codes were used on data documents such as interview guides and transcripts, instead of using identifying information. A separate document that links the research code to participants' identity information was kept locked at a separate location to restrict access;

- Electronic data were encrypted whenever necessary;
- Data were appropriately stored in secure locations; and
- Digital data were assigned security codes with passwords.

Josselson (2007, p. 537) states that “researchers have an ethical duty to protect the privacy and dignity of those whose lives we study”. To secure research data:

- Electronic data were encrypted and stored in a password protected and external hard drives locked in safe storage places;
- Encrypted electronic data were also stored in password-protected and safe cloud storage virtual spaces to ensure there is a backup; and
- Hard copies of interview transcripts were sealed and put in safe and locked storage places.

3.11. Data Collection Challenges³

In the original research proposal, three universities were selected. A South African university had to be excluded from the study after a clearance to conduct the study was denied with a statement, “After serious consideration and consultation, it has been decided not to grant permission to you to include this institution in your research project”. Given the considerably lengthy amount of time it has taken to receive this feedback, and the timeframe and funding situation of the study, it was decided to limit the study to Addis Ababa University and Eduardo Mondlane University.

³ A detailed reflexive account of my fieldwork experience is documented in: Yallem, A. T., & Dipitso, P. O. (2021). Higher education research in African contexts: Reflections from fieldwork in flagship universities in South Africa, Mozambique and Ethiopia. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 41(3), 967–980. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2021.1877626>

It also took a considerable amount of time to receive ethical clearance from my own institution and this slowed down the commencement of fieldwork. Procedures that made the student not the primary stakeholder in their research was a hindrance to the research process.

While out in the field collecting data at AAU and UEM, another challenge I faced is related to the positionality of being a PhD student interviewing academics and institutional leaders with much more experience than myself in the higher education space. I also found that my primarily qualitative interview-based study was a bit confusing for participants, especially those coming from positivist-oriented traditions in the natural sciences and engineering.

Access to the field and participants was also not easy. I found that higher education institutions and researchers who are tasked with producing new knowledge might not be that open and welcoming when they themselves become objects of research. Several interviews had to be scheduled repeatedly. I remember that in Mozambique, I had an interview that did not happen after being scheduled five times by the potential participant.

As higher education research is a relatively new area of study at both institutions, it was a bit confusing on how to go about the initial steps of collecting data. The procedures were more straightforward in UEM than AAU. In AAU, there were no clear institutional procedures to conduct the study. In UEM, I had to obtain a clearance “credential” from the Vice-Rector of the university to commence data collection. In AAU, it helped that I am relatively aware of the institutional setup and culture in Ethiopian higher education institutions.

In Mozambique, even though I was granted a three-month visa for my first round of data collection, the Mozambican regulations dictated that I was not allowed to stay more than a month at a time. And the first month I was there, three weeks were spent trying to obtain the credential mentioned above from the university authorities leading me to go back to South Africa and return to Mozambique. The additional four weeks were also not enough to complete the data collection process leading me to seek another round of data collection a year later. For the third trip the Mozambican authorities had made the visa-obtaining process even harder with the requirements of obtaining police clearance from South Africa. It was decided to collect the remaining data from Mozambique via Skype interviews.

3.12. Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed the methodological choices made to ensure the research questions and objectives are rigorously and adequately addressed. This study adds to the body of scholarship on understanding the phenomenon of using English for research for multilingual researchers and higher education institutions using a qualitative multiple-case study design. This multiple-case study analysis includes interview-based accounts of the implications of using English for research in the Addis Ababa University and Eduardo Mondlane University in terms of the quality, quantity and relevance of research on the one hand and access to research-related capital like funding and collaborations on the other. The implications of using English for research in terms of renewed discussions on rethinking higher education in African contexts is also reflected upon.



CHAPTER FOUR: THE MULTILINGUAL RESEARCH CONTEXTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed description of the case study contexts. The first section presents an overview of Ethiopia and Mozambique's linguistic and research landscapes by way of providing the national and regional contexts in which the case-study universities are located. The second part of this chapter focuses specifically on mapping the research and publication landscapes of Addis Ababa University (AAU) and Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM), considering the language of publication and variables relevant to this research such as overall productivity, funding and patterns of collaboration.

As this study investigates the implications of using English for research and publication from the vantage point of multilingual universities and researchers mainly located in contexts where the language users have learned it as a foreign or third language, the two case studies have been carefully selected to represent such contexts. Although the norms of academic publishing in English apply to researchers in these contexts as they do to researchers all around the world; for those in the case-study universities, English neither constitutes an important part of their day-to-day lived realities outside academic contexts, nor is it tied to their core personal identities. AAU is chosen for its location in a context where there is a dominant culture of using local languages in day-to-day communication, and the use of English is limited to some professional domains and academic contexts at secondary and higher education levels. UEM is chosen to explore the questions raised in this study, considering a primarily non-English medium university as the university uses Portuguese as a medium of instruction.

To map the research landscapes described in this chapter, the Scopus database is used to produce comparable results and taking into account that the countries and universities studied do not have comprehensive databases to make such an analysis. Although not comprehensive when it comes to research from the "Global South" and research, especially in the social sciences and humanities, Scopus seems to be more linguistically diverse than other research databases that claim both comprehensiveness and quality. As Vera-Baceta et al. (2019) state, Scopus's main advantage over the other comparable research database, the Web of Science (WoS), is its greater

coverage of non-English language research. According to these authors, Scopus hosts 25% more documents than WoS in languages other than English.

4.2. Country Contexts: Languages, (Higher) Education, and Publication Landscapes

4.2.1. Ethiopia

According to *Ethnologue* (Eberhard et al., 2020), 90 languages (86 indigenous and four non-indigenous) are spoken in Ethiopia, the second-most populous nation on the African continent with approximately 115 million people (UNFPA, 2020). The indigenous languages fall into Semitic, Cushitic, Omotic, and Nilo-Saharan language families. Amharic, a Semitic language, has been serving as the lingua franca and official or working language of successive regimes. In March 2020, the country also added four more languages: Afar, Afaan Oromo, Tigrigna, and Somali as official languages of the ethnicity-based federal republic consisting of 10 regional states and two special city administrations. It is worth noting here that Afaan Oromo native language speakers represent the largest ethnolinguistic group in the country, accounting for 35% of the population, whereas Somali and Tigrinya native language speakers each constitute 6% of the population. Although it does not have native speakers, English is the most widely spoken non-indigenous language, with 2% of the population reporting some proficiency level (Lewis, 2009). English in Ethiopia also enjoys a privileged status and is regarded as a marker of modernity and education (Benson, 2010; Eshetie, 2010; Lanza & Woldemariam, 2014).

Except for Amharic native language speakers, who constitute 27% of the population, Ethiopians can be considered Triglossic (Benson, 2010). People grow up speaking one or more indigenous languages and learn Amharic at school and through exposure outside the school context. English is taught as a foreign language and as a subject starting at primary school. English then shifts to the medium of instruction at secondary and tertiary levels (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE), 1994, 2019). Reflective of this sociolinguistic trend, the country's draft Roadmap for Education for 2018–2030 also advocates for trilingual education starting from Grade one with the promotion of proficiency in: mother tongue(s); the national working

language Amharic or an optional language to facilitate inter-regional mobility; and English as an international language.

By way of background, it is also worth mentioning that the Ethiopian language-in-education-policy can be considered one of the best language-in-education policies (Bogale, 2009), especially at the primary school level since more than 20 of the country's indigenous languages are currently used as medium of instruction following the stipulations of the Ethiopian National Education and Training Policy of 1994. Implementing a mother-tongue medium of instruction has been especially more successful in the relatively linguistically homogeneous regions of Oromia, Somali and Tigray (Benson, 2010; Heugh et al., 2007). However, adherence to the policy is less strict in more linguistically diverse areas (Benson, 2010). For instance, in some regions (Gambella, SNNPR, Benshangul Gumuz, Harari and Somali) and the two city administrations (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa), English is introduced as a medium of instruction as early as Grade five rather than the secondary school level as stipulated in the policy (Vujcich, 2013). This variation is understandable since the Ethiopian school system is somewhat decentralised, with decision-making powers regarding language choice devolved to the country's regions and city administrations.

Another important issue is that both the increasing use of mother-tongue medium primary education and English-medium secondary and higher education have been criticised for several reasons. Ethiopia's mother-tongue medium primary education policy has come under scrutiny for poor and uneven implementation (Bogale, 2009) and the increasing demand for English medium instruction (Benson, 2010). Jha (2013b) further claims that the multilingual policy negatively affects the development of English language proficiency and the overall quality of education. Mother-tongue medium instruction is also often politically contentious due to the complex historical, regional and ethnolinguistic dynamics and rivalries (Vujcich, 2013). Emphasising this particular dimension, Alemu and Tekleselassie (2011) and Bartley (2014) also state that sensitive issues concerning civil rights and ethnic equality could render open and genuine debates about language issues in Ethiopia difficult.

When it comes specifically to English, several scholars (Bogale, 2009; Negash, 1990, 2006, 2010; Stoddart, 1986) note the challenges embedded in using the language for educational purposes. Bogale (2009) asserts that English in Ethiopia is neither accessible nor comprehensible to the masses. Bogale also explains, “it (English) is foreign to most, and is known and used only by a small minority of educated economic and/or political elite” (2009, p. 1089). Concerned with issues related to nation-building, Negash (1990) describes the use of English as extremely negative and labels the language’s role as a medium of instruction as a “curse” (Negash, 2006, p. 31). Focusing on the unflattering implications of using this language for teaching and learning, and reminiscent of the Trojan Horse, Tyrannosaurus Rex, Lingua Frankenstein, and a many-headed hydra metaphor mentioned in Chapter Two, Stoddart (1986, p. 7) refers to English in Ethiopia as “a medium of obstruction”. Benson (2010) also highlights a general lack of exposure to the language on the part of teachers and students, as well as the sudden leap to English medium instruction in secondary education as challenging. Furthermore, in their survey of higher education teachers’ views on the difficulties Ethiopian university students face, Fisher and Swindells (1998) found that students’ “weak” English language proficiency is a significant challenge. Following a large-scale study on the use of English in Ethiopia, Heugh et al. (2007, p. 107) also concluded that “the use of a foreign language as a medium of instruction impedes both learning of content subjects and learning of the language itself”. In another, albeit small-scale study conducted by Bartley (2014), 84% of undergraduate students reported English medium instruction as an obstacle for effective teaching and learning. In Bartley’s (2014) study, students were also asked if they believed they would learn more if they studied through Amharic or another language, and although there seems to be some level of misunderstanding regarding the question, 85% answered “yes”.

Despite such findings and reflections on the negative effects of using the language in higher education, English medium instruction has been one of the few constants in the country’s higher education historiography, for it remained the only official medium of instruction since the 1950s (although Amharic is also used as a medium of instruction, albeit unofficially). The challenges associated with using the language also seems to be a persistent presence in the mix and goes back to the 1950s and 1960s. For instance, similar to the critical voices above, Kehoe underscores university students’ low English language proficiency levels as one of the

significant challenges in Ethiopian higher education in essays written in 1962 and 1964. Kehoe (1962) warned that “until the entire language problem in Ethiopia is settled, much of the work at the college level ...will be fruitless” (p. 476). According to Trudeau (1964), the transition to English created challenges as early as the 1940s in the formal Western-style education system. He elaborates:

A new language of instruction, English introduced after liberation (from a five-year Italian occupation) to replace French, created an additional problem of teachers, programs and textbooks. The majority of foreign teachers had been displaced by Italian war and occupation; those who were in Ethiopia could not teach in English. Besides the few educated Ethiopians who survived the Italian occupation were needed for executive posts in the government, and the former Ethiopian teachers who used to teach in French could not do so in English. (p. 6)

One could ask why a country that had managed to survive the European scramble for Africa, and which possesses a rich tradition of using local and regional languages (especially Amharic, Ge'ez and to some extent Arabic) for philosophy, education, literature and media, opted to adopt English as a medium of instruction for higher learning in the first place. Historians attribute this decision to Emperor Haile Selassie's gratitude to Britain for its role in defeating Italian occupying forces during World War II and because teaching materials and curricula were mainly imported from Britain (Heugh et al., 2007; Kitila, 2012; Vujcich, 2013). Perhaps contradicting what Trudeau (1964) stated, foreign teachers were familiar with the language.

The adoption of English as the only medium of higher education teaching and learning in a nation that prides itself for preserving its indigenous cultures and languages as well as its independence for thousands of years, coupled with the negative implications indicated above, has led some scholars to argue for the need to adopt a post/decolonial lens to critique the use of English in higher education. Negash (2006) critiques the Ethiopian education system adopted after the Italian occupation as being “very similar to those that prevailed in African states that were colonised for longer periods” (p. 7). Some argue that the uncritical adoption of formal Western education in general and English as a medium of instruction in particular has led to acts

of “self-colonisation” (Adamu, 2019) and “native colonialism” (Woldeyes, 2017). Basing his claim on observations made from the Ethiopian Education system, Woldegiorgis (2021) argues that decolonial studies need to be expanded to include the impact of indirect colonialism on geographical territories that were not actually colonised. As presented in Chapter Two, Mendisu and Yigezu (2014) also adopted a decolonial perspective to critique the dominance of English in knowledge production, particularly in the field of Ethiopian Studies. Considering universities’ potential contribution to society as cultural institutions, Kebede (2008, p. 39) also goes on to state that “if native universities (in Ethiopia) use alien languages, then it is not clear how they can go about developing national cultures”. The decolonial perspective adopted as part of the theoretical framework for this study will capitalise on these ideas while at the same time interrogating the claims, using empirical data collected from researchers in the country’s oldest and biggest university.

After presenting an overview of Ethiopia’s language situation and the place of English in it, an overview of the higher education system of Ethiopia is relevant for a deeper understanding of this case-study context. A system characterised by massive expansion and rapid reform in the past two decades, the country’s higher education landscape currently consists of 50 public and 250 private universities enrolling more than 800 000 students, making it one of the largest in Africa (Ministry of Education (MoE), 2018).

Related to research capacity, statistics provided by the Ethiopian Ministry of Education in 2017 indicate that the system employs more than 30 000 academic staff, among which 11% have doctoral qualifications (MoE, 2017; Yallew, 2020). Although the percentage of doctoral degree holders is still low, Ayalew (2017) states that the proportion of PhDs has increased by 342% (from 356 to 1 577 in absolute numbers) between 2003 and 2012. The system is still considered teaching and learning-oriented, even in universities that aspire to be research-intensive.

A Scopus analysis of the country’s research landscape reveals a total of 35 477 documents in a search conducted in December 2020⁴. As demonstrated in Figure 4.1, Ethiopia’s research and publication landscape has shown a considerable increase in the past decade.

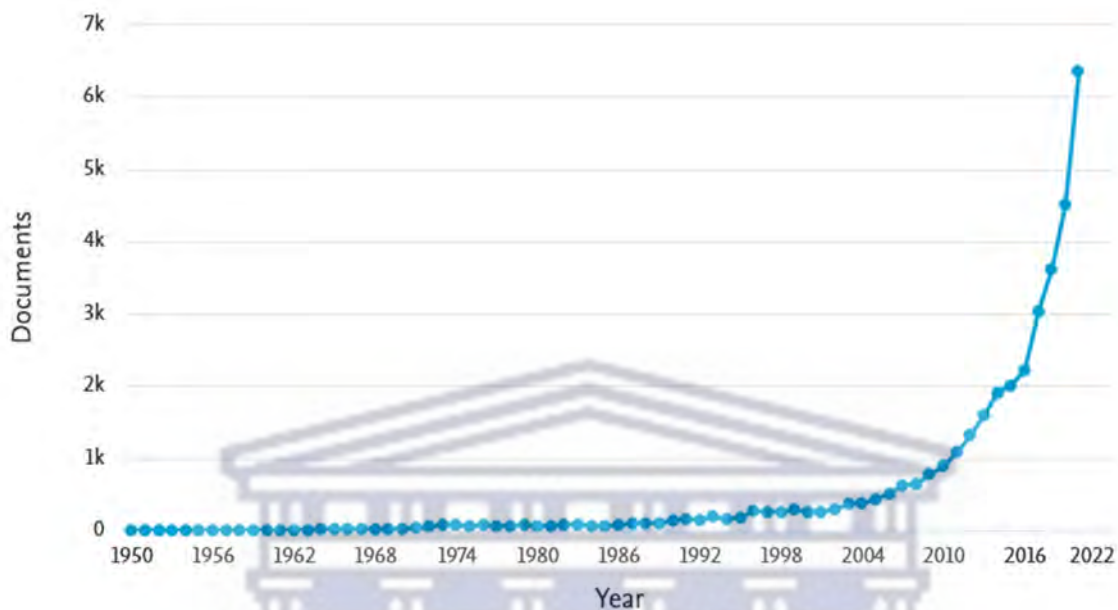


Figure 4.1. Increasing output for Ethiopia-affiliated research

As demonstrated in Figure 4.2, Addis Ababa University is by far the most research-productive in the country. Of the top ten research-productive institutions, the first seven spots are taken by first-generation public universities, while the last three are research institutions.

⁴ A more recent and comprehensive overview of the country’s research landscape is published in Yallem, A., & Dereb, A. (2022). Ethiopian-affiliated research in Scopus and Web of Science: A bibliometric mapping. *Bahir Dar Journal of Education*, 21(2), 22–46. Retrieved July 23, 2023, from <https://journals.bdu.edu.et/index.php/bje/article/view/924>

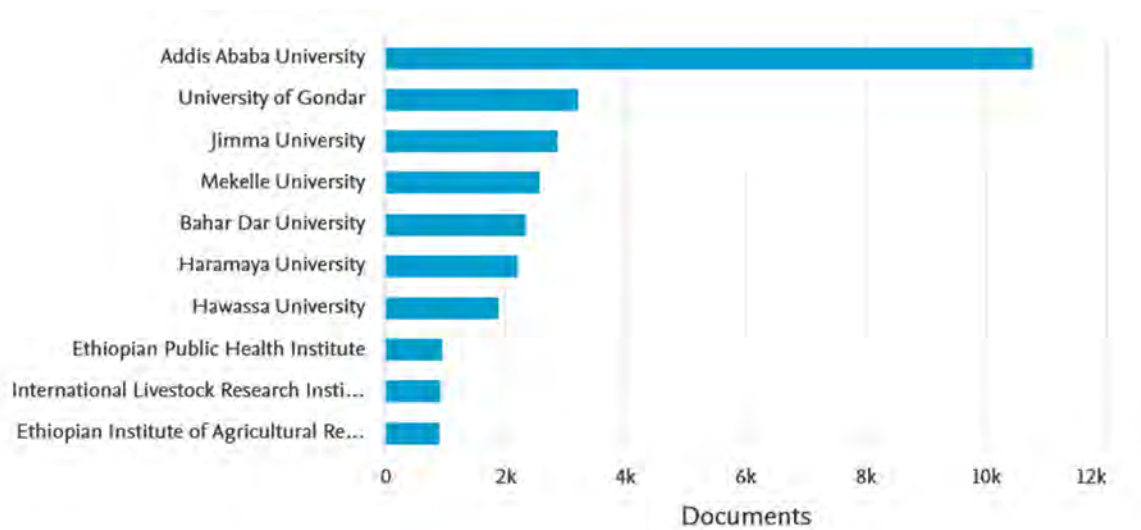


Figure 4.2. Top 10 research productive institutions for Ethiopia-affiliated research

Perhaps not surprisingly, almost all of the research affiliated with Ethiopia archived in the international research space is in English. Table 4.1 reveals that more than 99.5% of the research affiliated with the country is written in English.

Table 4.1

Languages of publication for Ethiopia

Language	No. of Documents
English	35349
French	72
German	41
Spanish	24
Norwegian	8
Portuguese	7
Dutch	5
Italian	5
Russian	5
Polish	4

Non-English language publications account for only 0.48% (n=171) of the total publications. This figure, however, does not mean that there are no publications in Ethiopian languages. Although it is challenging to quantify the output, there are articles published in Ethiopian journals in Ethiopian languages, especially in Amharic. Unfortunately, there is no comprehensive archive for Ethiopian journals and no system to allow for a language disaggregated data analysis.

The English language-related analysis in this study is undertaken with due consideration to the challenges for research and publication already identified in the literature. Besides constraints related to funding, other reasons attributed to the limited research productivity and engagement include: poor research culture, quantitative and qualitative shortages of academic staff, limited research infrastructure, lack of clear research agendas and priorities, and inadequate research support and management systems (Ishengoma, 2016; MoE, 2015; Yallew, 2020). Restrictions on academic freedom also limit academics' aspirations to take the initiative to conduct research and address critical societal concerns (Weldemichael, 2014). Low graduate student intake, too, results in limited research output since a sizeable amount of higher education research is derived from graduate and postgraduate research projects (MoE, 2015).

4.2.2. Mozambique

The Republic of Mozambique has a population of approximately 31.3 million (UNFPA, 2020). Forty-three languages are listed for the country in *Ethnologue* (Eberhard et al., 2020). Portuguese, inherited from colonial rule, which lasted from 1498–1975, serves as the official language and sometimes functions as the language of inter-group communications (Benson, 2010). According to the 2017 national population and housing census, 47.3% of Mozambicans speak Portuguese, among which 16.6% of the population speak it as a mother tongue. Portuguese was adopted as the official language at the advent of independence after much debate and deliberation (Mkuti, 1999), although at the time of independence in 1975, only 7% of Mozambicans spoke the language (Chimbutane & Benson, 2012). Reflecting on why an indigenous language was not chosen as an official language, Robinson (1992) explains that freedom fighters at the time deliberated:

In our country, there is no dominant language. Choosing one of the Mozambican languages would be an arbitrary decision that might have serious consequences; moreover, the technical and personnel resources are too scarce to embark on the type of research necessary to turn a [Mozambican] language operational, particularly for science studies. We are forced, therefore, to use Portuguese as the medium of instruction and communication among us. (p. 222)

According to Benson (2010), most Mozambicans may find themselves in a diglossic situation with two ‘levels’ of language use—they often speak one or more of the country's indigenous languages from the Bantu linguistic group and use Portuguese as a second language. According to the 2017 National Population and Housing Survey (NPHS), the major indigenous languages in Mozambique include: Makhuwa (26.1%), Tsonga (8.6%), Nyanja (8.1), Sena (7.1%), Lomwe (7.1%), Chuwabo (4.7%), Ndau (3.8%), and Tswa (3.8%). Unlike Amharic in Ethiopia, where the language is often used in contexts other than schooling, Portuguese proficiency seems to be positively correlated with attending school, rendering access to the language quite limited (Benson, 2010; UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2009). Owing to the push towards making Portuguese the language of unity and liberation, the proportion of the native speakers of the language has increased to 38.3% in the cities and from 1.23% to 5.1% in rural areas in 1990 (Cahen, 1990; NPHS, 2017).

It is interesting to note that the Mozambican language-in-education policy offers three options at the primary school level when it comes to language choice: Portuguese only education, mother-tongue based bilingual education, and Portuguese medium instruction using the mother tongue as an oral resource (Benson, 2010). Mother-tongue based bilingual education has garnered relatively higher research interest (see Chimbutane, 2017, 2018; Henriksen, 2017; Miguel, 2020), with researchers highlighting the need to develop Bantu languages along with Portuguese (Chimbutane, 2018; Khosa, 2013; Patel & Cavalcandi, 2014). It is worth mentioning that bilingual primary schooling is offered in 16 languages in Mozambique, i.e. in approximately 75 out of 8000 schools (Benson, 2010; Dalsgaard, 2008; Sendela, 2009). English is offered as a subject in primary and secondary schools. According to Mawere (2013), this was done to meet the growing demand for the professional use of English as the global language of power.

In higher education, Portuguese serves as the medium of instruction, and there is little research on the role that English plays although the bibliometric assessment made for this study indicates that 95.9% of the research affiliated with the county and archived in the international domain is published in English. Indicative of the need to explore the use of the language for research, Baltazar et al. (2019) wrote an opinion piece on the challenges they perceived Mozambican epidemiology Master's degree students face using English as non-native speakers. Access to reference materials, the capacity to communicate research in a non-native tongue, the dearth of journals and visibility in the native tongues of researchers, the price of publication, and the lower indexing given to national journals that publish in native tongues are a few of these difficulties.

Considering geopolitical, economic and educational reasons, one can observe that English proficiency is a valued currency in Mozambique, as in Ethiopia. In addition to being the language of the increasingly interconnected world, the growing demand for the language is tied to economic and geopolitical reasons underpinned by developments in regional integration in Southern Africa. Six Anglophone countries border on Mozambique (Eswatini, Malawi, Tanzania, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe), and English serves as the most dominant Southern African Development Community language (Mooko, 2009). Mozambique has also become the first non-Anglophone ex-colony to join the British Commonwealth in 1995.

Arguing for the perceived economic and developmental benefits of English, Eduardo and Uprichard (1995) highlight the following reasons why Mozambique needs English:

- It can assist the transition from a command economy to a market economy;
- It will help with producing the personnel needed to promote and manage economic growth and poverty reduction measures and programmes; and
- It is of particular relevance in commerce, accessing aid, regional and international relationships, tourism, and high-level education, research and technology transfer.

Underscoring the benefits of English, Mawere (2013) emphasises the point that as long as Portuguese remains the dominant language of Mozambique, the country would remain isolated from the English speaking world.

In addition to its international status and economic imperatives, it is noteworthy to indicate that there are historical reasons why English has become the second preferred language of European origin in Mozambique. According to Macaringue (1990), contacts between the British and Mozambique date back three centuries. During the early 20th century in Maputo, the British, who outnumbered the Portuguese (of the 3606 Europeans living in the city, 1497 were British and 1330 Portuguese), ran several newspapers and newsletters (Mkuti, 1999).

In the higher education space, corresponding with the rise of English as the dominant language of science, the first conference on English in Mozambique took place in 1994 (Mkuti, 1999). Earlier in 1985, UEM introduced the Service English Programme for students to enable them to understand scientific texts and oral presentations (Mkuti, 1999). Romeo (1995) notes the teaching of English at the university has from the very beginning been influenced by the geopolitical reasons mentioned above and because almost 90% of the literature available in libraries is in English. Moreover, in most faculties, guest lecturers who cannot speak Portuguese use English.

Although research on English in the higher education context is scant, some research conducted to assess the use of English in teaching and learning in the school context notes a few challenges. These include a scarcity of qualified teachers and lack of teaching materials such as textbooks (Mawere, 2009). Poor training of teachers combined with their low English language proficiency and reluctance to switch to English from Portuguese and indigenous languages are highlighted as major challenges. The need to develop and implement appropriate English language teaching methodologies is suggested to improve overall proficiency in addition to addressing resource-related shortages and training better English language teachers (Adriano & Nkamta, 2018; Mawere, 2009).

When it comes to higher education and research in Mozambique, the latest data indicate that Mozambique currently has 22 public and 33 private higher education institutions, and similar to Ethiopia, the higher education system is strongly focused on undergraduate teaching and learning (UNESCO, 2021). Higher education enrolment stood at 213 930 in 2018, reflecting a participation rate of 7.3% (UNESCO, 2021, p. 22). Across the system as a whole, as of 2016, 13%

of all researchers possessed a doctoral degree (UNESCO, 2021, p. 23). The case-study university selected for this study, UEM, is the largest and most productive in research output, as presented in Figure 4.3. In fact, except for UEM, which enjoys the lion’s share of research affiliated with the country, the other nine institutions that produced most research affiliated to Mozambique are not Mozambican universities.



Figure 4.3. Top 10 research-productive universities for research affiliated with Mozambique

A country affiliation Scopus search yielded 5351 publications for Mozambique in December 2020. Although the total number does not seem high, it is worth noting that 95% of that total is registered in the past decade, as shown in Figure 4.4.

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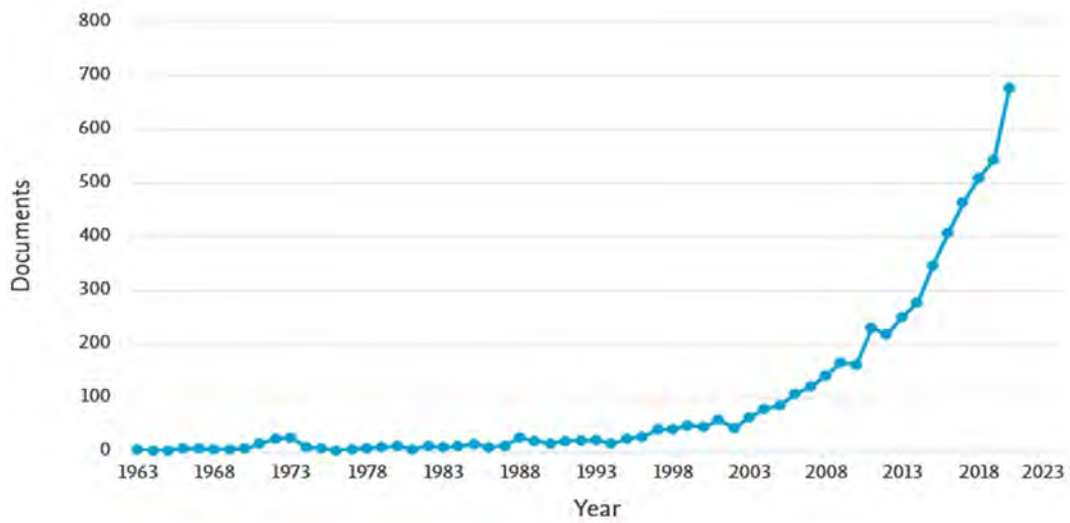


Figure 4.4. Yearly research output for Mozambique affiliated research

The following table presents the languages of publication in Mozambique as registered in Scopus.

Table 4.2

Languages of publication for Mozambique

Language	No. of Documents
English	5132
Portuguese	182
Spanish	44
French	23
German	6
Italian	5
Dutch	3
Italian	2
Russian	5
Norwegian	4

Language	No. of Documents
Arabic	1
Chinese	1
Korean	1
Swedish	1
Undefined	1

As in the Ethiopian context, this research is conducted keeping in mind the other research-related challenges identified in the literature. Some of these challenges relate to: funding, poor research infrastructure and lack of incentives (Langa, 2015; UNESCO, 2021).

4.3. The Two Case-Study Universities: A Brief Overview

Both AAU and UEM claim to be research excellence hubs in their respective contexts, both qualitatively and quantitatively. As indicated in the introductory chapter, their claims are also reflected in their mission and vision statements. Addis Ababa University “has recently welcomed a new vision of becoming a preeminent research university in Africa” (AAU, 2017). Eduardo Mondlane aspires to “Become a national, regional and international reference university in the production and dissemination of scientific knowledge and innovation, highlighting research as the foundation of teaching and learning and extension processes” (UEM, 2017). Although the documents are silent regarding language-related issues, both universities have research policies to enable them to pursue this goal of research-oriented institutions. As is the case for many other universities, both AAU and UEM also attach research impact and incentivisation schemes with being published in high impact factor journals.

Established in 1950, AAU is the oldest and the largest higher learning and research institution in Ethiopia. As the national flagship university, AAU has been the leading centre in teaching and learning, research and community services. Beginning with an enrolment capacity of 33 students in 1950, Addis Ababa University now has 48,673 students (33,940 undergraduate, 13,000 Masters and 1733 PhD students) and 6043 staff (2,408 academic and 3,635 administration staff).

AAU runs 70 undergraduate and 293 graduate programmes (72 PhD and 221 Masters) on its 14 campuses.

UEM is also the oldest public higher education institution in Mozambique. The university is a comprehensive and multidisciplinary institution based on training, research and extension services. The university was founded on 21 August 1962. UEM is located in Maputo and has about 40,000 students enrolled (UEM, 2018). The proportion of academic staff with PhDs has risen from 17% in 2011 to 21% in 2016 (UNESCO, 2021). The percentage of senior professors stands at 6% of the staff members, and UEM master's and doctoral programmes remain constrained, with the university having graduated 94 master's and two doctorates in 2018 (UNESCO, 2021).

Portuguese colonisers first founded UEM as an offshoot of their institutions to primarily educate children of settlers. Its original name, Estudos Gerais Universitários, was later changed to the University of Lourenço Marques in 1968. At its inception, this institution offered a total of nine academic programmes, specifically focusing on: biomedical sciences, veterinary sciences, agronomy, pedagogical sciences, and civil, mechanical, chemical and electrical engineering. As the institution expanded, it gradually introduced new courses, resulting in a total of 17 degree programmes by 1974 (Chilundo, 2010). However, the University of Lourenço Marques continued to exhibit discriminatory approach towards Mozambican students, with their representation in the student body remaining below 0.1% until 1974. In addition, it is important to highlight that from 1976 to 1984, UEM stood as the sole higher education establishment in Mozambique (Langa, 2013).

4.3.1. Research Output

As presented in Figure 4.5, between 1959 and 2020, 11 200 documents were identified as having researchers affiliated with AAU. The spelling variants of the name of the university is noted: Addis Ababa University, Addis Abeba University, Haile Selassie I university, University College of Addis Ababa and the University of Ethiopia.



Figure 4.5. Research output for AAU

For UEM, the Scopus analysis using affiliations “Eduardo Mondlane University” or “Universidade Eduardo Mondlane” or the other former names of the university mentioned earlier yielded 2037 documents published between 1978 and 2020, as presented in Figure 4.6.



Figure 4.6. Research output for UEM

The research productivity in both universities started increasing from the turn of the 21st century. This observation is in line with what Cloete et al. (2018) assert in their work regarding flagship and research universities in Africa:

By the turn of the century, research performance at African universities was at an all-time low, and Africa was at the bottom of almost every indicator-based ranking and league table in science and higher education. The tide began to turn when, during the late 1990s and early 2000s, some influential voices on the international and continental stages began calling for the revitalisation of the African university and, once again, for the need to link higher education to development. (pp. 6–7)

The findings indicate that publication output from both universities is increasing. Even considering the past ten years, compared to the publication output in 2010, productivity has increased by 462% in Eduardo Mondlane University and by 362% in Addis Ababa University in

2020, as presented in Table 4.3. Cloete et al. (2018) further state that African universities' knowledge production function came to the limelight following conferences in Scotland in 2005, Senegal in 2008 and France in 2009.

Table 4.3

Yearly research output

Year	AAU		UEM	
	<i>N</i>	% of 7786	<i>N</i>	% of 1506
2011	372	4.8	91	6
2012	467	6	87	5.8
2013	575	7.4	86	5.7
2014	650	8.3	97	6.4
2015	620	8	130	8.6
2016	690	8.9	155	10.3
2017	878	11.3	182	12.1
2018	1013	13	198	13.1
2019	1145	14.7	226	15
2020	1376	17.7	254	16.9

As presented in Table 4.4, for UEM, three times more research has been published in the last ten years than the four decades that preceded it, starting from the appearance of the first two articles in 1978. In AAU, more than twice the amount of research has been conducted in the past decade than the previous five decades, with the first five articles appearing in 1959. For both AAU and UEM, more research has been published in the past five years than all the previous years of research and publication in the history of both universities. The statistics presented also affirm that both AAU and UEM are the leading research-productive universities in their specific contexts. 35.6% of the total research output from Ethiopia is conducted by researchers affiliated with AAU, while 38.1% of Mozambique's research is affiliated with UEM.

Table 4.4*Research output from the universities over the past seven decades*

Decade	AAU	UEM
2011–2020	7786	1506
2001–2010	2025	396
1991–2000	872	104
1981–1990	297	22
1971–1980	142	9
1961–1970	77	
1951–1960	1	

The increasing research output indicates that the universities aligned their research output with their research-intensive missions. For UEM, several reasons could be attributed to the relatively low research production even though it is still the leading university in Mozambique. According to Langa (2015), lack of research infrastructure and lack of incentives have been barriers to implementing the research-led vision and mission statements the university has adopted, and that UEM is still a university where much of the focus is on teaching and learning using existing knowledge and that the production of new knowledge is limited. Cloete et al. (2018, pp. 215–216) who labelled UEM as “a research aspirational university” rather than a fully-fledged research university state that the relatively low level of research productivity at UEM might be related to academic staff recruitment. Reflecting on this aspect, they state, “The distribution of staff between the senior and junior categories was distorted. Only 20% could be categorised as senior staff” (pp. 215–216). It is also noteworthy that UEM is a relatively younger and smaller university compared to AAU. AAU also has more academic staff than UEM. Although both universities still largely depend on donor funding to finance research, AAU is also the largest recipient of government funding for research and has a relatively better organised research funding scheme through what is labelled as thematic and adaptive research grant schemes.

In AAU, like the other universities in Ethiopia, challenges related to cumbersome financial and procurement procedures and poor research culture have been identified in the literature as factors that have negative implications for research productivity (Ayalew, 2017; Yigezu, 2013).

4.3.2. Languages of Publication

As presented in Table 4.5, the English language is by far the most dominant medium of publication in both AAU and UEM.

Table 4.5

Languages of publication

AAU		
<i>Language</i>	<i>Number of documents</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
English	11,153	99.58
German	15	0.13
French	14	0.12
Spanish	6	0.05
Italian	3	0.02
Croatian	2	0.02
Polish	2	0.02
Norwegian	1	0.01
Portuguese	1	0.01
Russian	1	0.01
Turkish	1	0.01
Unidentified	1	0.01

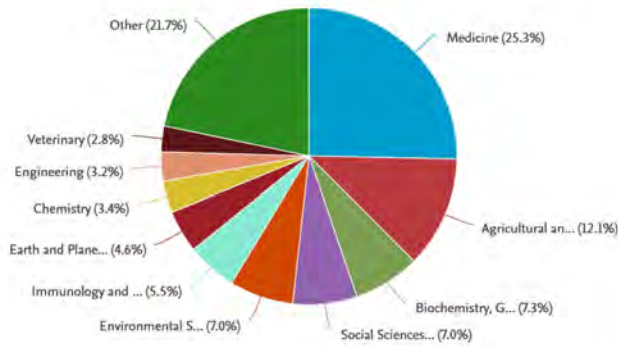
UEM

<i>Language</i>	<i>Number of documents</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
English	1965	96.46
Portuguese	63	3.09
Spanish	5	0.24
Arabic	1	0.05
Chinese	1	0.05
Italian	1	0.05
Russian	1	0.05

4.3.3. Language and Research Areas

This part of the analysis assesses the principal research areas in the two universities in relation to language(s) of publication. Even though it has already been established that English is the overwhelmingly dominant language of research and publication, this is done to assess whether there are any discernible disciplinary patterns to language choice in the research. As presented in Figures 4.7 and 4.8, and Table 4.5, English dominates the natural sciences research landscape in both universities in all disciplines. The only exception seems to be more social science Portuguese language research from UEM (n=35), but even that accounts for 10% of the overall social science research affiliated with the university (n=337).

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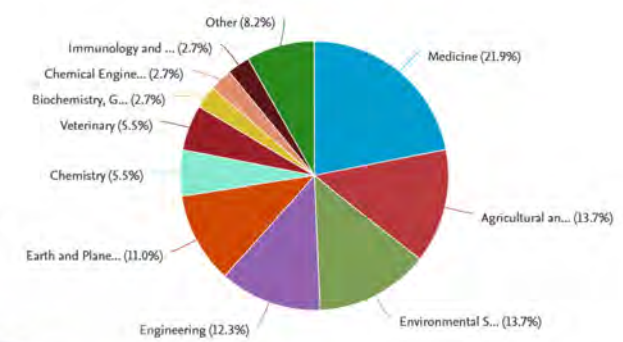


AAU overall

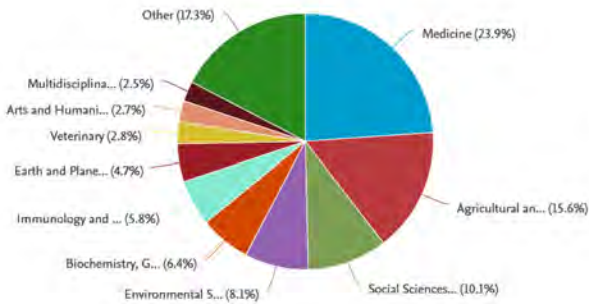
Figure 4.7 AAU Research areas and languages



AAU English

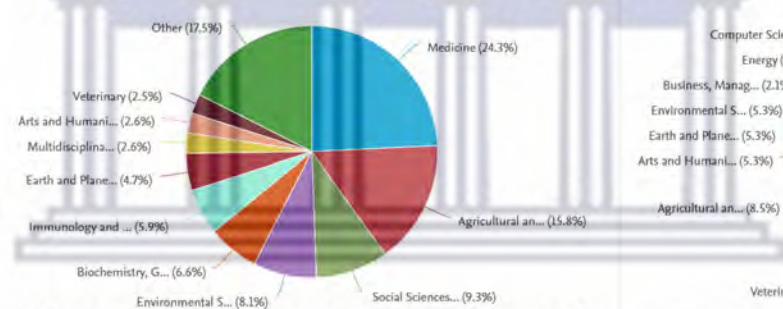


AAU other languages

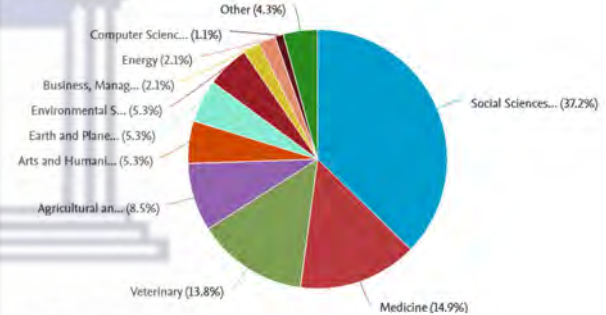


UEM overall

Figure 4.8 UEM Research areas and language



UEM English



UEM other languages



Table 4.6

Main research areas and languages

AAU				
No.	Research areas (top 10)		Number of articles	% of disciplinary output
1.	Medicine	English	4555	99.6
		Non-English— (<i>German (6), French (4), Polish (2), Hungarian (1), Norwegian (1), Portuguese (1), Spanish (1), Undefined (1)</i>)	17	0.4
2.	Agriculture and biological sciences	English	2172	99.5
		Non-English— (<i>French (3), German (2), Italian (2), Spanish (2), Russian (1)</i>)	10	0.5
3.	Biochemistry, Genetics and Molecular Biology	English	1312	99.9
		Non-English— <i>German</i>	2	0.01
4.	Social sciences	English	1265	99.9
		Non-English— <i>Turkish</i>	1	0.01
5.	Environmental sciences	English	1256	99
		Non-English—(<i>Spanish (5), French (4), Italian (2), German</i>)	13	1

		(1), Turkish (1)		
6.	Immunology	English	985	99.8
		Non English— <i>French (1), German (1)</i>	2	0.02
7.	Earth and plant sciences	English	826	98.7
		Non-English- <i>French (5), Italian (3), Spanish (3)</i>	11	1.3
8.	Chemistry	English	615	99.4
		Non-English— <i>German</i>	4	0.6
9.	Engineering	English	566	98.4
		Non-English— <i>German(5), French (3), Turkish (1)</i>	9	1.6
10.	Veterinary sciences	English	504	99.2
		Non-English— <i>Croatian (2), French (2)</i>	4	0.8

UEM

No.	Research areas (top 10)		Number of articles	% of disciplinary output
1.	Medicine	English	780	98.1
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese (11), Arabic (1), Chinese (1), Russian (1), Spanish (1)</i>	15	1.9
2.	Agriculture	English	508	98.4
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese (7), Italian (1)</i>	8	1.6
3.	Social sciences	English	301	89.3
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese (35),</i>	36	10.7

		<i>Spanish (1)</i>		
4.	Environmental sciences	English	261	98.1
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese</i>	5	1.9
5.	Biochemistry	English	212	100
		Non-English	0	0
6.	Immunology	English	191	99.5
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese</i>	1	0.5
7.	Earth and planetary sciences	English	151	96.8
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese</i>	5	3.2
8.	Veterinary science	English	80	86.0
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese (10),</i>	13	4.0
		<i>Spanish (3)</i>		
9.	Arts and humanities	English	83	94.3
		Non-English— <i>Portuguese</i>	5	5.7
10.	Multidisciplinary sciences	English	84	100
		Non-English	0	0

4.3.4. Collaboration

One way of mapping research landscapes is to note collaborative engagement. This section presents an overview of the dominant collaborating institutions and countries for research affiliated with AAU and UEM. Analysing the implications of using English for research in relation to social capital (collaborations) is one of the study's dimensions. The institutional level analysis does not lead to any conclusions that might explain English's dominance as the language of research.

4.3.4.1. Collaborating Institutions

Table 4.7

List of top 10 collaborating higher education institutions

No.	AAU	UEM
1.	University of Gondor	Instituto Nacional de Saúde Maputo
2.	Jimma University	Hospital Central de Maputo
3.	Ethiopian Public Health Institute	Universidade de Barcelona
4.	Bahir Dar University	University of Porto
5.	Hawassa University	University of Cape Town
6.	Addis Ababa Science and Technology University	Instituto de Salud Global de Barcelona
7.	Haramaya University	University of Pretoria
8.	Mekelle University	Hospital Clinic Barcelona
9.	King's College London	University of Witwatersrand
10.	Armauer Hansen Research Institute	Ministry of Health Mozambique

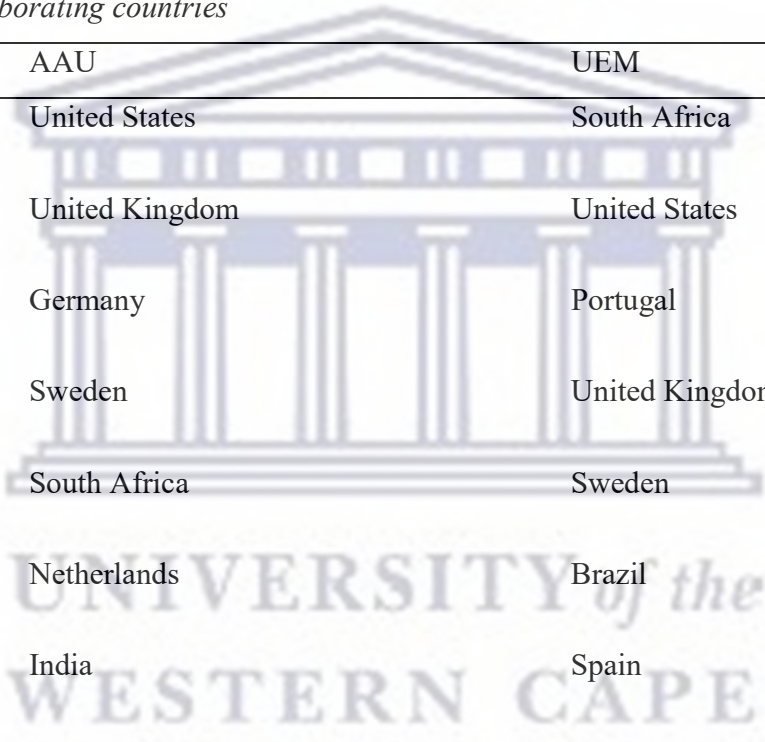
As presented in Table 4. 7, AAU researchers seem to collaborate more with researchers in other Ethiopian universities, with eight out of 10 universities being Ethiopian public higher education institutions. Three out of ten top 10 collaborating institutions for UEM are local, while the rest are from South Africa, Spain and Portugal. It is interesting to notice that UEM's local collaborators are a ministry and hospital and an institute, not other universities in the country, which is the case for AAU.

4.3.4.2. Countries

Granted that English is the undisputed language of science in these universities as it is elsewhere globally, the countries these researchers are collaborating with may reinforce the dominance of English as the language of science. As presented in Table 4.8, AAU and UEM researchers collaborate with researchers where English is either a native language or is a dominant second language. These collaboration patterns might result from the internationalisation of higher education, where partnerships are formed based on funding modalities and student mobility.

Table 4.8

List of top 10 collaborating countries



No.	AAU	UEM
1.	United States	South Africa
2.	United Kingdom	United States
3.	Germany	Portugal
4.	Sweden	United Kingdom
5.	South Africa	Sweden
6.	Netherlands	Brazil
7.	India	Spain
8.	Norway	Netherlands
9.	Kenya	Kenya
10.	Canada	France

4.3.5. Research Funding

As one of the variables that this study investigates is related to English as cultural capital, it is deemed relevant to assess existing funding patterns in the universities studied. AAU affiliated and Scopus indexed research seems to be dominantly funded by the university itself mainly through government funding, while UEM's funders list mostly features international organisations. It seems that whether research is largely funded by national or international sources does not affect the dominance of English as the language of international research.

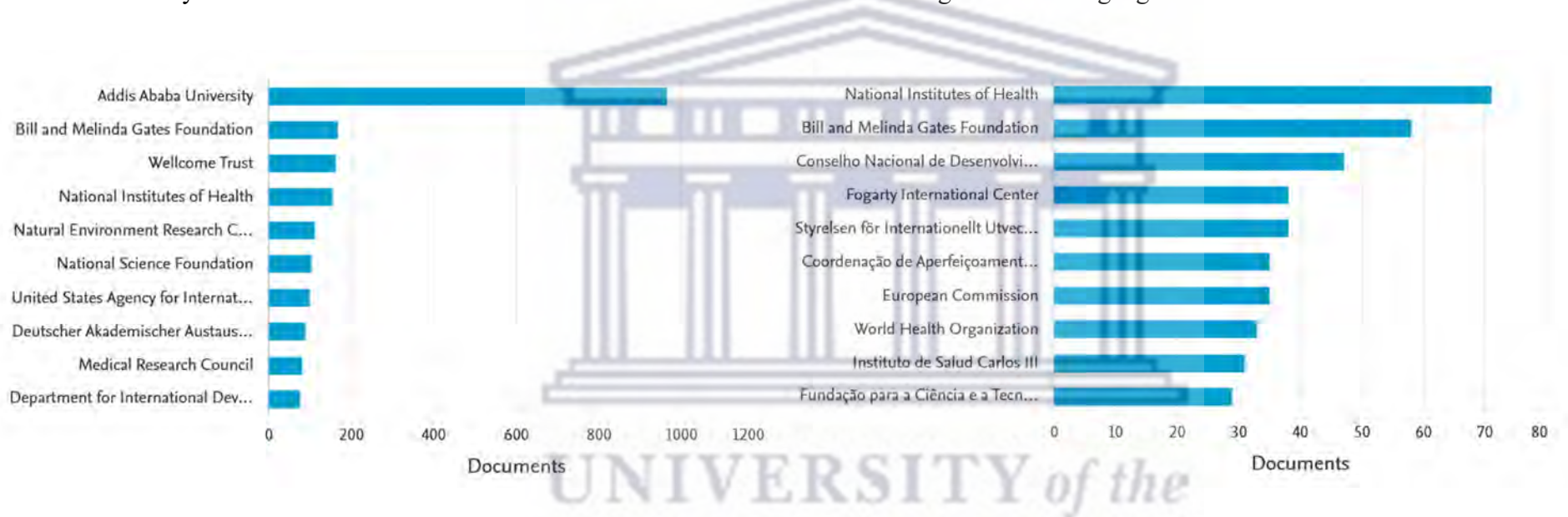


Figure 4. 9 Top 10 research funders for AAU and UEM

4.4. Conclusion

This chapter has presented a detailed overview of Ethiopia and Mozambique's contextual specificities and that of AAU and UEM specifically as far as the study variables of (English) language and research are concerned. Both multilingual Ethiopia and Mozambique can be viewed as countries where English is a third or foreign language. The language is offered as a subject at the school level in both countries but serves as a medium of instruction in high school and university in Ethiopia, whereas in Mozambique, Portuguese continues to be used as a medium at all levels. For research and publication, however, English is predominately used in both countries. Although the use of English seems to be advocated in both contexts for research publication considering global and regional dynamics as well as local complexities, in the Ethiopian context the language plays a more significant role at higher levels of learning. Hence, there is strong critique in the literature about the role English plays as a medium of instruction in Ethiopia.

Although AAU and UEM do not feature as prominent universities in global rankings, they are the leading universities of research and publication in their respective contexts. They are also the oldest and most prestigious in their respective countries. They not only produce the largest amount of research output; they are also the leading institutions both in terms of the number of staff and undergraduate and graduate student enrolment. In addition to establishing English as the dominant language of published research, the bibliometric overview of the research landscape in AAU and UEM indicate that yearly research output is increasing at both universities. In addition to institutional policies that favour the publication and incentivisation of research in high-impact factor journals, which are often English-language medium, the bibliometric analysis in this chapter suggests that there is no conclusive evidence that funding and collaboration patterns (countries and institutions) might have implications for the dominance of English.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS FROM ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the semi-structured, in-depth interview findings from Addis Ababa University (AAU) through a prodigious use of excerpts to demonstrate the various perspectives reflected in investigating the complex questions the study addresses.⁵ A section is dedicated to thematically addressing the results for each research question. The first section provides an overview of the multilingual scholars' general perspectives regarding English for Research and Publication Purposes (ERPP) at the university. The findings related to the second main research question focusing on the repercussions of using the language concerning quality and quantity of research are then presented in two sub-sections, each dealing with:

- Implications on quality, and
- Implications on quantity.

The third section explores the perceived implications of English language capital on other research-related economic and social capital divided into the following two subsections:

- English language capital in relation to research funding, and
- English language capital in relation to research collaborations and networks.

Findings of the fourth research dimension exploring the ramifications of the growing use of ERPP in terms of rethinking higher education considering recent discussions on the internationalisation of higher education on the one hand, and Africanisation and decolonisation on the other, are presented in the last main section of this chapter.

It is worth stating that in line with the research methodology, the participants from AAU were researchers (academic staff members) and university leaders across disciplines and levels of research experience. For two-thirds of them, English is a third language while the rest one-third consider it a second language reflecting the largely trilingual, and to a lesser extent bilingual,

⁵ For a detailed and nuanced discussion and examination of the findings presented in this chapter, as well as a cross-case analysis with the UEM case, see Chapter Seven.

Ethiopian linguistic landscape described in the previous chapter. Like the rest of the Ethiopian population, the research participants perceived English as a foreign language.

Almost all participants did not have any inherited English language capital in that none of their parents spoke the language. The respondents learned the language at school as a subject—some starting from grade one and others starting from grade three, depending on the education policy during their school days. It is also worth stating that the overwhelming majority of the respondents have attended public schools. Only two academic staff members interviewed had some level of private schooling. The participants who have achieved the professor or associate professor rank have received their terminal degrees in countries such as: the US, the UK, Italy, Norway, Spain, France, Germany, India, South Africa, and the Netherlands. In contrast, most early-career researchers and PhD students undertook or are undertaking their postgraduate studies at AAU or other Ethiopian universities.

The participants predominantly used English for publishing and undertaking their doctoral studies. An overview of their respective CVs shows similar trends as presented in the bibliometric analysis in the previous chapter. Except for a few researchers who published articles and PhD dissertations in Amharic, Dutch, French, German and Italian, their publications are all archived in English. The Amharic language publications appear in AAU-affiliated journals, namely: *Lissan* (ለላጅ), which is dedicated to studying Ethiopian languages and published by the Institute for Ethiopian Language Studies, the *Journal of Ethiopian Studies* published by the institute of the same name, and the *Journal of Ethiopian Law* published by the Faculty of Law. It is noteworthy that research published in these journals (or the majority of Ethiopian journals for that matter) is not included in the previous chapter mapping the research landscape of the university since the journals are indexed neither in Scopus nor WoS.

The respondents' publications mainly constitute peer-reviewed journal articles and book chapters. Some of the seasoned scholars have also written books. Except for one, the PhD students interviewed have not yet produced peer-reviewed publications. In addition to publishing on peer-reviewed platforms, relatively senior researchers have also reported participating in commissioned research projects as principal investigators (PIs) or consultants. Although it is

challenging to verify quantitatively, these researchers suggest there might be more linguistic diversity in these research and consultancy projects either because of funder requirements or researchers' preference and desire to disseminate findings in multiple languages.

5.2. General Perspectives on ERPP at the University

Before delving into the specific dimensions the study seeks to explore, this section assesses the overall perspectives of academic staff and university leaders regarding the use of English for research. While all the participants recognise the crucial role English plays in academia, their views regarding the status of the language as a medium of research and its role as the official language of higher education in the country, in general, were both positive and negative. Perhaps not surprisingly, they perceive English as an asset and a liability. The functional, as well as the symbolic and hegemonic power of the language, are also recognised. Debates regarding the nature, function and impact of science in relation to global, national, local, institutional, individual and disciplinary dimensions also seem to pervade participants' assessments.

Five themes emerged as a result of analysing the responses:

- English as asset;
- English as a liability;
- Differing perspectives between university leaders and researchers on the topic;
- A number of variables determining language choice for publication; and
- The need for more nuance in researching ERPP.

5.2.1. English as an Asset

As respondents reflect, English is perceived and appreciated as: (1) a lingua franca creating greater access to the accumulated global scientific literature; (2) a gateway to more international visibility for institutions and participants' research; and (3) an alternative to a complex linguistic context where there is no consensus on other viable options.

The role of English as a lingua franca of global science was recognised even among researchers who are critical of its role as a medium of instruction and research in Ethiopian higher education. One such scholar states:

Being proficient in English is important because a considerable amount of human knowledge, be it written in German or Japanese, is available in English. English has also borrowed a lot from the languages and cultures, and that creates many learning opportunities. English language proficiency is essential in my discipline philosophy, where we dissect language and abstract concepts. (Associate professor, humanities)

Related to research visibility, this statement from an assistant professor in biological sciences sums up the views reflected:

Publishing in English makes research widely available to disciplinary scientific communities worldwide. I mean, that is the whole point of doing science, right? My readership would also be very limited if I publish Ethiopian languages. (Assistant professor, natural sciences)

Several researchers have asserted that English is a pragmatic choice, hence an asset, for the country's complicated and highly politicised linguistic repertoire, as captured in the following two excerpts:

Ethiopia is a multi-ethnic country with several languages, and no one language is now considered an official language. For example, Amharic is a working language, not an official one. Additionally, there are also other working languages in the different regions of the country, so it is better to remain with English as the academic language of the university.... Any academic staff member is expected to express himself or herself in English understandably since there is no option regarding that. (Professor of natural sciences, university leader)

Even in informal conversations, I remember that whenever people say why we don't resort to one or the other of our languages, it always becomes a highly political

issue. We know the case of Amharic. If we say let's use Amharic, then many groups will not be happy about that. So it is practical to continue with the status quo.

(Associate professor, social sciences)

Another university official appreciates the role English plays as a pragmatic alternative emphasising that there is no other option to the language even at the secondary education level, let alone for tertiary education. English is also a choice befitting a research-oriented university such as AAU for this participant:

Which language to conduct research in is a major challenge in a linguistically diverse country like Ethiopia, where there is no single dominant language. At least the majority of researchers and academicians are expected to understand English. You also know publications are not for local consumption only, and that there is a significant international consumption aspect as well. As you know, our publications have been rated as having high impact, and the numbers are also well recognised. That is also how we have become internationally recognised as a research-intensive university—it is because we publish in English. (Professor of social sciences, university leader)

5.2.2. Publishing in English as a Liability

By contrast, the participants also stated that the use of English for research and publication could be regarded as a liability especially considering: (1) the individual, institutional, national linguistic and historical habitus, dispositions and other contextual specificities; (2) psychological barriers partially attributable to linguistic habitus and symbolic power of the language; (3) relevance of research in local contexts.

Researchers' linguistic habitus that do not often include English as the strong repertoire could lead to exclusion and marginal participation as reflected by the following participants:

When you come to know a foreign language, how you come to know that language is an important aspect to understanding the role that language plays. For example,

Latin served as a language of scholarship in England. But it served its purpose because when they learned the language, they learned it very well. And we have to ask how well-versed we are in English to use it as a medium of higher learning in this country? To what extent are we acquainted with the language? What is the depth and scope of our knowledge of the language?... Our exposure and knowledge of the language are very limited. (Assistant professor, humanities)

I used to be a language teacher, and I know language matters. Regarding teaching and research, I would consider it very unfortunate that we are using English since our overall mastery of the language is poor. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

The perceived psychological barrier to engaging with the language mainly for research and publication might be related to the overall perceived deficit in proficiency levels and linguistic capital in general. Participants' responses highlight anxiety, and a sense of shame induced by the encounter with the language might lead researchers to fear or refrain from engaging in research:

English is one of the factors that hinder academic staff's engagement in research. I know that some academics have very good ideas, which could be potentially good research. However, they do not believe in themselves that they can write it in English. This situation is worse, particularly if they have a PhD. They think that their level of English proficiency is lower than expected from a PhD holder. Hence, they refrain themselves from being active in research. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

Even though we may not explicitly admit it, I sense that many of us are self-conscious about our English language skills, especially when it comes to its function for publication and critical reflection. (Professor, humanities)

Another theme that emerged as a liability relates to research relevance in local contexts:

One of the problems (of using English for research) is related to reaching wider local audiences. While enabling access to global academic communities, I think publishing in English has disconnected us from our local issues and stakeholders. You do not see publications in Amharic, Afaan Oromo or many possible Ethiopian languages. For me, when you talk about the impact and relevance of research, we should also think about aligning our outputs to local issues and audiences. I think publishing in English is a barrier to reaching policymakers and wider local audiences. I also sense that rather than focusing on what really interests us as researchers and what needs to be researched, we sometimes focus on selecting topics and projects based on the criteria that they get us published in (English-medium) international journals. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Assistant professor in biomedical sciences also critiques English as the almost only language of science and research:

I am very concerned that almost all our research and knowledge output is in English. This is a disservice to a context where the overwhelming majority do not have mastery of the language at all. Our research and scientific output should be made available to the general public in a language they understand. (Assistant professor, biomedical sciences)

Respondents highlighted this aspect, especially for applied research projects that fall into the adaptive research scheme of the university:

I really don't understand why especially adaptive research, which we are told should be problem-solving by design, should also be reported, published and disseminated in English. (Lecturer and PhD student, humanities)

As noted in the interview excerpts in this section, another theme that emerged in the assessment of general perceptions is the almost polarised views between university leaders and academic staff regarding the topic, and the status of the university and its research mission in general. University leaders view English as an asset that helps the university showcase its status as the

leading research university in the country. This is demonstrated further by this excerpt from a high-level university official:

If you tell me a researcher is not engaged in research because of their English language proficiency level, I would say that is a lame excuse. (Professor in natural sciences, university leader)

Conversely, many respondents, especially in the humanities and social sciences, perceived it as an obstacle to research productivity, quality and relevance.

5.2.3. Language Choice and Research Publication

The participants provided mixed responses regarding their preferred language(s) of publication. On the one hand, there was a preference for publishing in Ethiopian languages; on the other, English was the preferred language. However, nearly all respondents underlined that there should be provisions to accommodate Ethiopian languages in the research and publication space.

In addition to the desire to reach global disciplinary communities and wide readership in the case of English, other factors underlying the responses in this regard are: (1) the quest for writing and articulating ideas in a language one is better-versed in; (2) the need to fulfil professional expectations and obligations; and (3) lack of viable alternatives. Reasons related to prestige-seeking that are often related to publishing in English were not prominent.

The first reason was mentioned by researchers across disciplines who prefer either of the languages:

In an ideal world, I would be much more comfortable publishing in Amharic. In fact, had that been possible, I think I would have been a full professor by now. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Even though my English is not that good, I really would be lost if you asked me to publish my research in any language other than English. I do not have the scientific

concepts and terminologies for what I am doing in my native language or other languages I speak. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

I feel that for Ethiopian researchers, it is easier to conduct research in English than in Ethiopian languages. I think it is better to grapple with the academic language that we are relatively familiar with than say Tigrinya, Afaan Oromo or Amharic that we are not familiar with. I mean, they are our languages, but we don't know them as academic or research languages. And we have a long way to go if we are to develop them as languages of academia. (Associate professor, biomedical sciences)

Respondents also recognise that their language preferences are shaped by their normative commitments to global science and local contexts, and by other pragmatic and coercive factors such as the written and unwritten rules governing international, national and institutional policies regarding scientific output. This reason is related to survival in the academy. The internationalised research and publication space where English is almost the only publication and researchers' quest to participate in it leads to adopting the language for research. National higher education policies that stipulate the language as the language of higher education are also interpreted as the language is also the language of research meaning that legitimate participation in research publishing needs to be made in English:

English is the lingua franca of the scientific community, and it is the official medium of instruction of the university, and the medium of research policy follows the medium of instruction policy. (Professor of natural sciences, university leader)

National research promotion and incentivisation strategies that give precedence to research indexed in international databases (MoSHE, 2020) also push researchers to opt for publishing in English, leading some respondents who often publish in Ethiopian journals to feel marginalised:

Other than strengthening our journals to meet international standards, the higher education system and the university seem to be pushing us to publish in international journals. Because of this, I have come to regret that I focused on publishing in local journals after spending decades teaching and researching in this university. I now

realise that I should have explored more international job and publication opportunities. (Associate professor, social sciences)

AAU's own rules, regulations and research incentivisation and promotion schemes also lead researchers to make the pragmatic choice of publishing in English. For instance, according to AAU's research policy (AAU, 2013), compared to the incentive they get publishing in Ethiopian journals (10,000 Birr per publication), researchers get double the amount of what they get if they publish in reputable international journals (20,000 Birr per publication).

Other reasons mentioned in this regard are the lack of opportunities for publishing in Ethiopian languages (even in Ethiopian journals). This aspect is explored in more depth in the section dedicated to investigating the ERPP implications in terms of rethinking higher education.

All in all, the responses regarding the preferred languages of publication reveal disciplinary differences. Many of the respondents in the social sciences and humanities say that in an ideal world, they would also prefer to publish in Ethiopian languages, underscoring the need to make scientific literature relevant to contextual specificities in addition to their quest to publish in Ethiopian languages in which they are most comfortable expressing ideas. In contrast, researchers in the natural sciences regarded English as the preferred language of publication and viewed science as something mainly targeted at international audiences across disciplines.

5.2.4. Research and Publishing as a Multilingual Process

As a by-product of assessing general perceptions, another theme the participants highlighted was the need for nuance in assessing the perceptions regarding the use of English for research in general and research publication in particular. Their argument here is that English is the language of publication rather than research. The researchers point out that the research process in Ethiopia is a multilingual process involving Ethiopian languages and English. Often, the development and interrogation of concepts involve using local languages:

Except for publishing, it is virtually impossible to conduct research only in English in the Ethiopian context. Starting from the conception stage of the research until the

final output, one or more Ethiopian languages have to be involved. Our oral engagement with colleagues is in Ethiopian languages. Instruments have to be either developed or translated into Ethiopian languages since the language has no currency in the country except in the higher education space. (Associate professor, social sciences)

The research process requires a lot of linguistics gymnastics. If you take me as an example, my mother tongue is Afaan Oromo. I inhabit an institution where Amharic is predominantly used for formal and informal spoken academic and non-academic communication. I use English for teaching, reading and writing, and my research in southern Ethiopia takes me to one of the most linguistically diverse regions in the continent, where you find more than 56 languages spoken in that relatively small area. And I have to adapt my research conceptualisation and language following all these factors. (PhD student, humanities)

As presented in the following subsection, the findings suggest that ERPP should not only be analysed considering multilingual research processes but also be the different manuscript preparation and submission stages.

5.3. Implications of Using English for Quality and Quantity of Research

This section presents the results regarding the implications of using English in terms of quality and quantity of research output. The first subsection presents perspectives related to quality, while the second one is dedicated to the quantity of research.

5.3.1. Overall Quality

The following sub-themes emerged concerning the ramifications of using English for research at AAU:

1. Quality of research is mainly perceived qualitatively as the freedom to articulate ideas, concepts, findings and interpretations;
2. English language capital affecting the quality of pre-submitted manuscripts;

3. Compared to senior staff research, levels of English competence were revealed as primarily impacting on the quality of research of postgraduate students and early-career researchers;
4. Using English for research affecting the quality of linkages between the research and third mission functions of the university; and
5. Impacts on this dimension as having disciplinary dimensions.

5.3.1.1. English Affecting the Pre-Submission Manuscript Quality

Regardless of their views on the language and their preferred language(s) of publication, the majority of participants stated that the level of English language competence affects the quality of research output, especially the quality of manuscripts at the pre-submission stage. An attempt was made to use researchers' own construct of the concept "quality of research" by asking the question: what implications (if any) does the use of English for research have on the quality of research? Although they recognise the role peer-reviewing plays to improve quality, the researchers who pointed out that publishing in English has negative impacts on the quality of research conceive research quality to be related to the freedom to express one's ideas and findings and the rigour and robustness of conceptualisation in academic output:

In one way or another, many of the challenges we have in higher education can be traced to language. I believe the status of English has been one of the reasons for the poor quality of education and research in our higher education institutions.
(Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

One thing that makes the status of English for knowledge production problematic is that when it comes to higher levels of learning and higher forms of articulation like research, a higher level of mastery of the language is required because language is related to critical thinking and cognition. Academic English becomes a problem more for critical reflection and new knowledge generation more than teaching and learning in that for teaching and learning, there is room to accommodate Ethiopian languages, especially Amharic, but for publishing research, there seems to be little room for Ethiopian languages. (Professor, humanities)

5.3.1.2. Quality of Staff Research versus Quality of Postgraduate Research

Not surprisingly, the interviews revealed associations between English-medium research publishing and levels of research experience. For relatively experienced researchers, the impacts on quality seem relatively minimal compared to emerging ones. Experience, social, cultural and economic capitals enable seasoned researchers to navigate the language choice question in publishing. However, for emerging researchers, besides lack of experience and the forms of capital mentioned above, the language and education policies and their implementation are mentioned as causing the crisis of writing and communicating in English.

Below are excerpts from three PhD students regarding the challenges they have:

When it comes to doctoral students and academic staff like myself, English is a huge factor adversely affecting their research in two ways. Most of us are not able to use the language neither in the oral nor written register. I facilitated a PhD proposal defence the other day. The person defending was academically better than all the other students in his cohort. The proposal he submitted as well as his performance in the courses he took were good. But when he was asked to defend the contents of his proposal, he was not able to do that neither in English nor in Amharic. And it was not because he was shy or anything. In addition to my own experience, that made me see that the English language problem is a big factor not only in academic writing but also in speaking. (Lecturer and PhD student, social sciences)

I was a natural science student, and I was not that much into languages. I used to like maths, physics and chemistry. I remember the teachers used Amharic interspersed with English in all the subjects. Therefore, I did not exert much effort to learn English because no extenuating circumstances forced me to exert that effort. It was only when I became a Master's student switching to the social sciences that I seriously saw the need to study the language. At that level, the lecturers were using English interspersed with Amharic. I also came to have classmates who were not proficient in Amharic. (Lecturer and PhD student, humanities)

Writing in English is one of my great challenges working on my PhD studies. My supervisor also often points out that problem though I work hard to get the language right. I have come to rely on the assistance of my younger brother, who is a social science undergraduate student, to help me with some of my language-related issues.
(PhD student, engineering)

Participants who are involved in teaching and supervising PhD students also underline lack of mastery of ERPP as one of the biggest challenges in training the next generation of academics and researchers:

It is a very serious problem. I even see it with my PhD students in medicine. I give this course to medicine and health sciences students in Addis Ababa, Jimma and Haramaya universities. Even at that level, I usually get embarrassed for them when many of them write and make presentations in English. Year after year, it seems that the level of English language proficiency of my graduate students is getting poorer and poorer. (Associate Professor, humanities and social sciences)

Our postgraduate students navigate the double challenge of mastering disciplinary knowledge while at the same time learning a foreign language that they have little exposure to and mastery of—that almost all knowledge is codified in. (Associate Professor, engineering)

I think one of the reasons for the increasingly worrying levels of plagiarism at the postgraduate level is poor English language mastery. (Professor, humanities)

Academic English is a challenge for graduate students from urban and rural areas, though the challenge is more pronounced for those from a rural background:

I mean, students coming from private schools seem to have an advantage when it comes to spoken English and oral presentations. Their English is like music; I mean at least the spoken part. Their written language may not be that good, though. But anyhow, since they already got the fundamental tools, it is relatively easier for them

to improve their written English than students from the provinces. I really feel sorry for students coming from the provinces. You can often sense that not only their written English but the level of their comprehension of the language is low. This observation even includes those with better grades employed as academic staff at newly established universities. (Professor, social sciences)

I have resorted to teaching in Amharic at Master's and PhD levels because of my students' poor English language proficiency. And I am concerned that this problem seems to worsen year after year. (Associate professor, arts and humanities)

5.3.1.3. Publishing in English and Quality as the Third Mission of the University

The arguments regarding English as a liability in Ethiopian higher education that compromises the quality and relevance of research in local contexts are also extended to the quality of university-community linkages, as demonstrated in the following excerpts:

My language is neither here nor there. I feel that my English is not good enough, but neither is my Amharic. There are moments I get embarrassed because I was not able to articulate my thoughts in my mother tongue, neither in written or spoken forms for local stakeholders outside the university. And people interpret it as an attempt on my side to display my superiority by sprinkling my spoken and written and spoken Amharic with English. But that is not really the case. (Associate professor, engineering)

One of the reasons that the university is seen as a sort of ivory tower is that it uses language inaccessible to the general public. I can say that I had a better engagement for the research I conducted as a consultant than my often pay-walled publications in international journals. For consultancy projects, the quality of engagement is enhanced because I was able to publish the output in multiple languages and make presentations in languages that my local audiences could freely understand. (Assistant professor, humanities)

Education as discourse has not taken hold among people outside the vicinity of the university and remains only a high-level discourse is partly because of the use of the English language. One of the reasons that I feel that bridges that connect the university with other institutions and society, are broken is because of the mandatory use of English in higher education. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

The responses to the quality dimension also highlight disciplinary differences. Researchers in the humanities and social sciences generally regard the English language problem discussed in this thesis as an obstacle to conducting and publishing quality research. The responses from the natural sciences and engineering are mixed in this regard.

5.3.2. Overall Quantity

A complex picture also emerged when the researchers and university leaders were asked how publishing in English would affect their productivity levels. The major themes that arose when assessing the implications of using English considering the amount of research and publication can be summarised into the following:

- Researching and publishing in English as perceived as not having any impact on research quantity;
- Researching and publishing in English as a time-consuming undertaking;
- Researching in English as time-saving; and
- Disciplinary differences.

A few researchers asserted that they observe no correlations between the amount of research and the level of an academic's proficiency in English:

I haven't seen any special issue because I have noticed that some people have good English proficiency, but we don't often see them capitalising on that for research. On the contrary, there are people whose English is not that good but publish a lot. Therefore, when we assess things from this vantage point, the level of English

proficiency does not affect the level of one's publication output. In the Ethiopian context, publishing research is related to the level of commitment and research skills individual researchers have to being published. And if a researcher has got the necessary research-related skills and commitment, I don't think the language would be a barrier to becoming a productive researcher. (Lecturer, natural sciences)

Research output is documented through language. As such, the challenge we are facing regarding English is a component of the larger problems related to conducting and publishing research. But I don't think it is a major component though. I studied in Italy, and I spent the first six months studying Italian. After that, we commenced our studies in Italian. And after two years, I also wrote my Master's thesis in Italian. I don't think we did a bad job because we had the argumentation skills needed for research. In fact, I think we did well, so much so that other Ethiopians who joined the school after us were welcomed and treated with respect. Research is tied to one's mental capacity and critical and scientific thinking skills. (Professor, engineering)

On the one hand, using English as a foreign language was seen as time-consuming since writing not only in a foreign language but also in the academic register was deemed cumbersome. Reading and understanding the literature in English is also seen as more time-consuming than reading in local languages. The following excerpts from three participants reflect the views regarding publishing in English as time-intensive activity:

I was telling my friends that if I have been allowed to, of course, I have been allowed, but you cannot reach international audiences if you write in one of the national languages here in Ethiopia. I tried once through the Ethiopian institute of studies, and it was such an exciting exercise. You know you can write in the way you want to say, and it was so perfect, and when you get feedback again from the reviewers, it is very easy to understand what they want to say. So let alone others, I myself can say that if I am publishing in Amharic, I could have been a professor by this time if not for the matter of service years, so it is very easy, and the other problem is

translation. most of the sources that you get for your research is in English, so it is not only knowing the language Amharic, but you need to have the translation skill so first to understand what it means and then how to say it in Amharic, but it would be very much easy, and it would increase from my point of view it will definitely increase the number of research that somebody would contribute had it been in one of the local languages that we have. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

Reading and writing in English is quite-consuming for me. I often take a long time to read and write my chapters and send them to my supervisor. The feedback I receive is more correcting my language than comments related to the content of my writing—I mean comments like asking for clarifications regarding what I intended to say, suggesting language changes and questioning the appropriateness of usage. Receiving such feedback has started to make me think that maybe I would move with my PhD faster if I had a better grasp of English. (Lecturer and PhD student, humanities)

For me, doing a PhD in English is very time consuming. In order to understand literature in my field, which is 100% in English, I have to translate abstracts and parts of texts into Amharic first. (PhD student, engineering)

On the other hand, some researchers pointed out that publishing in English might be easier than publishing in the local languages. The idea that Ethiopian languages are not developed enough to be research languages is stated as one reason. Writing in local languages would involve considerable time, effort, and skill to translate literature from English to Ethiopian languages. Publishing in Ethiopian languages provides more freedom to express thought but could still be time-consuming since it still involves translating literature that is predominantly in English.

Similar to implications on quality, the perceived impact on quantity also seems to have disciplinary dimensions. Researchers from the humanities and social sciences expressed that their productivity levels would be higher with the possibility of publishing in Ethiopian

languages. In concurrence, natural, medical, and engineering researchers emphasise that using English would lower productivity.

5.4. English for Access to Economic, Social and Cultural Capital

The findings of this dimension of the study are presented in two main sub-sections. In general, English proficiency is viewed as an essential currency for a career in academia. A number of the interviews have highlighted that it is impossible to survive academia without a reasonable mastery of English. Two-thirds of them have stated that their level of English proficiency has helped them have better careers, as presented in the quote below:

The fact that I can proficiently use English has had a positive effect on my career. Starting with my undergraduate days, I have noticed that English language proficiency is an added advantage. That is especially the case with my writing skills. I sometimes go back to reading what I wrote during my undergraduate days and say that it was not bad. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

In the research and academic circle, the general perceived notions, where English is perceived to be a marker of erudition and modernity, is also not present. A researcher's mastery of spoken and written English does not seem to have the currency it is perceived to have in society and at school and undergraduate levels.

5.4.1. Impact on Economic Capital

The first section presents the responses regarding the impact of English language capital on economic capital. The findings suggest that while respondents recognise the importance of English language competence for accessing research funding and grants and being involved in research networks and collaborations, they do not perceive it as a barrier in this regard. The findings suggest that current communicative competencies are sufficient to access collaborations and grants. This contrasts with the finds presented in the earlier section as English, affecting specifically the quality of research. The following excerpts summarise the findings regarding access to funding in relation to English linguistic capital:

I think my English is good enough for writing grant applications. The challenge is actually a lack of information regarding, especially external grants. (Associate professor, social sciences)

I don't really write many grant applications. But I don't consider English as a barrier. (Lecturer, natural sciences)

Regarding applying for research funding, my challenge is getting the technical aspects right, like budgeting and meeting funders' priorities. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

5.4.2. Impact on Social Capital

When it comes to accessing grants and being a part of international collaborative networks, communicative competence obtained through learning English as a school subject and then attending universities where it is used as a medium of instruction were perceived to be sufficient as exemplified in the ensuing responses:

I am actually good at verbal and written communication with my colleagues and collaborators in Ethiopia and abroad. My challenge is more on academic writing in English. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

By nature, publishing in biomedical sciences is quite collaborative. So I get to collaborate with researchers from all over the world. One thing I noticed is that the level of our English language is not often a barrier to collaborations and building networks. (Associate professor, biomedical sciences)

The problem is that we do not actively seek international collaborations. If you know South African professors in my field, please let me know. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

I mean, I don't think there is a correlation between being an excellent researcher and being an active networker and having excellent English language skills.

(Professor, humanities)

This suggests that the challenges these researchers perceive to have regarding the language are related to using it in the academic register where more sophisticated mastery is required. This also suggests that ERPP studies should explore not only the perspectives of various stakeholders in the higher education space and the stages of manuscript writing and submission but also the purpose and medium of scholarly and scientific communication.

There are also indications that having more funding and networks might positively improve perceived deficits in English language capital. This provides the opportunity to hire editors and translators. Graduate students also benefit from the assistance of engaged supervisors who not only edit their work, some of them go to the extent of hiring editors, stretching the limited resources they have. More than international collaborations, local collaborations and networks were also found to be important since researchers reported often seeking the assistance of other Ethiopian researchers that they perceive better mastery of the language.

5.5. ERPP and Rethinking Higher Education

Regardless of their views on using English for publication at AAU, the majority of the respondents regarded the broader language choice question to be one of the main components of rethinking higher education. Underpinning these concerns are global, national and local issues. On the one hand, there were concerns related to perceived low levels of English competency, the global language of science and the official medium of higher education in the country. On the other hand, there was a call for urgent attention to create a space for Ethiopian languages and open the research and publication space in a way that accommodates researchers' freedom to choose their language of articulating their scholarly output, and to improve research quality, quantity and relevance considering national and local linguistic realities. Both significant issues are entangled with dimensions/challenges that participants state need a rethink: (1) limited institutional discussions and support; (2) politics of language and identity; and (3) language policies and their implementation.

There were also other dimensions specific to each of the two broad concerns the respondents stated as requiring attention. With regard to enhancing the English language, rethinking pedagogies and teacher training at all levels of education were frequently mentioned. Regarding the incorporation of Ethiopian languages:

- The uncritical acceptance of English as the language of publication perceived as a manifestation of dependence/ extroversion;
- The quest for relevance and the absence of Ethiopian languages in intellectual production;
- “Habitus” of coloniality and complicity of the academia;
- Language policy and politics—of difference, discontinuity; and
- Limited currency of the languages and the need to make pragmatic choices.

5.5.1. Institutional Discussions, Support, Politics and Policy

The participants stated that there is little to no formal or informal discussion on the topic at national, institutional, and departmental levels. Although formal discussions on the issue are almost non-existent, some participants point out the existence of informal discussions between colleagues:

Yeah, there are informal forms of discussion... but you know, sometimes because of the politics, those conversations never get anywhere. But I personally do not understand why we use only English. For me, had it not been for political issues, Amharic could function better and could be better managed as a medium of higher education. We can also add languages like Afaan Oromo and so forth... the most important point is to ask the question: given our context, in which language or languages do we have a better capacity to deliver content? (Associate professor, social sciences)

Well, I don't remember having discussions of that nature. You see, this is a highly politicised and sensitive issue. So... we tend to shy away from having conversations about it. (Lecturer and PhD student, social sciences)

I mean, there is no such lively debate. Some concerned individuals who look at the level of competence of our students in the English language raise the issue from time to time. But I think the vast majority of instructors are simply comfortable with teaching and researching in English. The discussion is very limited to circles like people in philosophy, politics and people who are concerned with ideas related to the impacts of phenomena such as neo-colonialism and neoliberalism. (Professor, humanities)

When language-related issues are raised, it seems that they are often focused on teaching and learning. A former official at the Ethiopian ministry of education corroborates this:

As far as I remember, whenever we talked about the English language, it was always in terms of teaching and learning. I don't remember any discussions regarding research and knowledge production.

These limited informal conversations seem to have disciplinary variations. They seem to be more pronounced among academic staff in the social sciences and humanities than in the natural sciences and engineering. A few participants mentioned recent early-stage discussions among researchers in the biomedical sciences regarding the possibilities of making research accessible in Ethiopian languages. One of the reasons for the absence of formal discussions could be that the language question is not a priority both in institutional documents and policy directions regarding research and for academic staff and institutional leaders.

None of the academic staff participants reported any organised and institutionalised ERPP-related support. Researchers are often expected to exercise their agency and deal with it themselves if they face challenges related to English language proficiency. In addition, university management also stated that there is an English Language Improvement Centre that is also

intended to provide language support to academic staff and cater to the needs of students. A university leader state:

We have opened a language improvement centre. Therefore, students and academic staff who need assistance with the language can take training. However, the problem nobody comes forward admitting that they have those issues. You know, Habeshas (often used as a synonym for Ethiopians) sometimes tend to project this persona that they are capable even in situations that they are not. (Professor of social sciences, university leader)

As can be inferred from previous sections, discussions on ERPP in the Ethiopian context is entangled with highly politicised and polarised linguistic, historical and socioeconomic context. This is in addition to pragmatic concerns resulting from the complexities of the multilingual nation and the hegemonic power of the English language. The fear of the politicised nature of the topic has not only been a stumbling block for having open and honest discussions, it has also led some to argue for the legitimisation of English as the sole language of research and publication. In a way, rather than having protracted discussions on the topic that are likely to bring misunderstanding and even more polarisation, English is seen as a way out. Compared to the many languages of the county that have their cheerleaders and critiques, English is perceived as a neutral, even democratising language although it has almost no native language speakers.

Despite these complexities, the respondents highlighted the need to start the discussions and gradually start without sliding into cultural essentialism:

It will be a mess and mission impossible if we decide to change the language of higher education overnight. If using Ethiopian languages as languages of research is to be considered in our higher education system, it has to be done gradually. It cannot be accomplished in a short time like a revolution. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

I don't think it is logical to shy away from discussing the topic just because we are afraid of politics. I think the constitution allows us to have such discussions. For

instance, we can start with strengthening languages such as Amharic and Afaan Oromo and then gradually add more languages as languages of research and knowledge production. I think we can start the whole process by at least starting with Amharic since it is the shared language of multicultural and multilingual communities. This would enable us to do better and more relevant science. I think it would facilitate knowledge communication and sharing among people and scholars in the country. Policymakers need to learn how they successfully implemented mother tongue education in the past decade and translate those lessons to the higher education space. (Lecturer and PhD student, humanities)

But I also notice that reactions to neocolonialism tendencies such as the hegemonic power of English have become extreme cultural essentialism. We seem to lack critical perspectives. We have a generation of young people who are drunk with cultural ethnocentrism. They seem to be only concerned about their culture. Being critical implies not worshipping or romanticising the idea of Ethiopia, but it means developing knowledge from Ethiopia with critical engagement. Critique is important, and then knowledge grows. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

Lack of nuance in language and educational policies and their implementation have been mentioned as reasons for the poor level of English language mastery and the making of Ethiopian languages invisible in the university space, including for research and knowledge production. In both cases, the participants trace the problem to policy and implementation starting from the primary school level. Related to English, mother tongue education policies are not backed up by proper English language training, and lack of policy coordination and coherence seems to have negative implications for mastery of languages:

Students in different regions start their English language lessons at different grades. That makes coordinating language policing difficult. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Related to Ethiopian languages, a national policy that promotes English as the sole language of instruction starting from high school is blamed for stunting gains made in terms of

intellectualising them. Ethiopian languages used as mediums of instruction at the primary school level until Grade seven or eight in some regions suddenly disappear at secondary school and higher education levels, as exemplified by this response from one participant:

You see, we have terminologies for many scientific terms in many Ethiopian languages. But we leave those at Grade seven. All the hard work of translating key scientific terminologies just remains at that level. For instance, the cerebrum is አንጎል አለምርቅ, the cerebellum is አንጎል ገቢር, and medulla oblongata is አንጎል ሰረሰር, but when we get to high school and higher education, we never use these terminologies, even in conversations in Amharic. (Assistant professor, natural sciences)

5.5.2. English Language-Specific Concerns

In addition to limited discussions and support, politics and policy and implementation, poor English language teaching pedagogies are also mentioned as responsible for lower levels of proficiency:

We learned English in Amharic. The teachers themselves do not have the linguistic and pedagogic capacities to teach the language. We often have teachers who are trying to teach without understanding neither the language nor the content. (Assistant professor, humanities)

I think one of the reasons for the poor level of proficiency is the way we have been taught the language. You know, in other parts of the world, you can easily learn English within six months to a year, but we have learned English for 12 years or even more but still find it challenging even at the level we are talking about. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

Yet another reason mentioned as a challenge is related to teachers' competence and what a participant referred to as the "abysmal" state of teacher education. The devaluing of teaching as a profession at school and higher education levels has led to a situation where the least performing

students end up joining the profession, leading to what one participant referred to as the “reproduction of mediocrity.” These concerns are highlighted further:

I think poor language proficiency can be related to the overall poor quality of education at the school level. And this has a lot to do with the abysmal status of teacher training in the county. This situation is even worse in higher education. In the old times, teaching in higher education was regarded as a noble and prestigious profession that attracts the best graduates. But nowadays, it has been reduced to an occupation where people that do not have other options turn to. (Professor, engineering)

You have to ask who is teaching English. Language departments, including English language ones, recruit students with the lowest score in English, and these people end up teaching the next generation of scholars. (Associate professor, arts and humanities)

Therefore, the respondents underscore that if a “foreign” language such as English is to play the role ascribed for it in Ethiopian higher education research and publication, investments need to be made to assist researchers in navigating the overwhelmingly English-intensive academia.

5.5.3. Ethiopian Languages in Higher Education Research: Dependency and Extroversion

The failure to use Ethiopian languages for knowledge production and publication has been raised as a manifestation of the uncritical adoption of western and international norms. The researchers used two interrelated concepts to critique this phenomenon. Some subscribed to the idea that it is a manifestation of a neo-colonial mentality and hence called for decolonisation:

We often hear that Ethiopia was never colonised. But that is only in theory, not in practice. The fact that the country’s languages have no place in higher education research and publishing is one manifestation. We are so dependent on English that sometimes being proficient in the language is regarded as the height of greatness or being a knowledgeable person. But we know that even uneducated farmers in

neighbouring Kenya can fluently speak the language. (Associate professor, social sciences)

We boast about having never been colonised, but we have been effectively colonised because of modern education. Ethiopian education policy and practice are often imported from America or Europe—We adopt things without the necessary critical reflection that includes English as a medium of instruction. We have therefore become an extension of the West. You have to bear in mind that the West is a relative concept, though. ...We have been hibernating under the delusion of not being colonised. And I think it is high time to face that and start working on decolonising our mentality. Of course, it is not full-on direct colonisation.... Ours is a different kind, and it is usually limited to educated people. I sometimes think that the fact that we have a small percentage of educated people in this country is a blessing in disguise. Our traditional knowledge, especially enshrined in the Orthodox Church, Islam and indigenous cultures, seems irrelevant in the modern university. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

The others stated that the neo-coloniality concept might not apply to Ethiopia since it has not been directly colonised, but these participants still critiqued what they perceived as dependence on Euro-American intellectual traditions, the dependence on English being a case-in-point. The uncritical acceptance of the use of English is cited as one of the manifestations of this dependence:

I mean, if you look at most of the higher education research in South Africa, decolonisation is one of the buzzwords. I mean, it might be good for the South Africans to decolonise this and that. But that is not an issue in Ethiopia. But yeah, if it comes to indigenisation, yes, that is a discourse that could partly apply to Ethiopia. That is why we should always only look to the outside worldwide when we have so many internal resources which we indigenous knowledge. I can see that some people were saying that. But I have not come across people saying that we should decolonise this one because we do not believe that in any way we have been

decolonised I mean not physical colonisation like the one, but culturally yes, I would say that we have been partly colonised because we are thinking in the way that others want us to think. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

Yeah, sure, because most of the research concepts that we want to develop, we think that whether it really is suitable for the international audiences whether it gets published in the international journals if you make to look [sic]. It might be very good and relevant to the nation, but it might be too specific to the international journals they may not be interested so in some way, you want to make a balance between international and national interests which should not be the case if you think that it's 100% perfect for the national development then you have to do it regardless of what the outside world wants. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Except for a minority of respondents, the large majority of responses highlight the need to interrogate/decolonise what was perceived as dependence, neocolonialism, and lack of collective and critical engagement on the topic:

So, there seems to be a lack of understanding of the issue. There seems to be a lack of readiness as well. We have just inherited this system. We have not actively created it. I mean, we were not under direct colonial rule, but the system was established by foreigners, Canadians and so on, particularly this university. But we seem comfortable just continuing with the language that has begun may be political issues can be involved in this. (Professor, humanities)

This observation holds even among researchers who subscribe to the idea that English is the language of global science. The complicity of academia in propagating and glorifying English as the sole language of the Ethiopian academe is highlighted.

Among some respondents, there seems to be a consensus that Amharic could potentially serve as a better medium of higher education and research and teaching and learning than English. Complexifying the issue even further, some participants, however, highlighted that the language is as challenging as English foregrounding the need to study local linguistic hierarchies and

historiography in addition to investigating global dynamics. Some of the critical points in this regard came from young academics:

I think we cannot write science in Amharic. Maybe Ge'ez, yes. It is the most sophisticated language that is unfortunately confined to the church. (PhD student and lecturer, humanities)

I speak Afaan Oromo. My mastery of Amharic is poor. I mean, if you ask me to write in Amharic, it is equally if not more challenging than writing in English. (PhD student, humanities)

When we talk about the university and knowledge before 1950, people often talk about religious education enshrined in Christianity and Islam. But to be honest, these religions are not really indigenous to Ethiopia. Of course, they have a long history in Ethiopia that is almost as old as the religions themselves. But I think we need to expand the conversation to indigenous cultures and languages in addition to Amharic Ge'ez or Arabic. (Assistant professor, humanities)

5.5.4. Resistance and the Role of Individual Agency

In the absence of institutional support and discussions, agency plays a role. Two manifestations are noted 1) developing and expanding new dispositions and capital; 2) resisting the status quo.

Some strategies for enhancing new dispositions where researchers attempted to navigate the English language-dominated research landscapes include: taking courses, translating texts into Amharic to ensure understanding, reading non-academic fictional and non-fictional literature in English, seeking the assistance of colleagues and even family members, and to a lesser extent, seeking paid assistance. Researchers in the natural sciences stated seeking the support of other colleagues, mainly in the social sciences, with perceived higher levels of English. Those involved in donor-funded projects and those with generous supervisors mentioned hiring language editors. Journal editors also stated that, when required, they have face-to-face editing

meetings with authors to ensure English language quality. The ensuing excerpts demonstrate these views:

As a schoolboy, when I read fiction (in English), I was not only entertaining myself, but I was also trying to learn the language. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

I hear issues related to research like publishing in peer-reviewed journals, journal impact factors, but the whole thing is new for me. That is why I took a six-week online training from a platform called Authoraid; I don't know if you are familiar with their services. I mean, if you don't try on your own, there is no tradition of assisting people like me at the institutional level. The problem is much more challenging for people like me to do their PhDs locally. Those who did it in countries with more developed research cultures are more equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills regarding research publishing. (Lecturer and PhD student, social sciences)

In addition to the structural, cultural, political, policy and power-related entanglements, another dimension that emerged is related to agency and resistance, albeit at the individual level. Participants referred to instances where they attempted to challenge the status quo and hegemony by:

1. Playing the scholar-activist;
2. Allowing graduate students to write in Ethiopian languages;
3. Writing and publishing in Ethiopian languages; and
4. Designing courses and programmes in Ethiopian languages.

However, these acts of resistance also face counter-resistance at the macro, meso, and micro levels from individuals and departments and institutions that upheld and enforced the status quo:

Many of our academics and students still see English as the only legitimate language of research and undermine Ethiopian languages' role. For instance, just the other day, a student I supervise came with a hard-to-comprehend text written in English. Seeing that, I asked him to submit the text to me in Amharic. Even though Amharic was his mother tongue, the student refused to do so. And he was adamant about submitting his text in English. (Associate Professor, humanities and social sciences)

A number of the participants raised a philosophy professor's attempt to teach philosophy in Amharic during the Derg regime. Professor Messay Kebede's project failed due to resistance at the macro and micro levels. One of Kebede's former students, now a professor at the university, states the following reminiscing about the initiative:

I mean, there have been attempts to use Amharic as a medium in the past. For instance, Messay Kebede has tried to teach philosophy in Amharic. But there was a lot of resistance to his initiative. Even us, his students, opposed his project. We were young, immature and gullible at that time. We did not have the level of understanding and consciousness that we have now. (Associate professor, social sciences)

In a media interview conducted in December 2020, Kebede recalls his efforts as follows:

...the other important thing is the issue of language. I mean, I don't know if you are aware of this, but I, at one point during Derg's time ... I saw that you cannot centre yourself unless you use and learn with your own languagethe the fact that you speak English or French does de-centre you totally. ... you can't express yourself in your own language; you can't use that knowledge also in your own language. Language is not just simply an instrument of expression. It could also be a means by which you further alienate yourself from, let's say, your tradition. So I attempted to teach in Amharic the introductory course titled Introduction to Marxist-Leninist philosophy. But I had to battle with so many people. The whole university at the time, with some exceptions, were against the experiment.

Messay Kebede, who now teaches at the University of Dayton in the US, was fired from Addis Ababa University along with 40 other academics in 1993 for political reasons. He taught philosophy at AAU from 1976 to 1993. He also served as chair of the department of philosophy from 1980 to 1991.

Besides addressing ERPP issues, involvement in research is also regarded more as something passionate and patient individuals pursue:

Let alone language, but research itself is the result of individual commitment than institutional support (Associate professor, engineering)

Research is something I participate in because I like what I do. Whatever I have accomplished, I can say, is not because of a conducive environment. It is despite the hurdles that are there. But sometimes, the challenges become too much. I recently had to let go of millions of birr projects because of the financial administration nightmare. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

Individual agency, however, is not observed to lead to more significant institutionalised changes. There is also a noticeable lack of organised advocacy for the inclusion of Ethiopian languages as mediums of research. As Messay Kebede's attempts and a few other voices highlighted, institutional resistance to the matter is substantial. Part of the reason might be that researchers and university leaders do not consider the language question a burning issue, given that they face many other challenges as far as research and publication are concerned.

5.6. Rethinking the ERPP Question: Intersecting Variables

The findings in this chapter should be interpreted in the light of other intersecting variables that affect research and publication at the university. Both researchers and leaders highlight several challenges affecting research productivity, namely: overly complicated finance and procurement procedures, limited infrastructure and capacity, high teaching load, and poor research culture. Academic staff members also highlighted inadequate support mechanisms as a challenge. The

ensuing two lengthy excerpts from two academic staff members from the social sciences and humanities capture some of these outstanding challenges:

One of the primary challenges is the torturous financial and procurement procedures. Getting reimbursements and accounting for expenses is quite a hassle. The university finance office doesn't seem organised. And they don't seem to know what they are doing and what implications their rigid and, at times, erratic procedures and requirements have on the research process. For instance, they require researchers to produce receipts of things like refreshments for informants. You are not only expected to have receipts, but the informants need to sign that they have used the refreshments, and they (informants) need to provide IDs so that the researcher can attach copies of them when requesting reimbursement (the receipts, the signatures and copies of IDs of informants are needed). If you collect data by making the informants sign forms and requesting copies of their IDs, you can imagine its impact on the research and the data obtained. By institutionalising this procedure, you are also creating a precedent for other informants to expect money before being involved in research as participants. This has actually become the case in some places and institutions where researchers often visit to collect data. (Associate professor, humanities and social sciences)

When you are working in this kind of university, it is very easy to mention those challenges finance is, or funding is a very big challenge. The university often uses funds which it gets from the Ministry of Finance and Development (MoFED) for research. There is also a flawed system that does not allow the university to use the income that the university generates in the way it wants. This is also another challenge. The other one is the infrastructure. We do not have very much good infrastructure when it comes to laboratories and other things such as state-of-the-art laboratories; of course, there might be some; it is not up to date. The other challenge is that research is not a culture, and people get employed believing that they are a teacher rather than a researcher, so they focus more on teaching than research. And the other problem that I see is also research skills. They do not want to talk about it

even though people with a terminal degree have a very serious lack of research skills. And the other one is collaboration.... You do not see the synergy between established researchers with mid-career and early-career researchers. It is not obligatory even when you apply for a certain grant that there should be this kind of mix. So, mentorship is another problem. (Associate professor, social sciences and humanities)

Although using English for research publishing has had multidimensional challenges and impacts, because of these concerns, it might not have been perceived as the outstanding concern negatively affecting knowledge production at the university. As one participant asserted:

I mean, for instance, compared to issues related to financial management, I don't think language is a big challenge. I mean, we have a very hard time with the research funding that we ourselves got because of the long and tedious university financial administration. So much so that to even attend this conference, a foreign university had to pay for our tickets. (Associate professor, social sciences)

In addition to funding constraints, and convoluted financial and procurement procedures, institutional leaders, for their part, highlighted limited institutional autonomy and research capacity as significant constraints affecting research policy-making and strategising, including the language issue, as raised by the following two participants:

One major challenge is the research capacity we have to upgrade. That is up to us to do so. The other challenge is financial constraint. The university is not in a capacity to fund all the proposals. So, we have to choose a few of the best proposals. So we have not fully satisfied the demand from the faculty, so that is quite a challenge—that the financial administration in AAU, like all other financial administrations in the country, is very bureaucratic, with lots of red tapes. So researchers spend lots of their time visiting the financial offices rather than concentrating on their research, which costs their time, patience, and emotions. Also, we are trying to solve the financial problems by creating grant management used in the financial system and

paying more than the national scale to financial grant management staff. That way, we might solve [the problems], but we don't know; it is an experiment. (Professor of natural sciences, university leader)

Our greatest challenge is related to autonomy. You see, the university has no mandate to make policies and regulations regarding some of the burning issues in research and teaching and learning, that includes the issue of language. (Professor of social sciences, university leader)

All in all, it is noteworthy that the language-in-research-question investigated in this case study is entangled with other factors related to the prevailing non-linguistic and contextual conditions of knowledge production that have bearings on the academic profession and practice.

5.7. Conclusion

In AAU, English is perceived as both an asset and a liability. There seems to be a general agreement that English impacts on the quality of research, but the quality is perceived as rigour and the capacity to articulate research findings rather than the commonly held notions of quality as being published in journals with high impact factors. Writing and publishing in English was perceived to be both a time-consuming and time-saving endeavour. However, the level of English proficiency was not perceived to impact on access to networks and collaborations, indicating that the challenge Ethiopian researchers face is using English in the academic register. Their level of English seems good enough for spoken and written communication needed for networking and collaborations.

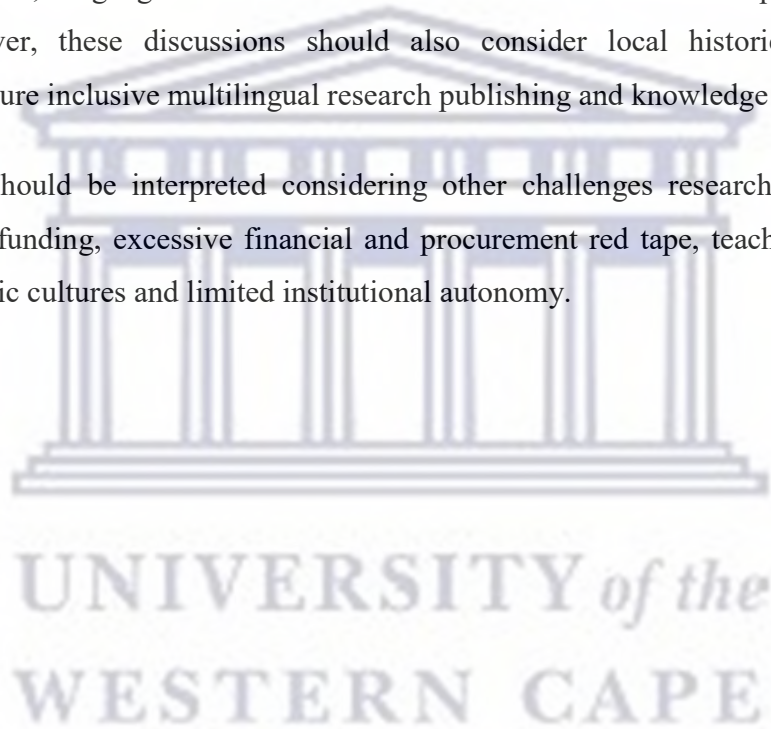
ERPP-related issues that were found to be crosscutting all research questions were:

- Disciplinary differences regarding perceived implications;
- Impacts not only on the research mission but also on the third mission;

- Challenges, especially to PhD students and early-career researchers, traced to not only lack of research experience but also to language policies and their implementation at all levels of education; and
- Lack of recognition of the problem, especially at the institutional level.

There is interest in publishing in Ethiopian languages to a considerably greater extent in the social sciences and humanities and to a lesser extent in natural sciences, engineering and medicine. However, both researchers and editors underscored the lack of standardisation of Ethiopian languages, even Amharic, for research and publication purposes. This underscores the need to have open and candid discussions on the implications of continuing to use only English where, for instance, languages like Amharic are better mastered in both spoken and written domains. However, these discussions should also consider local histories and linguistic hierarchies to ensure inclusive multilingual research publishing and knowledge archiving.

These findings should be interpreted considering other challenges researchers face, such as limited research funding, excessive financial and procurement red tape, teaching and learning-intensive academic cultures and limited institutional autonomy.



CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS FROM EDUARDO MONDLANE UNIVERSITY (UEM)

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the second case study, Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM). As in the earlier chapter dealing with the results from Addis Ababa University, the findings from this case study are thematically presented in line with the research questions. ⁶Similar to the previous chapter on AAU, copious amounts of interview excerpts are used to illustrate the various perspectives and themes that emerged in the analysis. The first section provides the multilingual participants' overall perspectives regarding English for research and publication purposes (ERPP). This is followed by an exploration of ERPP's ramifications on the quality and quantity of research output. Implications pertaining to the perceived relationships between English language capital and other forms of research-related capital such as funding and collaborations are then presented in the next section. The last two sections explore the topic considering dimensions related to rethinking higher education research publishing and outline other variables that need to be considered in interpreting the findings.

All UEM participants (academic staff members and university leaders) report some level of proficiency at least in three languages—one of the Bantu languages spoken in Mozambique, Portuguese and English. Some participants reported being proficient in five to eight languages. Most participants had one of the Bantu languages as their mother tongue, while two researchers indicated Portuguese as their first language. One of the participants stated that English was their mother tongue, since the respondent was raised in neighbouring Zimbabwe. Although they were willing and preferred to give me the interviews in English, most participants also stated that they were most comfortable when communicating in Portuguese in day-to-day situations. It is also worth noting that for most participants, the conversations for this study were the first English-medium interviews in which they had participated as respondents.

⁶ Chapter Seven provides an in-depth examination and interpretation of the findings presented in this chapter, along with a cross-case analysis with AAU.

Similar to the Addis Ababa university participants, UEM respondents indicated no inherited English language capital except one participant. All participants, except one, also attended public schools. They took the English language as a subject at the school level but had to take extra classes/courses or attend private colleges to improve their English language skills. International travel and studies abroad have also contributed to boosting the respondents' multilingualism, including English. At different stages of their career, the participants have obtained advanced degrees in countries such as Germany, Portugal, Brazil, the US, Sweden and South Africa.

The participants themselves, as well as an assessment of their individual research profiles, revealed that they have predominantly published in English and Portuguese. The PhD students interviewed were also undertaking their studies in English and Portuguese. A few participants have also undertaken their PhD studies and have published in German, Spanish and Swedish. The Portuguese language publications highlight links with Brazilian and Portuguese institutions, researchers and publication outlets. UEM's only journal, *The UEM Scientific Journal*, is also predominantly published in Portuguese. This is a multidisciplinary publication covering various disciplines ranging from biomedical sciences, engineering, law, and the arts and humanities. It is noteworthy that the publication output from this journal was not factored in when calculating the research output for the university presented in Chapter Four since the journal is not yet indexed in major international databases, including Scopus and Web of Science. As with the researchers in AAU, UEM participants also stated that they had conducted contract research and consultancy published mainly in Portuguese. The respondents' peer-reviewed body of work mainly comprised journal articles and book chapters. However, none of the PhD students interviewed reported publishing peer-reviewed content.

6.2. General Perspectives

Overall, more favourable views toward ERPP were reflected in UEM compared to AAU. English is perceived as more of an asset than a liability, and respondents repeatedly referred to it as “the language of science” that creates avenues for researchers and universities to make their publications accessible to the rest of the world. Phrases such as a “foreign language” often heard from AAU participants to describe the language were not noted in the responses. The predominant themes that emerged in the assessment of ERPP-related overall perceptions were:

1. Discourses related to the internationalisation of higher education and goals related to publishing research mainly for disciplinary communities underlie the largely favourable views.
2. Geopolitical concerns, and postgraduate education and funding mechanisms are identified as further drivers to “Anglicise” Mozambican research and publishing.
3. Perceived low levels of overall English proficiency and capital were identified as a disadvantage.
4. A number of variables suggest that the amount of Portuguese-medium research might be higher than represented in international databases such as Scopus or Web of Science.

6.2.1. Advantages of the widespread use of English for Research Publishing

Two of the three main reasons mentioned by Ethiopian researchers and university leaders (visibility and access to disciplinary literature) at both individual and institutional levels, and fulfilling commitments to knowledge production for disciplinary communities were stated by UEM participants as the predominant advantages of publishing in English. Arguments favouring internationalisation and considering the prevailing trends of global scientific publishing underpin the reflections in this regard:

In my view there is a factor..., I think that people are aware that if they want to be read by someone else they have to write in English. If they want to have impactful research, that should be in English. And if you look at the journals that are available in the scientific communication in the world, the most relevant ones, even in terms of impact factors, recognition and appeals, are in English. And last, which is general, in my opinion, has to do with the bias that the scientific databases... have when it comes to English-speaking countries... So it is not surprising that if you go to Scopus if you go to the Web of Science to find research that has been undertaken by Eduardo Mondlane University, you will find them in English. (Associate professor, health sciences)

A researcher and university leader reflects that beyond assessments of advantages and disadvantages lies a reality that needs to be embraced:

Well, I don't think that Mozambique is an exception to the trend. If you go to other countries, which have an official language which is not English, they also use English. I think this is a global trend in my view. Science speaks English. Unfortunately or fortunately, I don't know how to qualify that. (Associate professor of social sciences and university leader)

While researchers made their arguments based on assessments of English as the language of science, university leaders brought in concerns related to university rankings. These quotes from university leaders summarise these sentiments:

...I personally think that in trying to be a research-intensive university, it is good for UEM to use English....To try to invite more people to use English and expand the use of the language can only give good results.... Of course, we talked about some negative aspects, but if I evaluate the positive and negative, the positive aspects of using English are, of course, much much more. So I would encourage everyone here to learn English and everyone here to publish in English and to use the language for knowledge transfer. I would encourage our PhD students and postgraduate programmes that we should be able to teach more and more in Portuguese and in English to address international students. For the internationalisation of our university and to be recognised as a well ranked research-oriented university, I think using English will help... in publishing research of higher quality and in creating access to many networks and groups.... Of course, we need to look into aspects relevant to our country. But we can't only want to be local. Even the students we train nowadays, we can't only train them to be focused on national issues. Otherwise, they can't be competitive when they go abroad to other countries. (Associate professor of natural sciences and university leader)

As we want to be a more research-intensive university, we want to attract international faculty and postgraduate students. And to attract them, we have to

teach in English. And having teachers and students from different parts of the world is good for us for internationalisation as well. We do have now in our Master's and PhD courses people coming from other countries teaching, researching and studying because it is possible to do it in English. (Associate professor of social sciences and university leader)

The favourable views English enjoys at UEM are also noted among the members of the editorial team of the university's journal:

When we started this journal, we asked the university council, because the council has to approve the journal and approve the guidelines of the journal. And we said that this journal will be published in English because English is the international language of science. And then came the political part. They said, 'our country is a Portuguese-speaking country, so how can we publish a journal only in English because people here speak Portuguese. They are taught in Portuguese in our schools and universities. So it could not be like you said that the journal will be published in English. It has to be in Portuguese because it is a national journal.' Yet, we tried to convince them by saying. First, few people could read the papers published in the journal in Portuguese. You'll have more opportunities to get citations if you publish in English because many people will read your papers. But we couldn't convince them. And then we compromised and said, 'okay we will publish in Portuguese and in English.' So we took both languages. If authors want to write in either Portuguese or English, they can. But the assumption is that the title, abstract and keywords must be in both languages.... But we try to convince people that if they write in English, they will be rewarded with more readers and citations...., and many people will refer to their work.... And people that studied abroad in English-speaking countries prefer to write in English. But people who studied here or in Brazil or Portugal prefer to write in Portuguese because they are more skilled in writing in Portuguese than writing in English. (Associate professor of natural sciences and member of journal editorial team)

As the overall reflections implicitly or explicitly juxtaposed English with Portuguese, English was also viewed as an inherently more concise and comprehensive language of science communication among some participants:

Portuguese is not the ideal medium for science communication. You would have to go around about to express something. But English is more direct. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

...Because many words are difficult to explain in Portuguese we have to say more. In English, one word can say much. Papers written in English are more comprehensive.... And they are much easy to read as well. In Portuguese, there is much more explanation done.... And in an attempt to explain a lot sometimes, we often miss the point. (Assistant professor, engineering and technology)

The place of Mozambican Bantu languages and their role in research publishing had to be asked to get reflections.

6.2.2. Geopolitics and Postgraduate Education and Funding Mechanisms

In addition to the above reasons, concerns related to the geopolitical specificities and postgraduate training and funding mechanisms were highlighted for the increased use of English, having direct or indirect implications for the dominance of the language for research publishing:

Mozambique is a country surrounded by English language-speaking countries. Having minimal skills in English is therefore necessary. It is problematic nowadays if you have a Bachelor's and you do not speak English. (Assistant professor, technology)

You see that Rwanda has taken a step; they said 'From now on in schools, we teach in English because we want our country to be an international country.' I think it is a big step to do that. We didn't have the same courage to do that even though we are surrounded by English-speaking countries. We said, 'oh no. We will continue with Portuguese, and we will take Portuguese as our official language.' But I think in the

future, things could change. We can say 'okay, we will take English as our official language due to international collaborations.' (Assistant professor, social sciences)

And I also think that there are some specific factors to Mozambique. First of all, if you look at Mozambique's geographical location, it is a country that is surrounded by English-speaking countries. So English is somehow a must in general, not just in the context of the university and publishing.... But another factor that contributed to the increased use of English in the university is that there was a time, and I think even now when many of our lecturers have been trained in English-speaking countries. If you look at their profile in terms of the origin of their PhD and the context from which they got their PhD, you can see that most of them have done their PhD in Europe, in America, in Australia and in other English-speaking countries, so it is not surprising that you have the trends you have. (Associate professor of social sciences and university leader)

Another factor related to postgraduate study destinations that contributed to the growing use of English for knowledge production is donor funding, as demonstrated in the following excerpts:

I think there is an additional reason. We have received a lot of support in the past 20 to 40 years in terms of cooperation from countries such as Sweden, Netherlands, Spain and Italy.....many lecturers were trained and took their PhDs, especially in Sweden. And the language of their study is English. (Associate professor of social sciences and university leader)

Well, I think we don't have particular regulations on whether a (graduate) programme should be in Portuguese or in English. We know that Portuguese is the official language of Mozambique which means nationally when we develop postgraduate programmes and deliver them, automatically the language of instruction is Portuguese. But when it comes to programmes that are developed in the context of collaboration and which from the very beginning, even from their very conception, have this idea of internationalisation beyond national boundaries, English becomes the language. In the context of cooperation, most of the time we don't have much choice. For example, the PhD programmes we have in cooperation

with Sweden are in English. We could use Portuguese but one of the requirements to have access to it is to have it in English. (Associate professor of natural sciences and university leader)

This donor dependence and limitations in human and other material resources required to run graduate programs seem to be partly responsible for regulations requiring students to possess some level of proficiency in English:

Generally, we say it, and we have it written in our documents that for postgraduate studies the candidates should have a minimal level of English. Why do we do this? Because in many of our postgraduate courses, particularly PhD programmes, we need to count on the support of experts and funders from other countries since we don't have enough resources and expertise for all subjects. (Professor of natural sciences and university leader)

6.2.3. Perceived low Proficiency Levels as a Disadvantage

Participants stated that they are often at a disadvantage because of low mastery levels, especially pertaining to writing in the language:

Even ...teachers at the university level who speak English face difficulty when it comes to writing in English. And this problem is difficult to recognise.... The world has become more accepting of different accents and levels of mastery of English when it comes to speaking, but that is not the case for writing. (Assistant lecturer, humanities)

In contemporary global research publishing ecosystems that are dominated by English and that are not accommodative of diversity in academic writing, perceived English low proficiency levels led some UEM respondents to highlight disadvantages in terms of disseminating their research, establishing collaborations and accessing opportunities:

There's a lot of research which is done in Portuguese, particularly here at UEM. ..., but we are not able to disseminate this research because of the language.Because, as you know, most of the researchers in the world around do not speak

Portuguese. And English is the medium of scientific dissemination, all around the world. So, we do research in Portuguese, but we face some difficulties in terms of disseminating this knowledge. (Assistant professor, humanities)

Our lower level of English proficiency in the region compared to neighbouring countries is a disadvantage. We see that in different aspects. When we have to write applications, for example, and submit to regional organisations. It is always difficult. And sometimes, I feel that we don't have good English. So sometimes our proposals could not be valued well. Because we cannot transmit our message and what we want to say in very good English. The same applies to publications. If you don't have good English. You will not write in English. You write in Portuguese. Of course, it is a disadvantage. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

6.2.4. Portuguese-Language Publications and International Databases

One of the concerns that came up during the assessment of general perceptions is the idea that Portuguese-medium publications might be higher than the amount that could be ascertained through aggregating data from international databases. This assertion was supported through:

- Participants' assessments of the results of the bibliometric mapping for this study presented in Chapter Four;
- Self-reported policy-oriented, often Portuguese-language medium research designed to be relevant in local contexts. In this regard, distinctions of perceptions between research for publication and research for local relevance that also underpin linguistic preferences for publishing were noted;
- Publication patterns in the university's journal; and
- Disciplinary differences in preferred languages of publication also suggest that Portuguese-medium research might be higher than suggested by the analysis of data from international databases.

The following excerpts are exemplars of concerns that assert that the Portuguese language might play a more significant role in UEM-affiliated research publishing than publication metadata in databases such as Scopus suggested:

... I don't think that (96% English language publication output for UEM) is an accurate representation of publications, especially in education that I am familiar with. (Assistant professor, social sciences)

You see there is research for international publishing and research that specifically focuses on addressing local concerns. We have research in Portuguese that is often used to inform policy making and that is not necessarily published in international journals. (Associate professor of natural sciences and university leader)

We receive more (manuscripts) in Portuguese. Without real numbers, I can say like 80% is in Portuguese and 20% in English. (Associate professor of natural sciences, member of UEM journal editorial team)

An analysis of articles as archived in the journal online archive suggests that 75% of articles are published in Portuguese. These figures painted a different picture compared to the bibliometric mapping presented in Chapter Four which suggested that 96.46% of the research archived in international databases is in English. It is also important to indicate that this pattern is noted even though the journal has a pro-English language publication policy:

You know that the Brazilians started like us many years ago. They started to publish in Portuguese, and then ...they did the same as we do now that submission could be in Portuguese or in English with abstract, keywords and title in both languages. But now, most Brazilian journals have shifted to publishing only in English. So it means that maybe in the future, we will consider publishing our journal in English only. (Associate professor of natural sciences and member of journal editorial team)

The disciplinary differences noted between social sciences and humanities and those from hard sciences highlight the possibly higher number of publications in the Portuguese language in social sciences and humanities:

I publish in Portuguese though the research I read and refer to is in Portuguese and English. (Assistant professor, humanities)

I was raised in Zimbabwe, but I don't think I have benefited much from a better mastery of English in terms of publishing. In language studies, Portuguese is as much a relevant language for publishing as English. (Assistant professor, humanities)

In the context of Mozambique, it depends on the area of study.... For example, in the natural science area, for example, they mainly write in English. But in terms of language and linguistics because of the Portuguese tradition, they mainly publish in Portugal or in Brazil. ...They write in Portuguese. (Associate professor, social sciences)

6.3. Implications on Quality and Quantity of Research Publishing

This section presents the findings from this case study related to the quality and quantity dimensions. Participants' overall perception in this regard shows that ERP negatively affects the overall quantity but not the quality of publications.

6.3.1. Overall Quality

Although there is no clearly stated definition of quality publications, the responses reveal that notions such as publishing in journals indexed in recognised databases, publishing in higher impact factor "international" journals, receiving a high number of citations and publishing that involves rigorous peer-review underpin an overall understanding of the quality of research:

I think we haven't yet started measuring the quality of research at the university. There are some if I can say, exploratory initiatives on doing that. One of them I can mention, you know as it is often done in the world is the idea of compensating researchers based on their research outputs that they have particularly based on publications. For example, we have an announcement ...now that has been opened in that regard which essentially is a call that is open to all researchers at the university who had published indexed publications in previous years so they can apply for

subsidy, a small compensation depending on what I could say... This is the first initiative we have in my opinion, in terms of evaluating the quality of research. So if you publish a paper that is indexed in the Web of Science, ...Scopus, African Journals Online, directory of open access journals, SciELO and other relevant scientific indexes, you can get that extra money for you as an incentive for continuing to produce research outputs. (Associate professor of social sciences and university leader)

Quality-related findings had three sub-themes:

1. Language has little impact on publishing quality research.
2. Basic English language proficiency is, however, recognised as a necessity for conducting and publishing quality research.
3. The dominance of English for publishing is perceived to have a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

The following quotations demonstrate the views regarding the relevance of English language mastery in relation to research publishing:

I think research quality depends on quality peer-review, and the quality of the journal you publish in. And citations are proof that you published a quality study. You can get help with your language if you need, but ultimately, the quality of your publication would depend on how you conceptualise your study and how rigorous your methodology is. (Associate professor, social sciences)

I did my PhD in Germany in the German language. I wrote my thesis in the German language, and I had high marks, higher than German students. And I did it in regular time. So I don't think it is really the language itself. It depends on the students themselves. For some, they would need a little bit more time, but not for some. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

Participants, especially those who primarily publish in Portuguese, stated that basic English language proficiency is required for conducting quality research, in addition to avoiding perishing in academia:

Most of the researchers base their articles on English material because that's where they can find appropriate adequate material for their work.... Even if you publish in Portuguese... the basis of the research would be fundamentally in English..., I mean, we would, I would read in English, then collect the information, the content, and then write my article in Portuguese. (Assistant professor, humanities)

I wrote my PhD dissertation in Portuguese, using many many, many, many articles written in English. Yeah. And it was extremely helpful for me. Yeah. Because I had to be persistent to read what was the state of affairs my area of study... to command my topic and to refine my topic of research I used mainly English literature... the people who do not have some competence in English, they can face problems in writing quality research. And this is a very big problem... But for the ones who can read and write English, or who have some acquaintance in terms of English competence, I think that it's not so much of a problem.... Even here in this department, you can find people who cannot speak, write, or listen in English but you can also find people who can speak English perfectly. So we have two kinds of reality. (Assistant professor, humanities)

Predominantly publishing in English is also viewed to negatively affect the quality of another crucial function of higher education—teaching and learning. The following excerpts highlight the views the participants shared in this regard:

There are many advantages to publishing in English. One of the negative issues have to do with, for example, teaching students.... The students in Mozambique do not speak English because they start to learn English at the grade level, ... and English is only taught in the classroom. And ...when they go out of the classroom, there are no ways of practising the language. So, when they start to have contact with the literature written in English..., it is very difficult for them to understand properly the content of articles, that's why we teachers, give them readings in English, but also,

we try to, to how can I say, to follow up if they are getting the information from the article so that we ensure that they understand what they are reading. Yeah, that is the one problem. (Assistant professor, natural sciences)

Even when I go to the classroom to teach, and I am preparing my syllabus and my materials, I get really concerned... particularly when it comes to teaching undergraduate students—even for postgraduate students, when it comes to taking my publications in English. Yeah, I don't feel comfortable because I will have to translate for them, and the feeling is that they have to read first; that would have been the normal procedure. They read first, and we come and discuss, but that is not usually the case with English readings. (Associate professor, social sciences)

This finding could be counterproductive to the university's research policy that advocates the incorporation of research results into teaching materials (UEM research policy, 2007, 4.5, section D).

6.3.2. Overall Quantity

There was an overall perception that writing and publishing in English is time-consuming. Writing in English was perceived to take much more time than writing in Portuguese. The comparison here is between two languages of European origin:

Sometimes it takes me days to write an abstract in English, but I could write the same thing in Portuguese in a few hours. (Associate professor of natural sciences and university leader)

Writing in English takes a lot of time and effort. (Assistant professor, humanities)

It is a slow process. Sometimes I don't have the confidence... It takes time editing, checking and double-checking to make sure I haven't made any embarrassing mistakes. (Assistant lecturer and PhD student in natural sciences)

6.4. Implications on other Research-Related Capital

The findings suggest English in Mozambique is a valued asset and a marker of distinction. It is perceived as crucial for success not only in research and publishing but in non-academic careers as well. Some of the participants indicated that they challenged themselves to conduct their studies in English, though it is something out of their comfort zones, and they are self-conscious about their mastery of the languages, expecting the returns to be high:

I decided to study my PhD in English because I realise it eventually pays more. I want to work in NGOs after I graduate, and there is big money there when you have better English language skills and English-medium degrees. (Lecturer and PhD student, social sciences)

One of my greatest challenges and scary things about my PhD is doing it in English. I am not confident about my level of ...proficiency, but I do it anyway because it is more valued in Mozambique. (Lecturer and PhD student, natural sciences)

I used to be a language teacher. But still, conducting my studies in English is very difficult. But I still prefer doing it in English to Portuguese. (Assistant lecturer and PhD student, humanities)

An English-medium degree from study destinations such as Europe, North America, and South Africa is more valued than degrees from Portuguese-speaking countries:

I had an opportunity to study (for a PhD) in Brazil, but I chose to study in English in Sweden because it is going to pay more even though English is much more difficult for me. (Assistant lecturer and PhD student, humanities)

Yet others say that their level of English proficiency has limited their aspirations and dreams as well as concrete career prospects such as opportunities to study abroad, affecting their “mobility capital”—failure to pass English language tests such as IELTS and TOFEL has hindered them from studying in Europe and the US. Like the views reflected on conducting quality research, those that do not have the English language capital are perceived to face limited prospects:

I want to study in English...because it opens the world and is good in Mozambique, but it was challenging to pass English language test to apply for admissions and scholarships. (Assistant lecturer, humanities)

I studied in Brazil in Portuguese. But I sometimes regret that since doing a PhD in English is valued more. I had to work extra hard to improve my English which is important in participating in all affairs of universities these days. (Assistant professor and university leader)

If you don't have minimal English knowledge, then you are interacting only with Portuguese-speaking people. And the opportunities with Portuguese are less than the opportunities in English. A large majority of calls are in English. So you have to be able to respond to calls for proposals in English. Even for studying abroad, a large majority of scholarships require that you know English. And nowadays, of course, you can go to China if you know Chinese. But all in all, it is an English world. It is a language of globalisation. If you have some knowledge of English, you can go around the world. (Associate professor, biomedical sciences)

6.4.1. ERPP and Implications on Social Capital

As can be inferred from interview excerpts quoted in the above sections, English was perceived as a crucial factor in accessing research and other academic networks:

Sometimes I even get self-conscious about my English when I write emails. There are collaboration opportunities I let pass by because my English was not good enough. I mean, among other reasons. (Lecturer and PhD student, social sciences and humanities)

You know, if I would like to have naturally have tried with my colleagues from Zimbabwe, that we should publish in English because... there are plenty of possibilities of publishing. I've been publishing in [Portuguese], in Portugal, and in Brazil, but I would like... from now on, to have my articles in English, you know, maybe by then I'll be spotted by someone who is doing the research in the same field

as I am, and then we can, you know, do some collaborative work together. (Assistant professor, humanities)

One issue of concern is that pre-existing social, and by implication, linguistic capital of the participants seems to be eroded once they complete their studies from destinations that are often regarded as “centres” of knowledge production. Their supervisors and colleagues provided the much-needed social and linguistic capital required to navigate global research publishing. Some participants stated that they had a better supportive research ecosystem, including language support, while they were graduate students undertaking their advanced degrees abroad:

I published more as a PhD student than when I have become an academic staff member. Working with my supervisors helped me a lot. But once I became immersed in teaching and administration, it is hard to manage all my teaching and administration responsibilities and continue collaboration in research. (Assistant professor, social sciences)

6.4.2. Implications on Access to Funding

The participants also assessed that English language capital affects one’s access to research funding, as demonstrated in the following excerpts:

...if you consider grant applications, they are in English. The calls and submissions are often in English. Even many of the researchers coming from Portuguese-speaking countries like Portugal itself and Brazil are connected to a mainly English medium global network of researchers, so even focusing on these countries and researchers from these countries will not help one escape the need to be proficient in English. (Assistant professor, engineering)

Because I can use English well, though I am not perfect, in many of the competitions I participated in for getting scholarships, for getting funding..., I was capable of getting them. Particularly, when it comes to getting individual funding, most of them I could win. Most are international and highly competitive. I was fortunate in that regard. I can sit down and write my publications in English without consulting

anyone. And you know if you have publications in English and you apply for funding, you are likely to get funding. Even if you apply for funding in Portugal, if your publication is in English, you are likely to be given instead of the one who has publications in Portuguese. (Associate professor of social sciences and university leader)

The majority of my publications are in English. The research funds that I got are in English. Some I have applied to in Portuguese, but only at the national level from our national research fund, from UEM when I was a young researcher. But the international research funds, I got them from proposals written in English... We have much more calls that require the writing of the proposals and everything in English than in Portuguese. Most agencies financing research ask you to write it in English maybe because they are coming from English-speaking countries. Yes, it has largely positive effects. I could go abroad for internships in an English-speaking country because I have basic knowledge of English, if I didn't have it, I couldn't go. I would be limited only to Portuguese-speaking countries. Of course, I know many researchers from English-speaking countries for networking. I have publications with people from countries like Sweden, South Africa and from Botswana in English. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

6.4.3. Implications of Social and Economic Capital on English Language Capital

The findings also reveal that participants, especially well networked experienced ones, use these forms of capital to redress any perceived deficiencies in English language capital. The researchers and university leaders suggested that they mainly rely on international collaborators from Europe, South Africa and North America with issues related to ERPP:

The other thing I notice is that people that write and submit papers in English, it is because they have counterparts that are English-speaking people. So these English-speaking people take the role of correcting and improving the paper in English. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

I often collaborate with researchers from different countries. And I really don't worry about language issues because there are people who can do that better than me. (Associate professor, biomedical sciences)

Experienced supervisors sometimes assist emerging researchers with writing and editing. In addition, less experienced researchers take courses in English and academic writing to develop new linguistic dispositions. They also reported seeking the assistance of professional language editors and translators and using technology to navigate English language intensive research landscapes, as exemplified in this response:

I use technology to assist me. I use Grammarly to write better. And Google Translate to translate documents. It is not perfect, but it is understandable. (Assistant lecturer and PhD student, social sciences)

All in all, the principle that goods are more valued when they are relatively scarce seems to be at play here. The UEM case suggests that in contexts where the collective and individual capital is non-existent or minimal, it is perceived to affect not only publication but also other research-related capital such as funding and collaboration and opportunities for mobility. The prestige and symbolic currency of the language also become higher. This aspect of the analysis also highlights that argentic action researchers take to redress any deficiencies, such as: being involved in international collaborations, getting out of the “linguistic comfort zone”, using technology, seeking paid and unpaid assistance, and going back to school to study the language further. The following excerpt from a researcher could illustrate the often complicated journey of linguistic attainment for UEM researchers, although the researcher seems to occupy a relatively privileged position compared to the other research participants:

I think my first experience of English was in primary or secondary school. When I was a teenager.... I attended a private school as a teenager to learn some basic English skills.... But I didn't know that it would be useful for me somehow in the future. And after that, when I finished my pre-university diploma, I had a chance to be preselected and selected by the British Council to attend a specific training course in English for young people who already have basic skills in English. And I was

assigned to teach a classroom, and it was challenging. This was 10 or 15 years ago. So I remember, that was the first experience of being exposed to English every day. I had to be in a classroom; I had to teach students. I had to make mistakes. At that time, I think my English was pretty good because I had the chance to speak every day. Now, I am not worried about my mistakes as long as it conveys messages. But at that time, I was focused on speaking very well and writing very well. Now I think I do write somehow. I don't have many problems in terms of writing because that experience I had was very nice. And strangely, I did my MA and PhD in France. And now I do speak French. I went to France with some background in English and that was very useful. And I spent two more years in Switzerland, the German part of Switzerland doing postdoctoral research. At that time I was using only English. So I can say that my own experience of learning English is a puzzle. It is a personal experience of learning English alone and also being exposed to environments of speaking English in South Africa, Sweden, Norway and in America. But the basic skills I found when I was a teenager. (Associate professor, social sciences)

6.5. ERPP and Rethinking Higher Education

Among the participants, the English language question was deemed relevant, especially concerning enhancing international visibility and impact. However, it is worth stating that this statement needs to be interpreted along with reasons briefly presented in the next section that were regarded as much more dire concerns related to research and publishing at the university.

This section presents the overarching themes that emerged when assessing the growing use of English for publishing, considering critical conversations related to local and contextual specificities with implications for conversations on Africanisation and decolonisation. Perspectives on internationalisation, the other dimension relevant to the question of rethinking higher education research for this study, have already been covered in the other sections of this chapter since it is the dominant logic underlying the reflections on ERPP at UEM. The following issues are covered in this part of the presentation: (1) the nature of discussions and institutional support on the topic; (2) the place of Bantu languages in higher education research and

publishing; and (3) considerations relevant for conversations on language and decolonisation that emerged from this case study.

6.5.1. Discussions and Support

Although there seems to be some level of support for academic staff to assist them with translation, there are almost no formal and informal discussions on the topic:

I don't remember conversations regarding English and publishing. I think we consider it as something we individually have to figure out. (Associate professor, biomedical sciences)

No. The only discussion we had was when we started the journal to decide which language to adopt for the journal. But not now. I think in small groups we try to influence our students. Like me for instance, when we start our Master's courses and we try to influence students to write publications, we try to influence them to write in English not in Portuguese, because it is much easier to get references. And also when we think about readers, who are going to read your paper? If it is in Portuguese, you have a small group of people that will read. But if you write in English, you will have more wide audiences to read and you get more citations. So we try in a different way to influence them to write in English. (Associate professor of natural sciences and UEM journal editorial team member).

Some participants stated that there is some institutionalised support in academic translation:

Yes, there is support indeed. And there are plenty of opportunities to do that. We have here at UEM language centre, and the centre offers courses in different languages including Portuguese, English, French and even Chinese. And some of our academics attend courses in that language centre to be proficient in English.... Outside the university as well, if you want to attend language courses, there are plenty of opportunities. For example, I attended courses for my English outside the university in some English language institution that offers courses. Here in Mozambique, learning English is not a problem. We have many opportunities not

only at university; some schools have even started teaching English. I can say in all secondary schools we have English as a second language, and from grade 7 students attend their classes in English. As you know Mozambique is surrounded by English-speaking countries only. South Africa, Zambia and Tanzania all speak English. So not only for academic purposes but also for all other purposes like commerce, we need English. This was recognised soon after our independence. As a result, there are plenty of opportunities for learning English. (Associate professor of natural sciences and university leader)

When it comes to translation, there is a centre at Faculty of Arts. I think it is called Centre of Languages. They work with Portuguese, English and French. If you have a paper, any paper, and you want it to be translated, you can go there and ask for translation. But you have to pay of course, per page. Researchers themselves have to pay for it. It is not free. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Other respondents, however, highlighted the complexities in using human and technological translation services available:

But once again, when you write a paper in Portuguese and you want it to be translated in English by other people that are not familiar with your subject, you can end with a mess. I am a biologist, I can write a paper in Portuguese, and go to the language centre and ask someone from Arts (the people that are there have backgrounds in arts) and they start to translate my paper in biology, if I don't know English, I think the translation would not be comprehensive in English. So then it is better to work with someone who is in your subject area that can help you to translate your paper into English. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

I have a student who recently wrote a paper for a Master's degree. And her intention was to publish in a Brazilian journal. She started to write last year, and she wrote in Portuguese. And now when she finished the Master's, and tried to finish the paper, she noticed that this journal has shifted the language. They said, 'we no longer publish papers in Portuguese; we publish in English.' It was a real dilemma for her. Because I said if you want to publish in that journal you have to rewrite again in

English. And she said 'I can use Google translation.' And I said to her, 'yes you can use Google translation of course, but you will end up with a lot of problems and a lot of misunderstandings. It is better to sit and we will help you to rewrite in English.' So it is not so much easy to say, 'I will write a paper in one language and then translate it to another by sending it to the centre of language or using Google Translate.' It's not. It could be possible, but not so simple. Scientific translations are always a problem. It's like you have a book in English, and you want to translate the book to Portuguese. You have to know the subject very well. You have to know very well the technical words to be able to do a good translation. (Associate professor, biomedical sciences)

6.5.2. The Status of Bantu Languages

There was a noted overall lack of recognition and lack of conversation concerning the place of Bantu languages such as Makhuwa, Tsonga and Nyanja in higher education research and publishing and in higher education in general:

It is not easy for me to explain this. In Mozambique, we did not consider this as part of the education process. Using local languages is now, however, being considered at the primary level. (Assistant professor, natural sciences)

African languages—wow, good question. African languages and science... It is paradoxical because even the dissertations we have that talk about African languages they are not in African languages. Yeah, to the best of my knowledge, I don't know any publications that are released in Mozambican African languages. To the best of my knowledge. Perhaps it exists. I am not sure. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Politicised complexities of high linguistic diversity that marred language-related discussions in the case of AAU also appeared in conversations from UEM, albeit to a lesser intensity and extent:

But here we have more than 40 (Bantu Languages). Which one will we choose? So the question is which language we are going to choose. What they are doing now is,

in each part of the country, they introduce in schools the local languages of that place. But then when we travel, many people come from the North part come to the South to study at university they lose the language because they cannot use that language daily. Because people here in the South do not speak their language. Say if we go South to North, you will also find the same problem. But that is where Portuguese comes in, since many people from different parts of the country can communicate in Portuguese. Bad Portuguese, or good Portuguese, but they can communicate in Portuguese. But I think it will be a very long discussion (the discussion regarding the status of African languages). It is useful discussion. And you will find people that are against it, but you will also find people that will support that. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

6.5.3. “European Languages”, Decolonisation and the Language Question

Discussions that permeated academic discussions and reforms in neighbouring South Africa do not seem to take hold in Mozambican academia. This case study also reveals little discussion and reflection regarding decolonisation. Some relevant insights, however, emerged that could contribute to discussions related to language and higher education research: (1) the need to interrogate the notion of “European” languages in knowledge production in Africa; (2) the need to gear conversations on language and decolonisation towards interrogating concepts that researchers deploy to render African realities intelligible; and (3) the need to critique the notion of decolonisation itself highlighting the need not to make coloniality central to African realities including research and knowledge production.

Regarding the need to interrogate the notion of “European” languages in Africa:

I think the question of which language to use does not really matter. Whichever language is useful to help us in the liberation and development project, we can appropriate that language for our purposes. (Professor, humanities)

We have the agency to appropriate these “European languages” in accordance with our needs. It is up to us to essentialise them and perpetually see them as languages of

oppression or make the best of what the brutal heritage of colonialism and neoliberalism have left us with. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

One further consideration that emerged in discussing decolonisation with UEM respondents is the prospect of considering English as a viable instrument for promoting the Africanisation agenda:

English could be used for Pan-Africanism—in a way exercising our agency owning and “domesticating” languages to our needs. (Assistant professor, social science)

You see, you and I are able to understand each other because of English. Even here, there are people from all around Africa discussing relevant and revolutionary issues about higher education in Africa. So if we tailor it to our needs, I think the language could be a much-needed medium to build bridges. (Associate professor, social sciences)

These arguments apply not only to English but the other language of European origin, Portuguese, which is predominantly embraced as a Mozambican language:

I think if needed we can call the Portuguese spoken in Mozambique as “Mozambique-ish” if we need to “Africanise” it. (Associate professor, social sciences)

Portuguese was chosen as the official language of Mozambique after a long deliberation during and after the liberation struggle. The fact that it was the language of the colonists was recognised but it was difficult to pick from the many Mozambican languages. And a pragmatic choice was made. I think we can pursue our liberatory project through knowledge production in Portuguese in addition to English. (Professor, humanities)

Some responses highlighted the need to rethink the ERPP question by broadening the scope of the conversations to include the critical interrogation of conceptual vocabularies and constructs inherited from colonial science but without making coloniality central to African reality:

One of the main concerns we have here is the task of understanding ourselves/realities. And in that regard, we have to ask questions if the concepts we often adopt uncritically in our studies are nuanced enough or accurately express our experiences, realities and worldviews... I feel that that is the real challenge with the borrowed "European" language we use in the social sciences. (Associate professor, social sciences)

I don't see a reason to spend my time on the discourse. I really prefer not to put colonialism at the centre in the reference of my thinking. So in my work, rather than decolonising, I talk about liberation. We need to go beyond this limiting and at times, regressive thesis toward more liberatory ones. (Professor, humanities)

The main task is actually to do the actual scholarly and rigorous work. Honestly, true seekers of knowledge are not deterred because of language, especially in this age where technological advancements are making positive changes. I write mainly in Portuguese, but you somehow found my work and are asking questions regarding my views. (Associate professor, social sciences and humanities)

6.6. Variables to Consider in Interpreting the Findings

The participants stated that problems related to: the structure of the academic profession, lack of incentives, limited funding, reliance on donor funding, limited institutional capacity and outlets for publishing, and high academic and administrative workloads, as the major challenges affecting the UEM research and publication ecosystem:

From my point of view, I think the way academic profession has been organised particularly in Mozambique, has disincentivised somehow people to engage their life in publication. You know most of the people who have PhD in Mozambique, once they finish their PhD particularly in the last ten years, not of my generation, but those before my generation, as you can say I am a little bit younger than most of them. I am not even 40. Most of them who are 50, 60 or 40 years old, most of them when they finish their PhD they have the opportunity beyond the academic, as

administrators, as politicians, as consultants all these more or better-rewarding positions and activities. Actually, for a long time, people did not think that they could have careers just publishing papers. Today we had a conversation where people asked me why I publish papers, what am I getting from just publishing a paper? And there is one clue that I can use to base my claims, perhaps they are not publishing not because they don't know how to publish but because we need some incentives to publish or to have them published. (Assistant professor, natural sciences)

Highlighting challenges related to the research ecosystem at the university, some participants also stated that their most productive period publication-wise was when they were graduate students abroad:

It is common to observe that a former PhD student was somehow productive when he was a PhD student because of the requirements that he has to publish as a PhD student. Once he gets the PhD and comes back to Mozambique, doesn't publish anymore. So can you tell me that he is not publishing because he doesn't have skills or there is something institutional and contextual and structural that has happened to demotivate him to take him out of this enterprise of academic publishing? So for sure, I think that proportion of publications from UEM with other research-oriented universities in the region, I am sure our parentage is lower.... I think that there are many contributing factors that is my opinion. (Assistant professor, social sciences)

I have to say I was most productive when I was a PhD student. I had a very good supervisor, and the conditions were better. But now, I am very busy. I hardly have any time for research. I mainly do teaching and administrative work (Assistant professor, humanities)

These days, I have so many administrative and teaching responsibilities I don't even have the time to think about research. (Assistant professor of engineering and technology and university leader)

Challenges related to limited institutional capacities for research publishing were also pointed out as a major hurdle:

We have to strengthen our own system. Last year we submitted an article about pollution in a lake in Mozambique to an international journal. They told us that the article is better fitted for a regional journal and rejected it. It just occurred to me now when you ask these questions that if the article has been about a lake in England, it would have been easily accepted by that journal. See, the question is much more than the issue of language. (Associate professor, natural sciences)

We have problems of peer-review. We send manuscripts and it takes a long time to get them back from reviewers... because most of our publications are written in Portuguese, which limits our option of reviewers.... I have to search for people in Portugal or in Brazil. Those people in Brazil and Portugal always accept the responsibility. And I am very pleased with them because most of them accept to revise our papers. Sometimes they delay, but not so much as people from our university or other universities in Mozambique.... So we have to rely on these people from Portugal or Brazil. When the paper is written in English, then we have more opportunities to search for reviewers. (Associate professor of natural sciences and member of journal editorial team)

Similar to the AAU case, these intersecting non-linguistic variables that have repercussions for research publishing need to be considered when making assessments on the ERPP-related concerns addressed in this chapter.

6.7. Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the second case study. The overall perceptions suggest that English is perceived more as an asset as the lingua franca of science. More favourable views are reflected towards English as a shared language of science and research than criticism towards it as a language of colonialism and linguistic imperialism. In addition, geopolitical concerns and postgraduate education and funding modalities were emphasised as factors behind the push to “Anglicise” Mozambican academia. Perceived levels of low English language competence were

deemed as an outstanding disadvantage for the UEM academic community. Reasons such as publication patterns in the university's journal, disciplinary variations and assessment of participants of the bibliometric mapping done for this study, however, suggest that Portuguese language publications might be higher than represented in international databases, especially for the humanities and social sciences.

Writing and publishing in English were perceived to have negative implications on the overall quantity of research produced by individual UEM Researchers and the institution at large. The respondents, who often conceived research quality as predominantly related to peer-reviews, and publishing in accredited journals, stated that publishing in English does not significantly impact on the quality of their research. The dominance of English as the language of research was perceived to negatively affect the quality of one of the main functions of the university, teaching and learning.

Concerning the ramifications of English language capital for dimensions like access to funding and collaborations, UEM researchers responded overall in the affirmative. One's overall English language capital can affect access to research grants and networks. The possession or lack of basic English competence is also perceived to make or break academic careers and could hamper or heighten professional dreams and aspirations. The perception that English language capital is in short supply seems to have led to the assignment of a high-value to English in the linguistic market.

The predominant discourse is related to the internationalisation and regionalisation of higher education, and the university's place in those supranational, national spaces dominates reflections regarding the English language question and rethinking higher education publishing at the university. The discussions related to the decolonial turn that are highly visible in neighbouring South Africa and even uncolonised Ethiopia seem to be almost non-existent in the university in Mozambique. However, relevant insights were noted that could both challenge and revise existing literature on decoloniality and ERPP. The findings that the Mozambican academy seems to not only embrace English as a lingua franca of science (and potentially of Africanisation) but also embrace Portuguese as a lingua franca of Mozambique leads to the need for further interrogation of the notion of European languages in Africa. There is, however, a

noted absence of considerations and conversations regarding indigenous languages in higher education and research publishing.



CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION

7.1. Introduction

The findings presented in Chapters Four, Five and Six are examined and analysed in this chapter by delving into the implications and ramifications of the study's results. This chapter makes sense of the two case studies through a cross-case analysis, which compares and contrasts the findings while engaging with a plethora of multidisciplinary literature. The literature consulted mainly pertains to the fields of African studies, the sociology of knowledges, the English for academic and publication purposes (ERPP) subdomain of English for academic purposes, research assessment and excellence scholarship, and higher education studies, hence providing a rich and nuanced perspective on the study's objectives.

Interpreting the two case studies also means underpinning the discussion with the theoretical perspectives and thinking tools drawn from Bourdieu and decolonial scholarship, keeping the study's goals in mind. These primarily are assessing general perceptions regarding the use of English for research publishing, interrogating its implications for the quality and quantity of research, investigating the implications of ERPP in accessing research-related capital such as funding and collaboration, and examining the impact of the language's usage in relation to renewed discussions and debates on the decolonisation of research and knowledge production on the one hand and internationalisation of higher education and scientific research on the other. Through this approach, the discussion aims to provide a thorough understanding of the study's findings, highlighting the significance of the research within the broader academic discourse.

7.2. Connecting the Results of the Bibliometric Mapping and Interview Findings

This section analyses the findings connecting the bibliometric data presented in Chapter Four and the overall results of the interviews from Addis Ababa University (AAU) and Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM) and serves as a launching pad for a deeper exploration of the results.

The responses from the interview participants in Chapters Five and Six align with the findings of the bibliometric account in several respects. One notable, albeit obvious, similarity is the

recognition among participants of the overwhelming dominance of English as the language of research publishing, as also demonstrated through the bibliometric data. This was found to be similar to other research and linguistic landscapes in higher education in other contexts in Africa (Boamah & Ho, 2018; Tchuifon et al., 2017) and worldwide (Vera-Baceta et al., 2019). Similar to the depictions in the bibliometric mapping, the participants in both contexts also acknowledged disciplinary variations and their role in influencing language choice for publishing. For instance, the dominance of English in the “hard sciences” is noted and even accepted among respondents from both contexts.

Although this is more the case for UEM than AAU, funding and collaboration patterns described in the bibliometric data that feature dominant scholarly links to organisations from the Global North influence language choice and reinforce the notion that English is the language of science among interview participants as well. In addition to this funding and collaboration-related dependence, the limited capacity of the institutional and national publishing systems highlighted in the interview responses from both contexts is also partly manifested through a demonstrated absence of accredited and indexed journals pertaining to the institutions in the bibliometric data. For instance, UEM’s only but multidisciplinary journal is still not yet indexed in internationally visible databases. Among the 40 journals AAU claims to have on its website (some of which published articles in Ethiopian languages), only two are indexed in Scopus, the *Journal of the Chemical Society of Ethiopia* and the *Ethiopian Journal of Health and Development*.

Although the dominance of English as the language of scientific knowledge production is acknowledged, the interview findings suggested that more research not archived in databases considered to have comprehensive international coverage is published in both contexts, especially in the social sciences and humanities, diverging from the results of the bibliometric mapping. For instance, the overall responses from UEM highlighted the potential underrepresentation of Portuguese-language publications which are used among disciplinary communities within the university and inform decisions and policy making at local and national levels. In AAU, while the underrepresentation of social science and humanities literature in databases such as Scopus and Web of Science is recognised, the responses also challenged and critiqued the requirements to publish research only in English in those disciplines. The results of

the bibliometric data and the interviews also highlighted the need to develop comprehensive databases to enable a more nuanced analysis of the linguistic landscape of research publishing in African contexts.

Connecting the findings in the three chapters to one of the theoretical perspectives guiding the discussion, three points regarding Bourdieu's notions related mainly to his concept of field can be made. The first observation supports his assertion regarding the study of the linguistic field. The findings highlight the need to consider the field-transcending nature of the linguistic field, or as Bourdieu would term it, the "linguistic market" (Bourdieu, 1991), as the ubiquity of English as a language of research and publishing is a common denominator within and across the fields of higher education studied. This supports Grenfell's (2013) argument that the linguistic field must be understood in its broadest sense. Additionally, as further elaborated in other sections, the findings indicate the importance of assessing these field-transcending linguistic markets considering context-specific variables, such as normative issues present in social and scientific spaces where languages such as English are considered legitimate.

Secondly, the findings underscore the need to assess language usage in relation to both linguistic markets and the characteristics of specific fields of higher education. Such an analysis, *inter alia*, involves evaluating the level of autonomy a field of higher education has in upholding its own criteria of evaluation (Bourdieu, 1993), especially in relation to "neighbouring or intruding fields" (Wacquant, 2007). The study's findings indicate that assessing the implications of using English for research in AAU and UEM should be interpreted keeping in mind that higher education as a field in both contexts is heteronomous, meaning it is not as autonomous and bounded as represented in Bourdieu's work owing to the influence of external forces and actors in decision-making. For example, in the case-study contexts, government control and the strong influence of national politics and political parties limit autonomy in decision-making concerning significant aspects of higher education. For better or for worse, this observation is in line with Marginson's (2008) argument that fields are relatively predictable and bounded, but no longer as closed as Bourdieu's conceptualisation of them. As Becher and Trowler (2001) assert, changes in contemporary higher education systems have meant a growth in the strength and number of forces acting on academic cultures, enhancing the externalist rather than internalist character of

the influences on them. This goes in line with Naidoo's (2004) critique of Bourdieu's work, highlighting the need to consider the increasing external influences on academic cultures and their effect on the autonomy and stability of fields of higher education. The findings of this study should also be interpreted considering that two higher education institutions located in education systems are characterised by change rather than stability. The higher education systems are increasingly expanding, diversifying, and evolving, where old norms are still ubiquitous (e.g. teaching and learning orientation), and new dispositions are added (research-orientation).

Thirdly, it is pertinent to note that Bourdieu's notion of unending conflict characterising the field of higher education is less prominent in the contexts studied. The findings suggest that competition does not seem to be a prevalent feature in research publishing, particularly at the micro (individual) level. Instead, researchers' struggles in both contexts tend to be more internal, related to understanding the rules of the game and attaining the necessary forms of capital, such as English language capital. However, the logic of competition is noted to exist at the institutional level, with UEM and AAU aspiring to position themselves as leaders in research productivity, visibility and recognition at regional and international levels. In this regard, publishing more publications in English is considered a strategy for position-taking, as perspectives from institutional leaders suggested. These observations not only provide backdrops to interpreting the study findings but also highlight the need to interrogate further Bourdieu's notion of the field of higher education and its applicability in different contexts.

The following sections discuss and interpret the findings, mainly focusing on a cross-case analysis of the interview findings related to the overall perceptions and assessment of the perceived advantages, disadvantages and drivers for the growing use of English for research publishing.

7.3. Interpreting Overall Perceptions

In these evolving fields of higher education, the discipline-transcending use of English is perceived as both an asset and a liability, although to a varying degree. Results from the study revealed that participants from the UEM held more favourable views towards using English as the "language of science" than participants from AAU, who reflected more critical views. It is

also observed that English language capital as a positional good in the scientific linguistic market is relatively scarce in the Mozambican context, hence perceived to be more valuable.

Previous literature from the contexts studied also supports these findings. For example, Mkuti (1999) notes that Mozambicans view English as the language of the future, with popular pressure to learn it (Baldauf & Kaplan, 2004). Similarly, Firmino (2005), Eshetie (2010), and Lanza and Woldemariam (2014) have also observed that English is associated with high status and prestige in both Ethiopia and Mozambique. However, the critical views from AAU highlighting the negative impacts of using the language for research publishing also align with earlier literature from Ethiopia that mainly considered the teaching and learning dimension (Bogale, 2009; Negash, 2010; Stoddart, 1986).

The differing perceptions of the use of English in research publishing in the two multilingual contexts studied indicated that not all multilingual contexts in Africa have similar orientations towards the use of English. These divergent views can be explained by considering historical and contextual specificities. In Ethiopia, where local languages are used for day-to-day communication and informally and formally institutionalised outlets, using English as the sole medium of research publishing at AAU has created a sense of discontent and alienation. In contrast, UEM in Mozambique, which has embraced not only English but also Portuguese as the legitimate language of national and global academic engagement, reflects largely favourable views towards the use of English.

The mixed views towards the use of English in research publishing are also reminiscent of the arguments made by prominent African scholars such as Achebe (1965), Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986), and Mazrui (2003). While Achebe (1965) argued that English could be relevant in creating a common language for bridging cultures, Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986) advocates the use of African languages and even went as far as advocating for the closure of the English language department at the University of Nairobi. Mazrui criticised the rampant and uncritical acceptance of English in African contexts but also highlighted the need to interrogate local linguistic hierarchies and their impact on multilingualism on the continent.

The overall responses suggest pragmatism on the side of researchers and university leaders but can also be interpreted as manifestations of the taken-for-granted doxic nature of the place of English in research publishing. This is particularly evident in the limited substantial and intentional engagement of universities on the topic. As Susen (2013) posits, doxa allow for the “transformation of history into nature, of the culturally arbitrary into nature” (p. 205). In this sense, the acceptance of English as the only legitimate language of science can be seen as a form of doxa, where the “pre-verbal taken-for-granted” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 68) generates practice through the illusion of practical sense. The dominance and acceptance of English as the language of research publishing can also be seen as an act of “symbolic violence” that occludes the norms it displaces and the underlying power relations sustaining it, according to Bourdieu (1993). The perspectives regarding the exclusion of other languages as languages of science and calls for more linguistic inclusion and diversity in scientific publishing are also reminiscent of earlier arguments made. For example, Marginson (2008) observed that “a single mainstream system of English-language publication of research knowledge... tends to marginalise other work rather than absorb it” (p. 303).

Furthermore, the interview responses (especially from AAU) reflect the relational nature of higher education research publishing by interrogating the language question as simultaneously global, national and local (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002). The overall findings also highlight the complexity of the English language in research publishing, transcending the binaries and false dichotomies or what Santos (2007) refers to as “abyssal thinking” that characterises Western epistemologies. Linguistic pluralism and multilingual publishing do not necessarily entail replacing one language with the other(s). Reductionist views oversimplify the conversation for the much-needed quest for linguistic diversity and inclusion in knowledge production. Many of the claims made regarding the overall perceptions are expounded upon in the subsequent sections.

7.3.1. Advantages and Disadvantages

To provide further nuance into the overall perceptions, this section elaborates on the overall perceived advantages and disadvantages behind the increased use of English for research. In both

contexts, as an asset, English is valued as a language that provides access to research from around the world, and which in turn makes institutional and individual research output visible and accessible to audiences and disciplinary communities worldwide. At institutional, departmental, and individual levels the reputational and symbolic gains or profits (Bourdieu, 1991) of publishing in a reputable English language journal are also high since the importance of publishing in English is also reinforced by the increasing use of English-language journals as a proxy for research quality and impact in research evaluations and funding decisions.

Perceived low levels of overall linguistic capital in both contexts were seen as the outstanding disadvantage rendering the language a liability. It is worth stating that multilingual scholars perceived disadvantage is highlighted in contexts other than the universities in Africa studied (e.g. Canagarajah, 2002; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Englander & Uzuner-Smith, 2013; Hanauer et al., 2019; Uzuner, 2008; Yen & Hung, 2019).

At AAU and UEM, institutional and individual linguistic habitus that do not feature English as a strong repertoire coming into contact with an overwhelmingly English language-dominated and globalised research publishing characterised by performative prestige-seeking, metricised productivity measures and competition for positioning and position-taking seems to have put researchers in the multilingual contexts studied at a disadvantage. The finding that researchers and institutional leaders in these resource-scarce contexts are figuring out the rules of engagement that they have not actively participated in also contributes to the multi-layered perceived disadvantage. It is worth noting that researchers such as those who participated in this study also have the double responsibility of mastering disciplinary knowledges and skills and acquiring linguistic and cultural capital and dispositions to “catch up” with the largely English-speaking research publishing enterprise.

Low levels of capital can be further explained and attributed to concerns related to the respective (higher) education policies and practices. For instance, in AAU, although academic staff studied English through the school system starting from primary education and attended “English-medium” high school and university-level education, competence in the language for research purposes was perceived to be limited because of inconsistent and incoherent language policies,

poor pedagogical practices, and the abysmal state of (language) teacher education not only at the higher education level but also at the primary and secondary school levels. The English language problem can be framed as a manifestation of the multidimensional challenges within the overall education systems that, in the words of one participant from AAU, has led to a multi-level “reproduction of mediocrity”.

Perceived low proficiencies could be explained with concerns related not only to policies and practices and within the higher education systems and universities studied but also to the larger societal and sociolinguistic variables. Variables that determine proficiency in an additional or “foreign” languages, such as the ubiquity of other native and non-native languages (de Swaan, 2001) and relatively high language distances (Chiswick & Miller, 2005), seem to have contributed to lower levels of English linguist capital. In Mozambique, the prevalence of Portuguese in the public sphere and at all levels of education and Bantu languages in households, as well as in Ethiopia, the dominance of Ethiopian languages in all aspects of life except for higher education research and publishing and in international organisations, contributed to limited proficiency in English. Although the national higher education policy stipulates that English is the official medium of instruction, Amharic often serves as the de facto language of teaching, and learning could be seen as providing limited opportunities to practise English.

Moreover, when considering language distance as an explanatory variable, it is worth mentioning that different additional languages, such as English, vary in terms of the effort needed to study them depending on how far or closer they are to one’s native language. For instance, though both languages are farther from English than French, German or Swedish, learning English for a Portuguese speaker is relatively easier than learning English for an Amharic speaker (Hart-Gonzalez & Lindemann, 1993). The greater the language distance is, the greater the level of investment required to acquire proficiency in it as well. An additional example from (Gerhards, 2014, p. 60) might be more illuminating, “If for example, a Swede wants to learn Chinese, he/she would have to learn a new system of characters, but not if he/she decides to learn Spanish. The costs of learning Spanish for a Swede are therefore smaller than the costs of learning Chinese.” In contexts like Ethiopia and Mozambique, where there is limited expenditure on research and education and where empowering researchers with linguistic and academic writing capacities is

not a priority, mitigating the effects of relatively higher language distance can be considered a challenge.

In addition, historical reasons, such as the fact that the countries did not have direct ties with the British Empire and its colonial project, could also be a contributing factor to relatively lower linguistic capital in English. Cold War alignments away from the English-speaking world might also have discouraged publishing in English in the then-Marxist Mozambique and Ethiopia, especially since the dominance of English in the Western world became visible in the 1980s and 1990s in the heat of the Cold War. Although English dominates scientific linguistic markets worldwide, it is also not systematically protected and promoted as a national language in the contexts studied.

The cases also suggest a three-fold disadvantage (Van Dijk, 1994) in that academic staff members are required to read, conduct research and write in English, as observed among UEM participants. As the findings, especially from AAU, suggest, this threefold disadvantage is rendered more complex since the research process prior to publishing entails conceptualising, collecting data and translating instruments, documents and data from various multilingual resources that involve local languages. This calls for a rethinking of research on ERPP with an understanding of this added complexity.

The issue of mastery in academic English, or lack of it, is particularly pertinent, as academic writing is a domain known to have stringent and conservative Anglo-American (but universalised) conventions that exacerbate the disadvantages faced by multilingual scholars (Canagarajah, 2022a, 2022b; Flowerdew, 2022) such as ones in the non-Anglophone contexts studied. As Canagarajah (2022a) argues although some consider English a malleable language, standardisation and lack of diversity in academic writing might limit the multilingual researchers' agency to appropriate the language. Furthermore, as suggested in the findings, multilingual scholars may face specific challenges when publishing in English, including linguistic and cultural differences in reporting research that may be misconstrued as inadequacies or incompetence (Uzuner, 2008). For instance, as some responses from UEM highlighted, writing in Portuguese is typically more indirect, while directness is highly valued in English.

Similar observations have been made in other studies by Vasconcelos et al. (2008) regarding Portuguese academic writing considering Brazilian researchers. These challenges highlight the need for greater awareness and support in addressing the needs of multilingual scholars and promoting inclusivity in academic publishing. These multidimensional challenges also seem to affect the confidence and self-esteem of academic staff members, which can be interpreted as acts of symbolic violence. As discussed in the subsequent sections, the disadvantages also affect research quality, quantity and access to other forms of capital and form part of reflections on rethinking higher education and research.

7.3.2. Drivers

Many of the disadvantages and challenges can also be considered drivers for the prevalent use of English for research at UEM and AAU. The drivers for publishing in English for non-native researchers are a complex and multi-layered interplay of global, transnational, national, institutional, and individual factors shaped by economic, political, historical and cultural contexts. This section analyses these drivers and their interrelations to understand their critical implications for non-native multilingual researchers. As the findings from the two case studies suggested, drivers that called for the visible use of English for research included:

- Global science and the hegemony of English as the de facto language of science (AAU and UEM);
- Universalised ethos and rules of the game of academic publishing, prevailing publish or perish culture across academia, institutional positioning and position-taking (AAU and UEM);
- Institutional policies and expectations (AAU and UEM);
- Broad national higher education language policies, university research assessment, reward and incentive policies (AAU);
- Perceived lack of viable alternatives (AAU);
- Geopolitical reasons (UEM);
- Postgraduate funding modalities (UEM); and

- African linguistic diversity and lack of viable “indigenous” alternatives (AAU and UEM).

As stated earlier, at the individual academic staff members’ level, publishing in English can be interpreted as either an act of maximising symbolic capital or simply surviving the prevailing requirements of the academic profession in both contexts. This includes the need to enhance their reputation, increase their visibility, advance their careers, or simply meet the bare minimum requirements. Another reason individual researchers resort to English that findings, especially from AAU, revealed, is the lack of viable options for using English that is considered legitimate by the country's higher education system. As some responses from UEM highlighted, there is a concern over the problem of limited readership (Flowerdew, 1999; Gosden, 1992) had other alternative languages of publication been available.

The universities see publishing research in English and playing by the rules of dominant ways of research assessment, incentivisation and dissimulation (Canagarajah, 2022a; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Lillis & Curry, 2006) as a strategy for maintaining their positions as leading universities in their respective national contexts and as a strategy for position-taking (Bourdieu, 1993) in the increasingly competitive global higher education milieu. Linguistic capital in English is a crucial part of accumulating cultural, social and economic capital at AAU and UEM. At the institutional level, AAU and UEM publication in English-language journals of high impact factor are prioritised and often support and incentives for such publications are likewise prioritised (Ministry of Science and higher education of Ethiopia (MoSHE, 2020).

Although national systems have little control over the dominance of English, through politics and policies (lack thereof) they play a role in the conversation. One more area that emerged when assessing the overall drivers is related to national language policies that often lack nuance and their implication on language choice for research. For instance, in the case of AAU, in the absence of policy and directions regarding language and research and knowledge production and institutional policies regarding language, the fact that English is the official medium of teaching and learning is used to legitimise the language as the language of research and knowledge

production as well. Policy documents from both case-study institutions are silent on language and research, and knowledge production.

Considering these factors, from a Bourdieusian perspective, the drivers for publishing in English for multilingual researchers can be understood as a manifestation of the power relations within the academic field. The dominance of English as the language of academia is not simply a matter of choice but rather reflects the historical and institutional power relations that have been established over time (Bourdieu, 1991). By requiring multilingual researchers to publish in English, the academic field reproduces and reinforces the dominant positions of English and the dominance of the Anglo-American academic and scientific community. Similarly, from a decolonial perspective, the imposition of English as the only legitimate language of academic publication can also be understood as a manifestation of the cognitive empire resulting in the marginalisation of non-English-speaking researchers and their perspectives (Mignolo, 2000; Canagarajah, 2022a; Marginson, 2008). This is discussed further in section 7.6.2.

The “publish in English or perish” mantra is also reinforced by the uncritical acceptance of not only English but also research assessment metrics from the Global North at national and institutional levels. Because of this, arguments can be made that the globalisation of knowledge production, rather than bringing more margins of liberty and autonomy, has brought more pressure from universities and academic staff despite its benefits. The quest to focus on research productivity, publish in indexed journals, linking research incentivisation with performance and survival in academia has put pressure on universities and academics that are overworked with multiple responsibilities, have limited opportunities for funding and collaborations, have poor salaries that they have to take more teaching and consulting responsibilities outside the university to make ends meet. In short, the globalisation of knowledge, knowledge economy and knowledge society seem to increase the pressures exerted by internal and external actors and drivers.

7.4. Implications for Research Quality and Quantity

This section discusses the repercussions of using English for research publishing in relation to the quality and quantity of research dimensions. The first main sub-section discusses

implications for quality, while the latter one focuses on ramifications for the amount of research output.

7.4.1. Quality

The examination of the use of the English language in research and its implications on research quality has shown that perceptions are subjective and vary among respondents depending on respondents' individual and collective conceptions and interpretations of what constitutes research quality. Participants from AAU predominantly assigned meaning to research quality based on qualitative notions, such as freedom of thought and the sophistication of analysis, whereas those from UEM predominantly assigned meaning to research quality based on quantitative metrics, such as citation counts and journal impact factors. This aligns with earlier assertions that “research quality” and “research excellence” are often contested notions because they are multi-faceted, context-specific, and time-dependent concepts (Tijssen & Kraemer-Mbula, 2017).

In line with those interpretations of research quality, a considerable number of participants from AAU stated that the requirement to publish only in English has negative impacts on their research as the language remains a foreign language that does not allow for sophistication of thought and analysis, whereas participants from UEM did not perceive the push to publish in English to affect research quality or excellence, as they regard quality research as publishing in quality journals and receiving a high number of citations. Moreover, the findings highlighted two crucial concerns that need to be addressed in discussions related to research publication and quality: career stage and the implications for other university functions i.e. teaching, learning, and university-community engagement.

Through the exploration of the English language for publishing question, the findings also suggest that discussions on research assessment and excellence should include local context-specific dimensions and consider the university's relational nature as a knowledge-making, knowledge-legitimising and archiving institute that is multiscalar (simultaneously global, national and local). The findings especially from AAU also suggested that the notion of research quality or excellence is highly tied to the dimension of research relevance and impact. In this

regard, this study is in agreement with Tijssen and Kraemer-Mbula's (2017) findings that suggested among African researchers, more than metric-based indicators such as citation counts and impact factors, "potential for social impact and policy influence" ranks higher in assessing research excellence. The findings are also in agreement with assertion by Enns-Kananen et al. (2022, p. 69) that conducting quality research while navigating multiscalar systems that also consider societal impact "requires us academics to be accountable to our environment and to abandon the binaries between researcher-researched, subject-object, and human-non-human."

7.4.1.1. ERPP and Emerging Scholars

The limitations emerging researchers (PhD students and recent graduates) face in terms of their English language proficiency when compared to academics of earlier generations have been the subject of some scholarly engagement. While it is widely believed that younger individuals are more linguistically versatile (Gerhards, 2014), this is only sometimes the case in academic writing in English, as the findings from the two case studies suggested. Adriano and Nkamta (2018) also asserted that Mozambican students entering university for Master's or doctoral programmes often struggle with the English language skills required for academic purposes. This resulted in a mismatch between what students are expected to master and their actual learning outcomes. In Ethiopia, similar problems have been noted in postgraduate education, as the responses for this study highlighted.

The implications of the challenges emerging scholars face in both contexts in terms of their capital in the English language are dire, as it affects not only their ability to produce quality research output but also their ability to communicate effectively with the academic community and disseminate their findings to a broader audience. It also seems to create a dent in their "aspirational capital" limiting opportunities for career advancement, collaboration, and the development of their professional networks, as suggested by the UEM case. Other variables being equal, limited English language capital seems to have contributed to the perceived high levels of plagiarism among PhD students, as the responses for the AAU case highlighted.

The implications of these challenges are far-reaching, particularly for PhD students in both AAU and UEM. Limited social capital, such as networks, mentorship and supervision, and limited

recognition of the problem and availability of institutional support exacerbates the difficulties they face in producing quality research output. In addition, educational policies, infrastructures, and practices at other levels of education contribute to the English-language-related challenges they face in producing quality research output. For instance, in Mozambique, enrolment expansion at the primary level in Mozambique has come at the expense of quality and efficiency (Fox et al., 2012). This, coupled with large class sizes, short classroom hours and the use of Portuguese as the language of instruction, has resulted in students being promoted to the second level without a strong foundation in English (Adriano & Nkamta, 2018). Even with supportive supervisors, students' poor English linguistic capital becomes a burden to supervisors, and the challenge is perceived to be worsening as the AAU case suggested.

Even recent PhD graduates who studied abroad (especially UEM) are not spared of the English language for research conundrum since they seem to face the fate of the “off-networked” scholars once they return to their home country—compounding concerns that social and linguistic capital can be eroded once “peripheral scholars” leave the “centres” of knowledge production. Additional challenges such as high teaching and administration workload do not make scholarly publishing any easier for these emerging academics that also lack incentives and motivating institutional ecosystems after graduation.

As both cases, studies demonstrated funding and support need to be available since English does not only determine engagement in quality research publishing but overall participation and aspirations of younger researchers in academia. There is a danger that those who do not possess the minimum threshold of English language capital may face the proverbial “perishment” from academia. The challenge also needs more attention since in contexts studied and similar research-oriented universities on the African continent, there is a high demand for early-career researchers, but the supportive ecosystems including language-related support are missing. It is important to note that even in contexts where there is a conducive environment, early-career researchers face challenges because of the selective and hierarchical nature of the academic profession that involves a long process of learning and maturation (Laudel & Gläser, 2008; Levecque et al., 2017; Shinkafi, 2020).

7.4.2.2. Community Engagement and Teaching and Learning

As the findings suggested, exclusively using English for research and publishing might have negatively affected the meaningfulness and quality of scholarly engagement not only for knowledge production but also for other functions such as teaching and learning (UEM) and university-industry community engagement (AAU), suggesting that using the question of English for research and publication purposes should not only be explored in terms of the research and publication dimension but should be extended to the implications on other university functions.

While it has been acknowledged that English serves as a bridge connecting knowledge bases and disciplinary communities worldwide, as the findings from the two case studies suggested, the use of the language in the academic context could be criticised for disconnecting universities from their local communities and students, thereby affecting the quality of their engagement and relevance with these stakeholders. It is worth stating that the disconnect between AAU and its surrounding community has been a persistent challenge, as pointed out by research participants. It is worth stating that concerns about the “de-ivorytowerisation” of AAU have been expressed as far back as the 1960s (Kehoe, 1962).

As discussed elsewhere, this can be considered as a manifestation of “extraversion” (Hountondji (1997, 2009) that also characterises many African universities, or rather the universities in Africa, that have been uncritically accepting norms, notions and indicators as to what constitutes the university, what its purposes are, what constitutes good practices regarding its various roles. This is despite arguments forwarded by the continent’s leading scholars and independence leaders regarding the need to connect the university and knowledge production to societies (e.g. Mazrui, 2003; Ngugi wa Thiong’o, 1986), and although post-independence in many countries at the national and political level, the universities were tied to the nation-building project.

Through analysing the language question, the findings suggest further inquiries and reflections need to be undertaken on how prevailing notions of research quality and excellence can be mobilised to serve local needs and how that can be achieved. The links of research quality with impact and context could be viewed from a decolonial angle mainly as a “quest for relevance”

(Ngugi wa Thiong'o, 1986). Currently, the Eurocentric notion of universal knowledge, which is detached, truthful, and removed from context, is being challenged by a decolonial concept of a "locus of enunciation" (Grosfoguel, 2007). This concept argues that no knowledge or education can be exempt from the influence of racial, ethnic, gender, sexual, class, or other human identities and positionalities. In essence, this implies that knowledge and education cannot exist in a vacuum, separate from the social, historical, and cultural contexts in which they are produced and disseminated (Grosfoguel, 2007; Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2021a).

Bourdieu is perceived to have not overtly theorised the connection between higher education and society (Naidoo, 2004). However, drawing from Bourdieu, Fowler (2013) argues that intellectuals, whose main tool is language, are responsible for engaging in ethical and political debates about justice, ecology, politics, etc. This can only be done under certain conditions: protecting their own collective autonomy, only intervening politically on issues of which they have expert knowledge, and seeking to extend their mode of intellectual thought to reach a wider audience beyond the academic community. However, further work is required to mobilise Bourdieu to investigate the intricate relationship between language, research quality, and relevance in higher education on the one hand and society on the other. "The strict relational nature of Bourdieu's framework and his concept of the "arbitrary" have placed limits on the extent to which his theory can offer a more in-depth account of the relationship between higher education and society" (Naidoo, 2004, p. 457).

7.4.2. ERPP Implications for the Quantity of Research

In both contexts, the findings suggest that using English for research writing and publishing can be a laborious and time-consuming undertaking, especially in the humanities and social sciences. Writing and publishing in English is considered time-saving, especially in engineering, natural sciences, and medicine, where the scientific vocabulary in African languages is not developed, and in the case of Ethiopia, their development is hampered at the primary and high school levels and rendered useless from grade nine onwards.

In research areas such as philosophy, anthropology, and sociology, where contextual concerns matter to the writing process, getting the language right and translating concepts to and from

English to render local realities intelligible, writing research in English context-specific concepts does not have equivalent terminologies. Research also confirms that writing in English as a second or foreign language is onerous for multilingual researchers from various contexts around the world (e.g. Cho, 2004; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Flowerdew, 1999, 2001, 2008; Hwang, 2005; Li, 2002; Liu, 2004). Strategies like translating research that some multilingual researchers adopt are time-consuming and affect their level of productivity and engagement in new research projects (Curry & Lillis, 2004). Hanauer and Englander (2011) have even sought to quantify this perceived relative burden. Their study of Mexican scholars from various scientific disciplines indicates that academics saw writing a scientific article in English as 24% more difficult and generating 21% more anxiety than writing papers in Spanish.

In some cases (UEM), not only writing in English but reading academic texts can also require additional time. Translating documents involving African languages is more cumbersome because technological assistance is limited. For instance, as already alluded to, translating an English text to Portuguese using Google translate can provide a relatively accurate and understandable translation than translating a document from Amharic to English or English to Amharic using the same platform. The perceived disadvantage regarding the time-consuming nature of research writing and publishing can also be interpreted as an aspect of the symbolic violence enacted by the ubiquitous use of the language that is exacerbated by the paucity of other forms of capital (economic, social and technological) to remedy any deficits in linguistic capital in English.

7.5. Implications of English Language Capital on Other Research-Related Capital

As political and religious institutions capitalise on the ubiquity of legitimate languages (Bourdieu, 1991), higher education systems capitalise on English being the ubiquitous language of scientific research. Although English is the most valuable language in the global research and publishing linguistic market, as one can assume and as the findings also suggested, English linguistic capital is not distributed equally, suggesting that it might become a new measure of inequality in today's increasingly globalised research and publishing landscape. On the other

hand, those with local language capital are unrecognised, undervalued and misrecognised, especially in the Ethiopian context.

As discussed in the first main sub-section, English language capital depends on macro, meso and micro level factors and sociolinguistic variables, and participants from both contexts have little to no inherited capital. In both contexts, English language capital acquisition is tied to formal schooling. The opportunities to use the language in other formal and informal settings outside teaching and learning, research writing, and international collaboration are limited. In universities, administration work is largely done in Amharic (AAU) and Portuguese (UEM). By comparison, however, research participants in AAU, have earlier and more exposure to the English language since the language is given as a subject starting from the elementary school level and becomes the medium of instruction from high school onwards. Mozambican researchers said they had taken English language courses in specialised colleges outside the university even after becoming university teaching and research staff members.

The overall findings regarding the dimensions explored in this section suggest that while English language capital is perceived to affect access to funding and collaboration opportunities at UEM, in AAU, that is not the case. The difference in perceptions can be explained through differences in collective levels of proficiency. Although perceived as inadequate and dysfunctional, the Ethiopian education system seems to endow Ethiopian academics with the needed capital required to communicate for networking and accessing grants. While in Mozambique that limited access to the language is not visible. These findings, along with the other results interpreted in this chapter, highlight the need to focus on ERPP research considering the various dimensions of research and knowledge production.

As the Mozambique case suggested, linguistic capital in the English language plays a role in structuring the production of research-related social, economic and cultural capital and is also, in turn, produced and reproduced by these forms of capital. At UEM, English seems to be a marker of distinction between institutionalised cultural capitals (degrees). English medium PhDs are valued much more than Portuguese medium ones suggesting not all institutionalised PhD capitals are equal.

Overall, the level of proficiency to survive in academia is having basic language capital. However, thriving requires a higher level of mastery of the language. Nevertheless, a higher linguistic capital needs to be accompanied by other forms of cultural, economic and social capital in and of itself is not just enough.

The findings in these contexts further underscore two further aspects: (1) capital attracts capital; and (2) the need to theorise agency from the margins.

7.5.1. Capital Attracts Capital (The Matthew Effect)

Although this research set out to investigate the implications of English language capital on other forms of social, economic and cultural capital, it was also observed that the reverse is also the case—i.e. higher forms of economic, social, and cultural capital are also used to remedy any forms lack in terms of English language capital. Although many of the research participants in both institutions have not had the privilege of attending private schools, a few of them stated that their exposure to the language through families with the economic capital to provide that kind of education helped them master the language. Those with higher institutionalised and objectified capital also have access to the needed social and economic capital that they use to redress any issues related to linguistic capital, be it in English or other languages. One can also take note of the fact that the written and subtle rules that holders of economic capital within and outside institutions uphold lead to the high value attached to English as a cultural capital.

Arguments can be made here for the need to enhance English linguistic capital since, as Bourdieu insisted, the transformation of economic capital into other forms of capital can be successful only if there is subsequent democratisation of cultural capital, that is, the removal of its exclusivity. This requires a radical review of curriculum and pedagogy, including in language, although it is unlikely to happen under existing power relations (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Fowler, 2013).

The overall findings highlight Bourdieu's argument in favour of transcending false binaries, which is also highlighted by decolonial scholars, in that “one must move beyond the usual

opposition between economism and culturalism in order to develop an economy of symbolic exchanges” (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 37).

7.5.2. On Agency and Structures

The findings from both case studies also suggest that despite constrained agency at the institutional and individual levels and flimsy research infrastructures and cultures, agents (academic staff members) still find ways to be reflexive and act with some margin of liberty (Fowler, 2013). This accords with Bourdieu’s work that critiques structuralist interpretations for lack of a theory of agency, that people are not helpless products of structures. In addition to conducting a socio-historical and cultural analysis critiquing structures, the findings highlight the need to examine how local actors exercise agency and assign meaning to global and local developments related to the use of the language for research and publishing. While criticising structures and calling for changes, viewing individuals beyond the “trap” of their habitus is vital.

For Bourdieu, structure and agency go hand in hand. However, he discerns an inalienable potential for reflexivity in both ordinary and scientific discourses. In other words, margins of liberty persist that can never be totally removed (Fowler, 2013). However, although Bourdieu’s attention to agency and recognition of margins of liberty highlighted, the findings further suggest a stronger argument for agency in that in the contexts studied where structures are changing and unstable and limited support is present, multilingual scholars pushing boundaries and developing new dispositions and strategies is noted. In a way, the findings suggest that “Bourdieu’s reading of structure/agency becomes trapped on the structure side” (Marginson, 2008, p. 303). The findings invoke a re-reading of Bourdieu that questions the relatively more powerful structures and highlight the role exceeding agency plays. The agents do not seem to be trapped by the limited structures and seem to find creative ways to overcome linguistic barriers and develop new dispositions. Agentive actions such as developing new dispositions and attempts at navigating the status quo, being engaged in research publishing in English against all odds and finding creative and, at times, subversive ways to overcome the language problem suggest that Bourdieu’s theory on agency needs to be viewed in a way that is skewed to the agency side. The findings are in agreement with the assertion that “One element always at play in the field, and a

primary source of this ontological openness is the imagination and will of agents” (Marginson, 2008, p. 314).

What makes the role of agency all the more important is that the actors are resisting or attempting to attain certain linguistic dispositions in institutional contexts where institutional agency seems to be constrained by, among other factors, national political and policy contexts and expectations of global scientific communities and rankers and gatekeepers. However, it is worth noting that these individuals’ acts of accumulating the necessary capital to survive in academia, participate in scientific knowledge production, and going against relatively unsupportive structures do not seem to significantly contribute to the transformation of structures, highlighting the limitations of agentive action and the strength of deeply entrenched written and unwritten rules and norms within institutions. The agentive individual actions seem to benefit only those individuals and a few others around them. Acts of the individual agency have not necessarily translated to collective reflection and agentive action. When agency and structure go on a collision course, the structure seems to win—highlighting the need to organise and strategise if the desire is to result in a sustainable and substantial change. Large-scale rethinking and changing would still require institutional and national commitments.

Another concern related to the emphasis on agency is timing since it is important in exercising individual and collective agency. More than any other point in the history of modern higher education on the continent, our present moment seems to be ripe for institutions and agencies to raise the language question along with other burning questions in rethinking science and higher education on the continental, regional, national, institutional and individual levels. After all, we are witnessing in recent years enormous amounts of discussion on knowledge production, the place of the university curriculum worldwide, with voices from the Global South leading the debate suggesting that perhaps the subaltern in the majority world can speak after all. Another contribution the findings suggested regarding the structure and agency is the need to consider heterogeneity in the structure agency debate since many of the participants from both contexts have similar linguistic habitus.

7.6. Rethinking Higher Education Research Publishing

As evidenced by the preceding findings, this investigation of the language in research and publishing questions reveals several avenues for rethinking higher education and knowledge production. In addition to interrogating the complex relationships between structure and agency discussed in the earlier section, the results of the case studies present further insights into reconsidering several key issues related to higher education and research publishing such as: (1) Rethinking internationalisation and global research publishing through the ERPP question; (2) Explaining the dominance of English through concepts such as cognitive empire, complicity, coloniality of power, and extroversion; (3) Embracing split habitus, hybridity, liminality as they pertain to the language in research publishing question; (4) Extending the ERPP question to encompass discussions related to conceptual decolonisation; and (5) Reflecting on the place of African languages in the conversation. The section concludes by offering reflections on the measures that need to be undertaken to create inclusive multilingual research ecosystems.

Throughout this rethinking process, the findings highlight a tension that scholars have identified since the 1960s—that of reconciling the competing priorities of the nation-state and the demands of border-transcending global science. As Lipset contended in 1964, universities in emerging countries bear the onus of being institutions charged with propagating a universal culture and contributing to its growth while concurrently fostering and cultivating national and indigenous cultures and ways of life in this second decade of the twenty-first century.

7.6.1. Rethinking Internationalisation and Global Research Publishing

One of the areas that the participants, especially from AAU, critiqued is the false equivalency of internationalisation with English calling for a rethinking of the totalitarian stranglehold of English and Anglo-American domination of global science. Currently, the internationalisation of higher education and research has been criticised for being carriers of Western worldviews and knowledges (e.g. Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2021b; Stein, 2017; Tight, 2022). The English language has been implicated as a vehicle for propagating this dominance and world order. English is also linked to the perpetuation of commercialised research publishing and neoliberal corporatisation of the university as a knowledge-making and knowledge-legitimising institution. Therefore,

rethinking internationalisation through the English language question also implies rethinking the internationalisation of research and knowledge production, the logic, norms and geopolitics of research publishing, and financial flows and movements and collaboration patterns.

In line with the findings, arguments can be made that rethinking the internationalisation of research publishing beyond the Anglo-American values and worldviews implies creating multilingual access to research and knowledge production, and perspectives developed by decolonial scholars offer relevant insights into achieving that. However, African agencies are required to develop definitions, concepts and indicators to make meaning regarding experiences of internationalisation and research and research publishing. Although he does not subscribe to decolonial thought, Teferra's (2020) assertions capture this critique of internationalisation—African higher education is the most international, not by volition but by omission, this includes lack of intentional planning and engagement regarding the language(s) of research and knowledge production. Relating this to the language question, Teferra (2020) further states:

The choice of a language as a medium of academic and scholarly communication is a key aspect of internationalisation. Virtually all countries with a colonial history maintain the language of their colonialists for their academia and scholarship. This is not by choice (and thus not intentional) but de facto a consequence of history. In some countries which set out to change this burden of history, the process has been fraught with contestation—between those in favour and those against change. The push and pull for predominance in international and 'regional' languages—between Arabic and French (as in Tunisia), Arabic and English (as in the Sudan), and English and French (as in Algeria, Rwanda and Senegal)—for the "soul" (Teferra, 2008) of academic space are instructive. Thus, the internationalisation phenomenon is not only intentional, but fraught with tension and contestation—and is therefore far from intentional. (p. 161)

Teferra (2020) laments that several languages are currently employed in African higher education institutions, which include Afrikaans, Arabic, English, French, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish. With the exception of Arabic (and possibly Afrikaans in South Africa), no indigenous

language is used strictly as a medium of instruction in African higher learning institutions. English, French, Portuguese (to a lesser extent), and Spanish (rarely) continue to be the only languages used in research and academia in African higher education institutions.

As discussed in detail in the upcoming sections, decolonial perspectives provide discussions of the internationalisation of research publishing to move away from Euro-American hegemony towards diversity, plurality and transcendence. The interpretations highlight the need to consider positionality, criticality and plurality (Heleta & Chasi, 2023) when rethinking the English-dominated world of global research publishing. Rethinking the internationalisation of knowledge production and questioning the deployment of English as its medium through a decolonial lens can also lead to the development of multilingual research ecosystems that could promote what Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2021b) calls a “dehierarchiasized” and horizontal internationalisation.

As the findings have suggested, the idea of moving away from predominantly using one language in international research publishing and towards a more diverse, multilingual approach involves reconsidering existing global research and publishing conventions. An important aspect to consider is the influence of multilingual scholars in determining the language used in research. It is worth reflecting on whether multilingual scholars have the authority to deviate from established writing norms and conventions and whether any unconventional writing attempts would be perceived as a lack of competence instead of a creative expression of autonomy (Kuteeva & Saarinen, 2022).

In this regard, there is a need to reconsider the rigid and conservative domain of academic writing and editing dominated by Anglo-American conventions that are often not accommodative of cultural differences that result from diverse linguistic backgrounds, as there might be prejudice against non-standard varieties of the language (e.g. Flowerdew, 2022; Hartse & Kubota, 2014; Politzer-Ahles et al., 2020). As Canagarajah (2022a) and Flowerdew (2022) argue, despite advances in accepting the various spoken varieties of English in the domain of World Englishes, the “standard English” model dominates academic writing. Addressing this concern, Flowerdew (2022) advocates for a “varietal model”, a world Englishes model, which encompasses both ELF and different individual nativised varieties of English, while Canagarajah

(2022a) advocates a more radical “rhetorical” and “textual” resistance that “demonstrates the possibility of having norms and also variation at the same time. In agreement with Canagarajah’s assertion, the argument here is that a non-dualistic approach for rethinking research writing conventions that can simultaneously accommodate structure and change.

As Pérez-Llantada (2014) advocates, there is a need for academic Englishes that reflect a wide variety of culture-specific traits and rhetorical traditions among its users. This is demonstrated by the findings from UEM, where influences in writing in Portuguese might be misunderstood as a weakness when viewed through the lens of academic writing in the Anglophone tradition. In support of this, Pérez-Llantada (2014, p. 164) adds that scholars in English-speaking regions tend to engage in writing styles that are often characterised by conciseness, directness and “linear argumentation of Western rhetoric”, whereas scholars from non-English-speaking regions tend to adopt different rhetorical practices, as already stated. Non-Anglophone scholars often demonstrate unique intellectual styles in how they construct their arguments, such as the use of digression in German or complex sentences in Spanish, Mexican and Portuguese.

The findings of this study could also offer avenues to rethinking epistemic conventions related to academic writing. Like the rest of the world, positivist writing conventions that dominated global publishing Canagarajah (2022a) have significantly impacted on the ways in which knowledge is produced and disseminated by emphasising objectivity and detachment in the contexts studied, often leading to the exclusion of diverse perspectives and marginalised voices.

7.6.2. Decoloniality

While recognising that languages such as English and Portuguese can be appropriated to promote projects such as decolonial thought and Africanisation as the findings from UEM suggest, the results of the case studies can still be further interpreted through some of the concepts developed in decolonial thought, offering a critical lens through which to understand the dominance of English for research publishing in the contexts studied. Although the contexts studied do not have a direct experience of British colonialism, Mozambique being an ex-Portuguese colony and Ethiopia has escaped the European scramble for Africa, decolonial perspectives grounded in recognition of the historical and on-going processes of colonialism and imperialism and their

impact on language use, knowledge production, and power relation still offer relevant insights to interpreting the unquestioned dominance of English for research publishing. The cognitive empire, coloniality of power, and extroversion are just a few of the concepts that can be used to understand this phenomenon.

The concept of the cognitive empire (Santos, 2018) or the metaphysical empire (Ngugi wa Thiong'o, 1986) which refers to the way in which the global spread of Western epistemology and knowledge systems has been used to consolidate and extend the power of the Western world can be a useful construct to explain results of this study. The findings related to the dominance of English in research publishing in this study can be interpreted as one of the ways in which this cognitive empire is maintained and extended, as English has become the almost absolute language of scientific communication in contexts where it does not have significant historical ties. Multifaceted intellectual dependence including near absolute dependence on English as the legitimate language of research publishing, especially as asserted by some of the critical voices from AAU, can be interpreted through this framework. The findings from AAU along with other critical observations regarding the negative impacts of using English in higher education in Ethiopia are reminiscent of Ngugi wa Thiong'o's (1986, p. 3) poignant observation that the cognitive or metaphysical empire operated through detonation of a "cultural bomb" at the centre of societies, causing various alienations and dissonances.

Related to this, coloniality of power or the colonial matrix of power, which refers to the ways in which the cognitive empire has produced enduring structures of power and inequalities that continue to shape social relations and cultural practices (Quijano, 2000, 2007) is also a useful concept. The dominance of English in research publishing in both UEM and AAU can be deemed as part of this broader structure of coloniality, as it reflects the ongoing privileging of Western knowledge systems and the marginalisation of alternative forms of knowledges and cultural practices and languages. This can in turn be interpreted as perpetuating a narrow and exclusionary understanding of what constitutes not only what valuable knowledge and scholarship are but also what languages are considered legitimate for intellectual engagement and scholarship. In the case study contexts where the capacity to dictate and actively create the rules of engagement are weak, "colonialism (the colonial matrix of power) maintains a

stranglehold on knowledge production through an elaborate publication infrastructure largely based in the global North which plays the role of gatekeeping on what qualifies as “legitimate” publishable knowledge” as Silvia Tamale (2020, p. 281) argues.

Analysing the study findings through a decolonial lens also draws attention to the concept of extroversion, as developed by Hountondji (1997, 2009). This refers to the tendency of African scholars to focus on Western intellectual traditions and to neglect their own cultural and intellectual traditions, and languages. The dominance of English in research publishing can exacerbate this tendency, as scholars may feel pressure to publish in English-language journals to conform to Western academic norms to gain recognition and prestige. This can create a vicious cycle in which non-Western scholars are pressured to conform to Western standards, which reinforces the dominance of Western knowledge systems and marginalises alternative forms of knowledge.

In addition to extroversion, decolonial perspectives also highlight the concept of complicity. This refers to the ways in which scholars and institutions from underrepresented communities may participate in and reinforce the dominance of English and Western knowledge systems, even as they seek to challenge them (Bourdieu, 1991; Ngugi wa Thiong’o, 1986). One example that can be interpreted as complicity can be seen in the choices that individual scholars make about where to publish their research. Some participants from UEM and AAU publish in English-language journals to gain recognition and prestige, even though they recognise the problems with the dominance of English. Another example of complicity can be seen in the choices that academic institutions make about language policies and standards. Many academic institutions may adopt Western academic norms and standards in order to gain international recognition and funding, even though this may reinforce the dominance of Western knowledge systems. In this sense, complicity can be seen as a form of internalised colonialism, in which non-Western scholars and institutions adopt Western norms and standards, even though they may recognise the problems with the dominance of English. Although not directly addressing the language question, Mouton (2007, p. 11) sums up this sentiment by stating that the majority of African countries display a “tendency to imitate – rather slavishly and uncritically – science, technology and innovation policy approaches and paradigms from elsewhere”. Complicity is at the heart of the argument

made by both Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1994) and Bourdieu (1991). According to Ngugi wa Thiong'o, even African intellectuals who hold radical and pro-African views continue to assume that the revitalisation of African cultures can only be achieved through the use of European languages. Bourdieu similarly asserts that symbolic power, which is a hidden form of influence, can only be wielded through the cooperation of individuals who either do not realise that they are under its sway or choose to overlook their own role in perpetuating it.

Mazrui's assessment of the role of educational systems in maintaining an uncritical endorsement of English, as noted by the findings of AAU, remains applicable. Mazrui (2004) contends that education represents an arena in which the English language exercises its authority in an overwhelmingly dominant way. By employing English as the primary mode of instruction in African educational institutions, structures of intellectual reliance are not only perpetuated but also intensified, and economic dependency is reinforced. In the case of UEM, through embracing English and Portuguese, for that matter and challenging the notion of European languages, arguments could be made for extroversion and complicity in perpetuating the status quo, especially by avoiding hard conversations about the complete absence of Bantu languages in knowledge production and publishing.

In both contexts can be interpreted as the findings that universities affirm, reward, and legitimise the cultural and linguistic capital that, by and large, resonates with dominant values and is further exhibited and transmitted by the researchers to university leaders. Along these lines, when the universities devalue the linguistic and cultural capital of often marginal and minority knowledge ecosystems and reward, albeit intentionally or through path dependence, an already dominant system from the Global North that has universalised itself, it reproduces unequal relations in the form of inequalities in knowledge production.

In short, for decolonisation of the global research publishing apparatus and decolonial thought to become liberatory projects, decolonising the architecture of knowledge production and addressing the monopoly of English as the language of research publishing should be part of challenging the prevailing global order where powerful knowledge is just the knowledge of the powerful (Lück et al., 2020). Decoloniality could be about reclaiming or re-building knowledges, collective sociabilities, and everything else that has been or rendered philosophically and

linguistically significant by modern or colonial institutions, and it can only be accomplished when knowledge producers and users access it in languages of their choosing. Therefore, making knowledges accessible through multiple languages should be a priority.

7.6.3. Habitus *clivé*, Liminality and Hybridity

In addition to the theoretical constructs pertaining to the coloniality of power, the cognitive empire, and complicity, this analysis deploys liminality and hybridity (Bhabha, 1994) as decolonial thinking tools. To strengthen such a decolonial interpretation, this is supported by additional Bourdieusian notions, namely cultural *sabir* (Bourdieu & Sayad, 2004) and habitus *clivé* (Bourdieu & Chartier, 2010)—concepts less commonly used for sociolinguistic analysis that refer to uncertainties and incoherencies experienced by individuals who stumble, struggle and falter due to fragmented or split identities and allegiances. These notions offer valuable insights to elucidate the research findings, particularly when examining themes relating to ERPP and identitarian and psycho-affective concerns at both the individual researcher and institutional levels. This observation is particularly pertinent to interpreting the perceived sense of alienation and disillusionment experienced by certain participants from AAU, which can be partly attributed to the exclusive adoption of a foreign language as the only legitimate medium for research publishing, as a result of which these participants seem to find themselves in an uncomfortable onto-epistemic in-between or liminal state. On the one hand, they recognised the global nature of scientific discourse and emphasised their commitment to worldwide disciplinary communities, thus justifying the need to publish their work in English. However, they also contend that the imposition of this language not only alienates them from their immediate communities but also undermines the meaningfulness, relevance, and overall quality of their research endeavours.

Elaborating this further through engaging with Bourdieu, the use of English in AAU could be interpreted as a sort of cultural *sabir* (Bourdieu & Sayad, 2004) that created a space where the fields of higher education (academic profession) and the fields of everyday day-to-day life do not overlap as some AAU participants navigate the requirements of publishing and adapting to the cultural and dispositional shifts necessary to survive in contemporary academia. An argument can be made that, to some extent, this condition seems to have contributed to the creation of “a

new type of men and women, who (at times) may be defined negatively, by what they no longer are and by what they are not yet” (Bourdieu & Sayad, 2004, p. 463).

Although engaging the cultural *sabir*, which was initially used to make a sociological analysis of Algerians during their war of independence from segregative and assimilative French colonial rule and applying it to interpreting the perspectives of AAU academics may initially appear extreme; the feeling of being “condemned to the interferences and incoherences” (Bourdieu & Sayad, 2004, p. 469) resulting from imposed systems could be deemed to invoke similar sentiments, upon closer examination. Although Bourdieu and Sayad’s (2004) description of cultural *sabir* may be perceived as pessimistic and essentialist (Pöllmann, 2021), this notion could also be related to another concept from Bourdieu’s later works, *habitus clivé* (Bourdieu & Chartier, 2010), to allow for a more agentic reflection on the repercussions of publishing in English pertaining to AAU.

Fragmented, split, or cleft *habitus* resulting from movements, differences and distances in linguistic, disciplinary and professional dispositions leading to coexistence and collision of different *habitus* within an individual (Bourdieu & Chartier, 2010) could potentially predispose or push multilingual researchers to intimately grasp a field’s laws and make symbolic revolutions. In line with this assertion, a more nuanced understanding of these AAU participants’ perspectives can be made, interpreting their experiences of fragmented linguistic and intellectual identities as possibilities to heighten reflexivity and enhance their agency. As Fowler (2020) argues, the bearers of symbolic revolutions tend to possess a split or fragmented *habitus*.

Similarly, more explicitly decolonial notions of liminality and hybridity (Bhabha, 1994), which bear conceptual similarities with the transformative potentials of managing the discomfort associated with *habitus clivé*, also provide relevant insights to analysing identitarian concerns not only at the individual researcher but also at meso (institutional) level. Drawing on psychological and anthropological interpretations of liminality, it can be argued that the “publish in English or perish” ethos that is considered the yardstick for surviving in academia has created a space for multilingual researchers that can lead to a widespread sense of being neither here nor there, resulting in what Erikson (1964) calls “identity vacua”, at times characterised with fear, anxiety,

and dread. However, at the same time, just like fragmented habitus, the liminal state could provide “a bridge and a place outside the limitations of categorical thinking” (Trejo Méndez, 2021, p. 7)—a fertile ground for intellectual growth and promoting novel perspectives in multilingual research publishing.

Engaging the concept at the meso (institutional) level, liminality and the ambiguity, uncertainty, and a sense of being “betwixt and between” different social or cultural states (Turner, 1974, p. 234) that characterise it can be mobilised to describe AAU and UEM in relation to embracing or (re)initiating their research mission. This assertion is based on a broader observation that, like many universities in Africa, AAU and UEM have been in a state of becoming African universities in addition to striving to embody the universalised characteristics of higher education institutions as transnational and global entities. However, it is argued that as much as these contradictory expectations can be disorienting, they can also be spaces for collective struggle, resistance, agentic reflection and transformation, as individuals, groups and institutions are provided with an opportunity to navigate, question, renegotiate, or even reinvent their social roles, identities, and complex relationships.

The argument here is in agreement with Bhabha’s (1994) claims that liminal/transitory states between fixed designations of identity open up the possibility of cultural, linguistic, and academic hybridity that entertains difference without an assumed or imposed hierarchy, thereby challenging the dominant narratives and binary categories that have been imposed by Western abyssal thinking (Santos, 2007). After all, as Erikson asserted, perhaps in discussing linguistic and institutional identities, it might be best to operate with the premise that “A sense of identity is never gained nor maintained once, and for all. Like a good conscience, it is constantly lost and regained” (Erikson, 1956, p. 7). To paraphrase Francis Nyamnjoh’s (2021) analysis of African personhood (based on proverbs in Chinua Achebe’s work), being and becoming an African or an African university is a permanent work in progress, highlighting the recognition of embracing incompleteness and in-betweenness. Adopting this flexible, discursive and anti-authoritarian perspective to rethink research publishing and critique the dominance of English can result not only in the creation of multilingual research ecosystems but it can also promote conceptual,

textual, structural and stylistic diversity, translanguaging (Canagarajah 2022a, 2022b), and transknowledging (exchange of knowledges and knowledge traditions).

It is worth stating that embracing hybridity has been a hallmark of works by prominent African thinkers although it has been popularised by Homi K. Bhabha. For instance, Mazrui's ideas of triple heritages and Nkrumah's consciencism highlight the need to consider the hybrid nature of African knowledges and identities. Both thinkers argue that Africa is a melting pot of various cultural influences and that this hybridity can be a source of strength and resilience (Mazrui, 1986; Nkrumah, 1964). Mazrui's triple heritages model is especially relevant to interpreting the AAU findings as he used Ethiopia's Middle Eastern, Western and indigenous African heritages to elucidate his arguments. However, it is essential to highlight the point in the AAU responses that critiqued the imposition of Western languages and knowledges while lamenting the erasure of knowledges rooted in the Abrahamic religions (Christianity, Islam and, to a lesser extent, Judaism) and archived in languages such as Ge'ez and Arabic, they did not reflect on the fate of endogenous African knowledges archived in non-dominant and non-liturgical Ethiopian languages.

7.6.4. Conceptual Decolonisation beyond the Question of Languages

Thinking in terms of some of the responses from UEM, a case for broadening the English-language-for-research question to include conversations related to appropriating what is considered an additional or foreign language to render African knowledges intelligible can be made. As indicated in Chapter Six, critical assertions that predominantly embraced English as the language of scientific publishing at UEM also suggested the potential of instrumentalising the language to do decolonial work and promote Africanisation.

These views are, of course, not new. Since the 1960s, some of the most vocal advocates of decolonisation and Africanisation were also at the same time cognisant of the instrumental benefits of appropriating European languages. Ali Mazrui (2004) argued for the need to confront the oppressor's language and "truly" own it in a way that can transmute the consciousness and weight of the African experiences. Chinua Achebe (1997, p. 346) underscored "the importance

of the world language that history has forced down our throats”. Emphasising the potential of English to promote Pan-African conversations and knowledge production, Achebe (1997, p. 344) stated, “The only reason why we can even talk about African unity is that when we get together, we have a manageable number of languages with which to communicate—English, French, and Arabic.”

Although contextual differences need to be considered, inspiration can be drawn from the African American tradition of appropriating or owning English to overcome collective alienation and assert one’s knowledge of the world. For instance, in his essay, *Why I stopped hating Shakespeare*, Baldwin (2010) states:

My quarrel with the English language has been that the language reflected none of my experience. But now I began to see the matter another way ... Perhaps the language was not my own because I had never attempted to use it, had only learned to imitate it. If this were so, then it might be made to bear the burden of my experience if I could find the stamina to challenge it and me to such a test. (p.145)

Appropriating English to render African knowledges and experiences intelligible therefore highlights concerns related to decolonisation at the conceptual level. For this to happen, “...it will have to be a new English, still in full communion with its ancestral home, but altered to suit its new African surrounding” (Achebe, 1997, p. 349). Doing so implies the elimination from our view of modes of conceptualisation that are carried through the language and remain in our thinking owing to inertia rather than our own reflective choices. It also implies rethinking and re-evaluating the concepts, categories, and frameworks traditionally used to study Africa (Wiredu, 1997, 2002). Wiredu (2002) regards the rampant and uncritical theorising about Africa from conceptualisation to dissemination of ideas through Western languages as the significant challenge of doing conceptual decolonisation:

Languages (in their natural groupings) carry their own kinds of philosophical suggestiveness, which foreign as well as native speakers are apt to take for granted. If, by virtue of a colonial history, you are trained right from the beginning in a foreign language and initiated thereby into the professing of philosophy, then certain

basic ways of thought that seem natural to native speakers might become natural to you too. Consequently, you might not even realise that those ways of thinking may not be all that natural or if your own language is radically different, even coherent from the standpoint of your own language. This means that you might not even be aware of the likely neo-colonial aspects of your conceptual framework. (p. 56)

Although this dimension of decolonisation requires reflexivity and multidimensional vigilance and is “easier said than done” (Wiredu, 2002, p. 56), engaging in this process, could contribute to the development of a more authentic and dynamic research publishing ecosystem in Africa using languages such as English and Portuguese without sliding into nativisation, romanticisation and essentialising linguistic, methodological and epistemic differences.

Overall, conceptual decolonisation requires a reflection on how researchers from Africa might appropriate English, not just for utilitarian purposes but also to resist colonial or neo-colonial legacies of the language (Pennycook, 1998) and participate in meaning making by opening up possibilities for reworlding academic research and publishing. In a sense using the language can be considered as an act of “enabling contradiction” (Santos, 2016, p. 238), which at times requires the use of the coloniser’s languages and epistemologies even to resist, subvert and reinvent them (Canagarajah, 2022b). However, further studies are required to investigate the ways African researchers have appropriated English to capture worldviews, realities, knowledges and ways of knowing that emanate from Africa.

7.6.5. On African Languages for Research Publishing

As demonstrated in this study, the issue of language in research within the studied contexts is not a binary choice between English and other languages. Instead, the responses highlight the requirement for multilingual research publishing. Contributing to the ongoing theoretical debates on research publishing, arguments advocating for the inclusion of African languages in higher education teaching and research are supported by the findings of this study. Such a position is supported not only by considering linguistic human rights and psycho-affective and identitarian issues but also by considering instrumentalist arguments such as economical and sustainable development (Mazrui, 2004; Prah, 2012, 2017; Ulmer & Wydra, 2022). As Ngugi wa Thiong’o

(1998, p. 90) asserts, “There can be no real economic growth and development where a whole people are denied access to the latest developments in science, technology, health, medicine, business, finance and other skills of survival because all these are stored in foreign languages”.

The study highlights how African languages are confined and systematically prevented from reaching higher education and research spaces in Ethiopia and Mozambique. Ethiopian languages and their “intellectualised” versions disappear after primary school, while Mozambican languages are still considered “home languages.” The uncritical adoption of English for research publishing has contributed to the indigenous languages’ further marginalisation in both UEM and AAU. However, it should be noted that they can still be found “foreignised”, these higher education institutions being objects of linguistic analysis confined to language departments and administrative functions in the university space. The complicity of politicians, policymakers, and education systems in perpetuating the dominance of European languages is also noted. What Mazrui (2004) observed is still relevant today:

English, and other European languages, have continued to mesmerise African policymakers long after the end of direct colonialism. The result has been a disturbing unwillingness to commit significant resources to promote and develop African languages. By fostering a psychology of linguistic neglect among policymakers in a rapidly changing world, therefore, European languages do pose a serious long-term threat to the development of African languages in this age of information technology. (p. 4)

Some of the sentiments echoed in the interviews are also reminiscent of a further Mazruian assertion—that the privileging of European languages such as English has had immense psychological effects on Africans, who not only accept the inherent inferiority of their own languages but have also become convinced that it is not worth taking any action to address this issue.

Policy implementation is challenging even when policy provisions for promoting African languages are made. This is especially the case for Mozambique, where there is a substantial gap between official policy and linguistic reality, although the country’s current language policy

requires “the state shall value the national languages and promote their development and their growing usage as vehicular languages and in the education of citizens” (Baldauf & Kaplan, 2004, pp. 9–10). Although some strides have been made in terms of developing Mozambican Bantu languages for educational purposes, this research is in agreement with what Lopes (1998, p. 474) has stated—“the status of Bantu languages and the present efforts to develop and promote them in society still have a long way to go”.

In addition to policy and implementation challenges, creating research and publication ecosystems that include African languages faces several daunting obstacles. These include the lack of standardisation and harmonisation for academic purposes, limited availability of publication outlets, linguistic diversity, insufficient funding and technological infrastructure, as well as limited visibility and readership:

- **Lack of harmonisation and standardisation:** The intellectualisation of African languages necessitates standardisation to establish them as languages of academic publishing. However, there is a lack of consensus on basic academic writing conventions, consistent orthography, terminology, and concepts. While arguing for diversity in ERPP, the problem with African languages such as Amharic that are already being used for research publishing to some extent is the lack of standardisation for research and publication purposes. Other instances highlight the need for harmonising orthographies for academic purposes as a priority for border-straddling and mutually intelligible Bantu languages (Banda, 2016). The case of the Sesotho language spoken in Lesotho and South Africa, but does not use the same orthography resulting in the same spoken language divided by its written form, demonstrates this concern (Makutoane, 2022).
- **Limited publishing outlets and infrastructure:** The study acknowledges the limited availability of publication channels for research in African languages in the context studied. It calls for strengthening domestic systems and empowering small independent local publishers to overcome barriers created by traditional publishing models. With proper funding, policy and research management systems in place, strengthening domestic systems not only allows for multilingual publishing and can be used to promote diamond open-access publishing (charging neither readers nor authors) and overcome the

barriers put by English-language incentive APC-based models of publishing with large legacy publishers that disadvantage researchers from contexts with limited resources such as those included in this study. The need for new ways of science communication and knowledge sharing is emphasised, with journals encouraged to include African languages in their policies explicitly.

- **Limited access to technology:** Limited access to technology, the Internet, and digitised data in many African countries poses a significant challenge to promoting African languages in research publishing. The lack of publicly available digital datasets for African languages hinders the development of accurate language models and natural language processing tools. The study suggests investing in AI and machine learning research tailored explicitly to African languages and supporting initiatives that collect, digitise, and preserve language resources.
- **Funding constraints:** Insufficient funding for language research and development programs is identified as a critical constraint in promoting African languages in research publishing. The study calls for increased investment in language planning, development, and revitalisation efforts. Activities such as developing orthographies, dictionaries, and scientific terminologies, publishing and translation infrastructures and technologies, and training scientists and reviewers require a significant financial commitment. It suggests exploring innovative funding mechanisms to support language-related initiatives, including collaborations between government, private sector organisations, and philanthropic foundations. It is also worth stating that limited financial resources at institutional and individual levels mean funding often goes to activities like subscribing to international research databases and APCs for researchers that there is little or no funding for developing local languages and national and institutional research ecosystems.
- **Limited visibility and recognition:** The limited visibility and recognition of African languages in research publishing perpetuate their marginalisation. Because languages of European origin, such as English, have a higher reach and currency, research in the limited research output in African languages is less visible to the international research communities, limiting its impact and influence. This might still concern many researchers

and institutions even if avenues for publishing in African languages are available. As a result, in addition to building infrastructures and systems that valorise African languages, translation (human and/or machine) needs to be available to disseminate research output in more widely accessible languages.

Promoting African languages in research publishing requires confronting challenges related to managing high linguistic diversity, which requires making difficult choices. Some strategies can be suggested in this regard. First, the selection of languages to prioritise could consider their relevance to the research being conducted and the potential beneficiaries of the knowledge produced. Another viable approach is to capitalise on African languages that already serve as lingua franca, gradually expanding the multilingual research ecosystem to include more languages. In the case of Ethiopia, this could involve incorporating official and transnational languages such as Amharic, Afaan Oromo, Somali, Afar, and Tigrinya. This strategy also highlights the necessity to broaden the discussion beyond national languages and advocate for the intellectualisation and valorisation of transnational languages that often are “partially invisible, disguised or hidden by the arbitrary nature of the colonial borders of African states” (Nkhoma-Darch, 2005, p. 7). As Mbembe (2016) argues, decolonising an African university (be it in relation to language choice or other concerns) requires a geographical imagination that extends beyond the boundaries of the nation-state. Another strategy could involve considering language proximity and mutual intelligibility and selecting languages closely related to the first languages spoken by a more significant section of populations. To address the challenges posed by linguistic diversity, it is also crucial to engage local communities and language experts in grassroots consultations, as their input is vital in identifying key areas of focus for promoting African languages in research publishing.

Reconceptualising and managing linguistic diversity and making informed choices for establishing a multilingual research publishing ecosystem necessitate critically examining linguistics as a discipline and reflecting on its colonial origins (Deumert et al., 2021). For instance, Prah (2012) argues that the number of languages in Africa has been greatly inflated. Similar sentiments have been expressed by Errington (2008) and Heugh (2015), particularly

concerning the influence of colonial linguistics and its role in creating language classifications that could have been considered dialects in Southern Africa.

7.6.6. Towards Inclusive and Multilingual Research Publishing Ecosystems

In line with the arguments made in previous sections, this chapter concludes with a proposal for establishing multilingual research publishing ecosystems in the contexts studied, other similar African contexts and beyond. As presented in Figure 7.1, creating the conditions necessary for multilingual research ecosystems demands a multifaceted investment and commitment. Among other things, doing so implies:

- a. Enhancing linguistic capitals;
- b. Undertaking policy reforms;
- c. Investing in financial, infrastructural resources as establishing partnerships collaborations;
- d. Rethinking the rules of scholarly engagement; and
- e. Undertaking non-linguistic structural reforms.



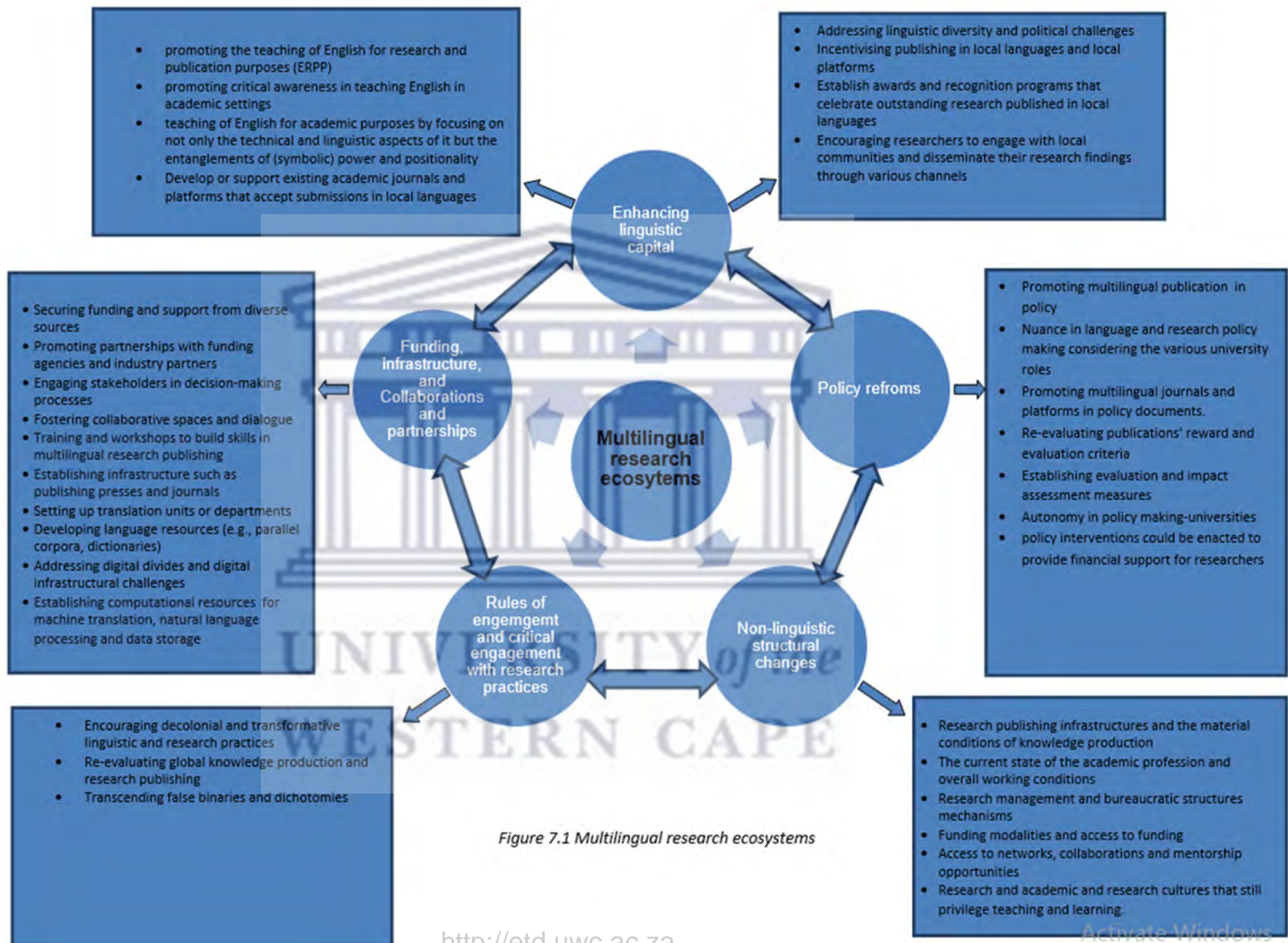


Figure 7.1 Multilingual research ecosystems

7.6.6.1. Enhancing English Proficiency

As English remains the language with the highest currency in academic publishing, promoting English language capital among multilingual researchers is crucial. However, as the findings suggest, activities to improve English for academic purposes for academic staff are limited in both AAU and UEM. In this regard, the findings are in agreement with Li and Flowerdew's (2020) observations that EPPP initiatives are "underdeveloped" or even absent despite considerable demand from institutional and national policies requiring researchers to publish in English-intensive indexed international journals. As the study has demonstrated, and other studies have also revealed (e.g. Burgess et al., 2019; Messekher & Miliani, 2019), the absence of such support has especially negatively affected doctoral students and emerging researchers. One of the measures that can be undertaken in promoting multilingual research ecosystems is, therefore, the teaching of ERPP and promoting critical genre awareness of teaching English in academic settings (Swales, 1997). Such an initiative is often best undertaken through partnerships between language and content specialists (Cargill et al., 2018; Li & Flowerdew, 2020). Other activities, such as peer language proofing and peer language translation, where researchers with higher English language capital could volunteer to review the language of manuscripts submitted by researchers who are not proficient in English, can also be institutionalised (Khelifa et al., 2022).

Strengthening the teaching of English for academic purposes by focusing on not only the genre-specific technical and linguistic aspects but also the entanglements of (symbolic) power and positionality also needs to be highlighted. As Motha (2014, p. 129) states, the field of English language teaching might be reconceptualised "with a disciplinary base that no longer revolves solely around teaching methodology and language studies but instead takes as a point of departure race and empire." Adopting a critical-pragmatic approach to teaching ERPP might also lead to conversations on how the language's role as the undisputed carrier of global science facilitating international academic communication is at the expense of local languages and cultures, leading to epistemic erasures (Cadman, 2017). A critical-pragmatic approach to ERPP pedagogy might involve the question of standard and non-standard English and how non-

standard English might be received by gatekeepers at international journals (Corcoran & Englander, 2016). Promoting critical-pragmatic ERPP is especially advocated in STEM and hard sciences, where fields of study tend to be more unquestioning of the need to publish in English-language international journals (Burgess et al., 2019; Li & Flowerdew, 2020). In this regard, lessons can be learned from more nuanced, reflexive discussions in the social sciences and humanities.

7.6.6.2. Fostering African Languages

In addition to the concerns raised in section 7.6.5, supporting the development and use of African languages in research publishing is essential for preserving linguistic diversity and promoting contextually relevant knowledge production. One measure to ensure the existence of multilingual research ecosystems is through creating avenues for languages other than English (African languages for this study) to be legitimate languages in spaces higher than high school and higher education (AAU):

1. One specific measure towards this legitimation is to make the languages of teaching and learning. Another strategy is using African languages in other forms of research engagement, such as conferences.
2. Incentivising publishing in local languages and local platforms through financial rewards such as grants and subsidies could lead to more linguistic diversity in research and publishing and could provide researchers with an opportunity to publish in their preferred languages.
3. Establishing awards and recognition programmes that celebrate outstanding research published in local languages. This can include university-wide or departmental awards, as well as external awards from professional organisations and funding agencies.
4. Encouraging university administrations to consider research published in local languages when making decisions about tenure and promotion.
5. Providing institutional support for research and publication in local languages, such as access to resources, training, and mentorship, as well as dedicated time. Promoting

- practices in open science that promote peer language proofing and peer language translation of research. Promoting multidisciplinary collaboration among researchers from various linguistic backgrounds.
6. Developing or support existing academic journals and platforms that accept submissions in local languages. This will provide researchers with accessible venues for publishing their work in their preferred languages.
 7. Investing in capacity building and training programs that equip researchers with the skills and knowledge needed to conduct research and publish in local languages. This can include workshops on academic writing, research methodology, and data analysis in the targeted languages.
 8. Encouraging researchers to engage with local communities and disseminate their research findings through various channels, such as local media, informal and formal community gatherings and social media, to showcase the value and relevance of research.

Overall, Higher education institutions, such as AAU and UEM, could play a significant role in researching and providing directions. Although the exclusion of African languages from research at higher education institutions has roots starting from the primary school level, it is argued that in order to include African languages, interventions need to be made bottom-up and top-down. Higher education institutions should be proactive and lead the way while pushing for more visibility and usage of African languages at other levels. Any gains made in elevating African languages are rendered futile since the languages remain trapped at the school levels. Although one way of “intellectualising” African languages in the higher education space is to promote their use for teaching and learning, the idea that African languages are not a medium of instruction should not also lead to the idea that they cannot be a medium of research publishing and dissemination. Controversial an example it may be, vital lessons can be learned from the elevation of Afrikaans as a scientific language from its humble “folkloric” (Mamdani, 2019) origins, which Prah (2017) describes as one of the linguistic miracles of the past century, is an example that this is a possible undertaking.

7.6.6.3. Funding, Partnerships and (Digital) Infrastructure

Funding, collaborations, partnerships, and infrastructure are essential components of multilingual research ecosystems. These ecosystems require financial investment, human resources, publishing infrastructure, data and digital technologies, and the development of language resources. Inclusive, multidisciplinary dialogue, discussion at all levels, commitment, and stakeholder engagement are also crucial.

To ensure the survival and expansion of multilingual research ecosystems, educational institutions, which are typically responsible for teaching and acquiring academic language, need to increase their investment. While establishing a sustainable supply of funding and support is important, it is also necessary to consider the consequences of continued dependence on donor funding for research and postgraduate studies.

Cooperation and partnerships between universities, research institutions, and funding organisations are vital in building multilingual research ecosystems. To support multilingual publication projects, researchers from a variety of fields—including linguistics, computer science, social sciences, and humanities—could work together. It is also important to create fora for discussion, dialogue, and collaboration where stakeholders can exchange resources, knowledge, and research findings. Journals and editors should also push publishers and publishing platforms for change to embrace multilingual research publishing. Training programmes and workshops can also be implemented to build researchers' and graduate students' skills in multilingual research publishing. These programmes should incorporate critical perspectives on the political economy of knowledge production and linguistic practices to challenge Western-centric approaches and promote local capacity development.

Establishing the necessary infrastructure, such as publishing presses, journals, and human computational resources, is crucial for multilingual research ecosystems. Open-source and accessible tools that promote local ownership of research outputs should be created. Addressing digital divides and infrastructural challenges is essential to ensure equitable access. Recent developments in artificial intelligence (AI) and large language models (LLMs) offer potential contributions to creating multilingual research ecosystems. AI tools can be used for tasks such as

machine translation (Wang et al., 2022), language learning, multilingual data analysis, synthesising evidence, and affordable proofreading and editing. However, it is worth noting that translation between languages of European origin is relatively easier for AI tools than other languages, while low-resource or distant languages pose significant challenges (Hendy et al., 2023; Jiao et al., 2023). The limited availability of high-quality training data and linguistic diversity across the African continent further complicates the development of accurate language models. Training and running AI models, creating digital text datasets, and cleaning and formatting the data require significant data input, computing, and human resources, which may be limited or nonexistent in some African countries or institutions.

While AI tools can assist in translation, it is crucial to acknowledge that using machine translation without human expertise may compromise the accuracy of scientific content. Researchers should carefully consider the advantages and disadvantages of using AI technologies for research translation, considering factors such as the language being translated, the research domain, and the desired level of accuracy and precision. Machine translation quality has been improving rapidly, especially for languages with sufficient digital resources, but even minor critical errors can have significant consequences in evidence synthesis (Amano et al., 2021). Therefore, caution should be exercised when using machine translation and it may be necessary to involve native speakers of the language to double-check the translation output.

Translation in multilingual research ecosystems involves not only converting text into another language but also re-contextualising it in various research traditions and scholarly practices Dussel (2018). Lessons from translation in the humanities, such as equivalence, function, and loyalty, can be applied to facilitate science translation. Linguistic, conceptual, cultural, and functional concerns, including audience, media, and purpose, must be considered (Connelly, 2021). Investment in human and technological resources, coordination, and training between researchers and translators is necessary.

Resource-poor languages pose significant challenges due to the lack of parallel data (Wang et al., 2022). Strategies such as pivot translation or pivot prompting, which use a high-resource language (such as English) as a bridge between low-resource language pairs and languages with

high distance, can improve translation performance (Jiao et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022). Hybrid approaches that combine GPT models with other translation systems have also shown a potential to enhance translation quality (Hendy et al., 2023).

Further complications arise from the caution against reproducing inequalities and digital colonialism. Technologies have historically served as instruments to reproduce existing inequalities and perpetuate coloniality (Coleman, 2019; Tamale, 2020). Digital tools can promote justice and oppression, surveillance and structural violence, and unbridled capitalism and consumerism (Winters et al., 2019; Zuboff, 2019). Addressing the implications for diversity and inequalities in research when utilising AI technologies is crucial. While large language models can help level the playing field by removing language barriers, there is a risk that high-income countries and privileged researchers will exploit them, widening inequalities. Debates should involve people from underrepresented groups and communities affected by the research to ensure inclusive and equitable utilisation of AI tools (Van Dis et al., 2023).

It is important to note that AI tools such as ChatGPT perform better with English prompts, even when the task and input texts are intended for other languages, reflecting biases toward English (Lai et al., 2023). These biases can perpetuate the dominance of English in academic linguistic markets rather than promoting pluralism and transformation.

7.6.6.4. Implementing Policy Reforms

Advocating for policy changes that promote linguistic diversity and inclusivity in research publishing is imperative for fostering an equitable knowledge production landscape. As progressive scholars also caution against promoting linguistic and discursive changes without policy and structural changes (Block, 2018; Canagarajah, 2022a), language and research policies should be developed to guide the use of English and African languages in research publishing. The language policy should be informed by critical perspectives, which recognise socio-historical conditions and seek to challenge the dominance of the English language in academic publishing.

One of the primary policy interventions has been the implementation of language policies that reward and incentivise the publication of research in multiple languages. These policies could encourage and support researchers to undertake and publish their work in multiple languages deemed relevant to their field of study. This approach ensures that research produced in multilingual contexts is available to wider and concerned audiences and fosters linguistic diversity in the research ecosystem. This necessitates a re-evaluation of the traditional reward systems that often prioritise English-language publications and the development of strategies that support and incentivise multilingual research endeavours.

A key aspect of developing research reward and incentivisation policies involves redefining the criteria for evaluating research output and academic performance. Traditional evaluation metrics, such as citation counts and journal impact factors, tend to favour publications in high-profile English-language journals, which can inadvertently marginalise research produced in other languages. To redress this imbalance, institutions should consider adopting more holistic and equitable evaluation frameworks that incorporate the quality, relevance, and societal impact of research, irrespective of the language in which it is published. This may involve the development of alternative metrics that capture the influence of research within specific linguistic communities or the use of peer-review processes that assess the scholarly merit of publications based on content rather than language.

To address the financial constraints associated with translation and editing services, policy interventions could be enacted to provide financial support for researchers. This strategy facilitates the dissemination of research findings in multiple languages while minimising the financial burden on researchers. In addition to financial incentives and support, institutions should also consider implementing non-financial reward systems that recognise and celebrate the achievements of researchers engaged in multilingual research publishing.

Another policy intervention focuses on promoting and supporting multilingual journals and publishing platforms. By providing funding, technical assistance, or other resources to these outlets, policymakers can encourage the growth of diverse and inclusive research publishing

ecosystems. This approach seeks to bridge the gap between English-dominated research platforms and their multilingual counterparts, thereby fostering greater inclusivity in the global research community.

The development and implementation of language policies in academia also necessitate a nuanced understanding of the multidimensional functions of the university as an institution. Universities serve not only as bastions of knowledge generation and dissemination but also as avenues for cultivating critical thinking, fostering cultural exchange, and promoting social cohesion. Consequently, language policies must be designed and enacted in a manner that takes into account these diverse objectives, striking a delicate balance between the promotion of multilingual research publishing and the need to preserve the functional efficacy of universities.

Flexible national language policies should not only consider the various roles of the universities but also consider the specific contexts, institutional priorities and specific needs of research communities. Autonomy in policy making-universities should be able to have language policies considering their priorities and contexts.

7.6.6.5. Rethinking the Rules of Engagement of Scholarly Publishing

The dominance of English as the language of research and publication and the rules of engagement of the contemporary political economy of knowledge legitimization and dissemination have resulted in a proliferation of publications that are often inaccessible and behind paywall, making them less meaningful and relevant to local contexts. Unfortunately, the rest of the world often disregards their significance and impact. Research has shown that African authors, even in the field of African studies, receive fewer citations compared to research from the Global North.

It is crucial to undertake essential reforms and radical reconsideration of academic writing and publishing conventions. This process necessitates questioning the deeply ingrained rules, values, and norms that permeate global science. The transformative journey involves various dimensions, including critiquing writing conventions such as translanguaging as a form of resistance (Canagarajah, 2022b). It also entails diversifying linguistic markets and scholarly engagement strategies and undertaking more profound critiques, such as examining the influence of neoliberal regimes and colonial legacies. Furthermore, careful scrutiny is required regarding

prevailing academic competition, career progression, research productivity and assessment rules and regulations, and taken-for-granted conceptual and epistemic binaries.

Scholars propose resistance strategies that aim to address structural issues that cannot be resolved through translingual writing alone. These strategies advocate for slow and selective scholarship and a shift in academic emphasis from writing to reading (Hultgren & Molinari, 2022). These endeavours emphasise the urgent need to establish a counter-discourse that challenges the social rules and cultural politics governing academic research, publishing, and language usage. This includes questioning who can publish, what can be published, and in which language (Mazrui, 2004).

Taking a more radical approach, it is necessary to challenge the neoliberal logic that commodifies knowledge and governs research publishing and linguistic markets. This involves critically examining the Western university, which the universities in this study are modelled on, as a (neo)colonial institution with ties to commercial imperialism and theories of racism and segregation developed by colonial intellectuals to justify colonial domination (Bhambra et al., 2018). Consequently, a decolonised perspective of multilingual research publishing should extend beyond symbolic gestures and include the dismantling of colonial and imperial logic within higher education institutions worldwide. Caution should also be exercised to avoid reproducing a version of multilingualism referred to by Kubota (2016, p. 475) as the “multi/pluri bandwagon” which risks becoming another canon integrated into a neoliberal capitalist academic culture characterised by constant knowledge production and competition for economic and symbolic capital.

Radical reforms should also entail a re-evaluation of the competitive logic that incentivises and polices publishing. It can be argued that as long as the current logic of incentivising research and publication persists, the dominance of English as the preferred medium will endure. This requires critiquing the “*mania for assessment*” that predominantly relies on quantitative indicators, such as the number of publications, journal impact factors, citations, conference papers, and advisees (Mbembe, 2016, p. 31, emphasis in original). Engaging in critical reflection also involves interrogating the terms of scholarly competition primarily defined by the West and questioning the terms, or even the necessity of competition itself (Mbembe, 2016).

Another aspect of rethinking the rules of scholarly engagement pertains to challenging deeply entrenched and dichotomous conceptual, epistemological, and existential binaries related to language and scholarly publishing. Challenging binarised language ideologies such as pragmatism vs. idealism or instrumentalism vs. humanism is crucial, as choosing multilingualism can embrace both humanistic and instrumentalist perspectives. From an epistemological standpoint, this entails embracing pluriversality through a “*horizontal strategy of openness to dialogue among different epistemic traditions*” which requires fostering a less parochial and more open critical cosmopolitan pluriversalism through a radical “*re-founding*” of our ways of thinking and a transcendence of disciplinary divisions (Mbembe, 2019, p. 241–242, emphasis in original). Moreover, rethinking the role of the intellectual and researcher is essential. The role extends beyond scholarship to encompass activism and action, and the dichotomy between scholarship and activism is not mutually exclusive. Scholars must exercise epistemic vigilance. Moreover, transcending binaries involves questioning the assumed universality of Western ontological frameworks and recognising multiple realities. This demands engagement with diverse worldviews and understandings of reality to develop comprehensive and nuanced perspectives on phenomena. Such a paradigm shift can foster a more inclusive and holistic multilingual research publishing ecosystem that embraces diverse intellectual traditions and knowledge systems.

In addition to these considerations, Mbembe connects the language question with theories of knowledges and institutions, underscoring the claim that “Ngugi probably assumes that language inevitably shapes knowledge or what is possible to know; he probably believes that language inevitably grounds knowledge in a particular culture and influences what we can know and how we know it. But language alone cannot stand or compensate for the lack of a theory of knowledge as such” (Mbembe, 2019, p. 240). Thus, it is necessary to engage in difficult conversations that involve an epistemic and ontological shift, encompassing the universality and particularity of the African university as an institution. This includes revisiting fundamental questions such as the purpose and value of research publishing, the definition and assessment of quality knowledge, the pervasive culture of “publish or perish” that shapes academic careers, and the legitimacy of different languages to articulate and archive knowledge. Axiological reflections concerning values and the assignment of values are essential. It requires exerting agency to

transform the prevailing superficial rules of engagement that have fuelled an uncritical pursuit of validation from English language “international” journals from “centres” of knowledge production. What Graeber (2015, p. 89) observed about avant-garde artists and social revolutionaries can also be adapted to global research publishing and multilingual publishing, “The ultimate, hidden truth of the world is that it is something that we make, and could just as easily make differently.”

7.6.6.6. Non-Linguistic Structural Changes Required

As the findings have highlighted, there is a need to be aware of non-linguistic variables and challenges since language question is part of a tapestry of issues related to research and publishing. Some of these dimensions include:

1. Research publishing infrastructures and the material conditions of knowledge production;
2. The current state of the academic profession and overall working conditions;
3. Research management and bureaucratic structures mechanisms;
4. Funding modalities and access to funding;
5. Access to networks, collaborations and mentorship opportunities; and
6. Research and academic and research cultures that still privilege teaching and learning.

Highlighting the need to strengthen national and institutional publication outlets and publishing houses, one of the measures that can be taken to promote multilingual research publishing is addressing one of the key concerns in the political economy of knowledge production, i.e. the question of the weak research publishing industry in the contexts studied and in other parts of the continent as well. Mills et al. (2023) present the field of academic publishing as being controlled by a limited number of multinational corporations and organised by what they term “bibliometric coloniality”—a network of interconnected social and technological infrastructures that distribute and uphold academic credibility.

In this regard multilingual research ecosystems considering knowledge production in materialist terms as an extroverted economic activity might be insightful as (Hountondji, 2002) elaborates:

Based on this, my hypothesis was that research activity also developed under the same ‘colonial pact’ and was therefore as extroverted as economic activity. This I assumed, was not simply due to chance. It derives from the fact that the science, as well as scholarly research is itself a specific kind of production: **knowledge production**, to put it as Louis Althusser did, and therefore is a kind of economic activity in the broad sense, something akin to the production of material goods, which is known economy proper. I still believe that it is enlightening to analyse the process of research, as well as the intellectual and cultural life as a whole, on the same lines as economic activity, in materialist terms. (p. 28, emphasis in original)

Systems and institutions also need to actively participate in creating ecosystems that enable individuals not only to survive but thrive and, in the case of this particular study, expand their freedom to choose the language(s) of publishing their research. As stated in other sections as well, individual academics who are often in survival mode in contemporary neoliberal academia driven by quantification and audit culture have little agency, time and resources and freedom to participate in interrogating and actively creating and shaping the rules of engagement.

All in all, making research available in multiple languages can help to ensure that important findings and insights are accessible to a wider audience, regardless of their native language. Developing English language capital and promoting African languages are both critical to creating multilingual research publishing in Africa. Linguistically inclusive research is not only a question of representation, inclusion and equity, and human rights. It is also a question of the quality and quantity of scientific production. Exclusively using English for research might have negatively impacted on the meaningfulness of scholarly engagement for knowledge production, other functions like teaching and learning, and university-industry community engagement. If the language is perceived as a barrier to participation in the global academic literature, it would be a great disservice to the scientific community worldwide.

7.7. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed and interpreted findings presented in earlier three chapters considering their implications for the contexts, other similar contexts and the broader scholarly, disciplinary, and multidisciplinary communities. The views reflected concerning English on research publishing align with existing literature that views English as a lingua franca and also with more critical perspectives on decolonial studies portraying a more complex picture of the English language in the research question. It is argued that perspectives related to the status of English as the dominant language of research are quite complex and do not fit into the either/or dichotomy. The usefulness of English as a shared language of global science is recognised, and the need to create a space for indigenous languages is also called for.

The interpretation is in agreement with the ERPP position paper by Navarro et al. (2022)—interrogating taken-for-granted notions made concerning the use of English as a “lingua franca” in scientific publishing, examining the impact of such notions on knowledge production and dissemination, and legitimising the use of multiple languages for local and transnational scholarly exchanges. Navarro et al. (2022) provide ten principles: A language that is positioned as a scientific “lingua franca” can operate as a language of dominance, hence using English as such does not always encourage inclusivity; establishing English as the “lingua franca” could prevent participation and discourage translations; Policies that promote English as the current “lingua franca” in science and academia may imply that knowledge created in English is the only knowledge that exists; Languages and varieties serve as powerful resources for knowledge creation; choosing a language for publishing or presenting is a sociolinguistic right; choosing a language to publish or present it is a political act; convention planners should be free to promote the language(s) of their choice, and they should use their imagination and show consideration for a wide range of audiences.

Regarding the much under-researched area of research quality and publishing research in English, the findings suggest that perceived impacts are related to how the contested terrain of research quality is defined. In line with previous research findings, conducting research overall is considered time-consuming.

Both Bourdieu's and decolonial perspectives were found to be relevant in explaining the topic of this dissertation. However, relevant insights are added in highlighting the role of agency that seems to be "trapped" in Bourdieusian habitus, the field of higher education that is underground in the process of change and where autonomy is interconnected with fields external to it. When it comes to decolonial scholarship, doing decolonisation without reproducing the either/or logic that often characterises Western thought is emphasised. Moreover, an approach of decolonisation that centres on the political economy of knowledge production is highlighted since addressing part of the language question is related to building a research ecosystem and infrastructures that support multilingual research publishing and knowledge production. The chapter concludes by suggesting a framework for creating an ecosystem conducive for the creation of multilingual research publishing.



CHAPTER EIGHT: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1. Introduction

This thesis has explored the implications of using English for research and publishing purposes (ERPP) in multilingual research-oriented universities in Africa. The study adopted a multiple case study design to achieve its objectives, engaging with data collected from Addis Ababa University in Ethiopia and Eduardo Mondlane University in Mozambique. Through in-depth interviews with academic staff members and university leaders across academic ranks and disciplines, the study investigated a range of research questions, including overall perceptions regarding publishing in English, its implications for the quality and quantity of research output, and its impact on access to research-related economic and social capital. Moreover, the study has examined the ramifications of the pervasive use of ERPP in relation to recent discourses, such as the internationalisation and decolonisation of knowledge production. In addition to the multidisciplinary literature drawn from sociolinguistics, higher education studies, sociology of knowledges and African studies, the analysis for the study is underpinned by Bourdieusian and decolonial perspectives.

This concluding chapter summarises the study's main findings, reflects on its empirical and theoretical contributions and suggests directions for future research. Some recommendations are also forwarded, and the study's overall limitations are discussed. In doing so, the chapter provides an overview of the study and demonstrates its significance.

8.2. Summary of Findings

In the fields of higher education in Ethiopia and Mozambique, where research-intensiveness is embraced as a relatively recent deposition by some public universities, English serves as the language of publication for 99.5% of the publications affiliated with Ethiopia and 95.9% from Mozambique for research archived in the international domain. Although the language is considered an additional or foreign language in immensely multilingual Ethiopia and Mozambique, where more than 80 and 40 languages are spoken, respectively, in AAU, 99.6% of the publications are archived in English. At the same time, for UEM, the percentage stands at 96.5%. Considering this linguistic and research background (which was presented in more detail

in Chapter Four as a background to informing the rich presentation of findings in Chapters Five and Six), the following questions were thoroughly investigated:

1. How do multilingual academic staff members and university leaders perceive the use of English for research and publication purposes?
2. What is their evaluation of the impact of publishing in English on the quantity and quality of research?
3. To what extent does publishing in English affect the acquisition of research-related social and cultural capital?
4. What are the implications of the widespread use of English for rethinking higher education research through initiatives and discussions related to the internationalisation and decolonisation of research and knowledge production?

8.2.1. ERPP and Overall Perception of its Use

Researchers and university leaders in both AAU and UEM have underscored the multifaceted nature of publishing in English, encompassing its role as both an asset and a liability, albeit with a greater inclination towards critical perspectives among AAU participants. In both contexts, English is acknowledged as an asset serving as a shared language of scientific discourse and facilitating global knowledge exchange. Additionally, English is perceived as the solution to multilingual settings where viable alternatives are perceived to be lacking. However, limited linguistic capital has rendered the language a liability in both AAU and UEM. The perceived deficiencies in overall English language capital can be attributed to various factors, including limited opportunities for language usage, inadequate investment in language acquisition and training, ineffective language policies and practices at various educational levels, substandard language teaching methodologies, and the overall poor quality of the education systems.

Some responses have also highlighted the language's dominance as the global language of science has become a taken-for-granted doxic notion in the Bourdieusian sense. The lack of collective critical engagement on the ramifications of the language's usage in both contexts substantiates this claim. Furthermore, the highly politicised nature of the topic, intertwined with

intricate affective and identity-related concerns, may have contributed to the overall dearth of comprehensive engagement. Despite this overall observation, participants from the social sciences and humanities (mainly from AAU) emphasised and lamented the noticeable absence of African languages as vehicles for high-level intellectual discourse, expressing a preference for the inclusion of local languages in the publishing domain. In contrast, participants in the hard sciences asserted that languages other than English lack the requisite efficacy to convey concepts and findings inherent to their respective fields, thus posing a challenge to publishing research in alternative languages.

Moreover, the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations underlying researchers' preferences for publishing in English were explored. Based on two case studies, these drivers included: the undisputed dominance of English as the language of global scientific communication, the prevailing academic culture of "publish or perish," global and institutional requirements and expectations for career advancement, national and institutional language policies, research recognition and incentivisation frameworks, the perceived absence of viable alternatives, geopolitical considerations, and postgraduate funding modalities. Overall, publishing in English is perceived as an act of positioning and position-taking in the higher education research landscape both at the meso- and micro levels.

Moreover, the comprehensive perceptions shed light on the intricate nature of conducting ERPP-related research, wherein the research and publication process extends beyond English and encompasses multiple languages. The findings also underscore the need to acknowledge the relevance of English while simultaneously advocating for the inclusion of African languages in research dissemination and publication endeavours.

8.2.2. Implications of Using English for Research and Quality and Quantity of Research

The responses elicited a mixed outlook regarding the implications of English on the quality of scientific research. English was perceived as a more substantial concern for research quality within AAU compared to UEM. This discrepancy may stem from differing understandings of notions of research quality or excellence. In AAU, researchers associated quality with the rigour

of their work prior to submission, whereas in UEM, the prevalent perception of quality was linked to indicators such as journal impact factors, citation counts and peer review.

A noteworthy finding pertaining to this dimension relates to the far-reaching consequences of publishing in English on other functions of universities, such as teaching, learning, and university-community engagement. In UEM, publishing in English was seen to negatively impact on the quality of teaching and learning while in AAU, negative implications for the university's third mission (university-community engagement) were observed.

The challenges posed by English were more pronounced for up-and-coming researchers and postgraduate students at both institutions, and this emerged as a prominent quality concern. Some supervisors also believed that this issue partly contributed to the prevalence of plagiarism in postgraduate research, particularly within AAU. Postgraduate students themselves acknowledged their struggles with English. More than lack of experience, however, the reason attributed for this concern is the questionable quality of the two countries' overall education policies and practices at all levels (including primary and high school).

When it comes to the ramifications of using English in terms of the quantity of research in both institutions, the majority of respondents said that writing and publishing English is a time-consuming activity. In contrast, some respondents, especially in the natural sciences and engineering, stated that publishing in any other language would be much more time-consuming than publishing in English since it is considered to be the well-developed language of science, while others, especially local languages in Ethiopia and Mozambique (including Portuguese), were not.

8.2.3. English and Implications for Accessing Research-Related Capital

The overall responses suggested that English language capital was not perceived to significantly impact other forms of capital, such as research funding and collaborations, in AAU. However, it does seem to have notable implications for accessing these resources at UEM. It can be surmised that Ethiopian researchers, due to their prolonged and frequent exposure to English as the medium of instruction, possess the necessary English language proficiency to make grant applications or communicate with collaborators. Nevertheless, as previously mentioned, the level

of English language capital they possess does impact the quality and quantity of their research output.

However, higher levels of other forms of capital, such as increased funding opportunities and collaborations with researchers from countries with well-established research cultures and higher English language capital, offer a means to compensate for deficiencies in English language capital. Researchers who possess perceived lower language capital, along with other forms of capital, seem to find themselves at a disadvantage, thus experiencing challenges in publishing and accessing research-related resources.

The findings from both case studies also indicate that agents (academic staff members) are able to act with a certain degree of agency to overcome language-related barriers, despite institutional and individual level constraints, as well as weak research infrastructures and cultures. This finding aligns with Bourdieu's argument that individuals are not passive products of systems, and challenges structuralist interpretations that overlook the role of agency. The findings emphasise the importance of examining how local actors exercise agency and assign meaning to global and local events associated with language use in studying and publishing, in addition to undertaking a socio-historical and cultural analysis of systems. While advocating for reforms and criticising existing structures, it is essential to recognise individuals beyond the constraints of their habitus and understand their agency within the context of their circumstances.

8.2.4. ERPP and Rethinking Higher Education Research and Publishing

Two intersecting and, at times, contradictory notions of rethinking higher education underlie the responses from both AAU and UEM. On the one hand, there is a need to position the universities as international research-led universities, and the need to rethink and relink the universities to local and national contexts, on the other.

While highlighting the need for more collective and systematic engagement on the topic, the study's findings offer avenues for rethinking current research and publishing regimes at supranational, national, and individual researcher levels. The ERPP-inspired discussion of these reconsiderations included:

- Rethinking internationalisation and global science publishing;
- ERPP, the cognitive empire, coloniality of power and complicity;
- Recognising and embracing split habitus, liminality and hybridity;
- Expanding ERPP-centred discussions towards conceptual decolonisation; and
- Engaging in critical reflection on the valorisation of African languages for research and knowledge production.

The section concludes by proposing the establishment of multilingual research publishing ecosystems, which would involve:

- Enhancing English language capital;
- Valorising African languages;
- Implementing language and research policy changes and reforms;
- Leveraging technology to make multilingual research accessible;
- Rethinking the rules of scholarly engagement and transcending conceptual binaries in discussing, debating, researching, and analysing ERPP-related questions; and
- Considering non-linguistic structural changes.

8.3. Contribution

This section presents an overview of the study's empirical, theoretical, practical, and methodological contributions, shedding light on the role and impacts of ERPP on research output in the contexts examined and beyond.

8.3.1. Empirical Contribution

A thorough review of the literature on ERPP highlighted several gaps and shortcomings that this thesis has aimed to address. One significant gap is the lack of comprehensive studies that examine the implications of using English for research and publication in multilingual African contexts. Most existing research on English for research focuses on bilingual contexts in Europe, and whether conducted in the Global North or Global South, the use of English for research is explored mainly considering the perspectives of researchers to whom the language is second or additional. Little attention has been given to African contexts where English is a third or foreign language.

This study's findings and analysis offer substantial and empirical evidence that explores the multidimensional ramifications of using English for research publishing in multilingual African contexts, contributing to addressing a gap in the existing literature. Moreover, while previous research predominantly focuses on individual-level implications, this study also examines the institutional level and the effects of using English as a medium of research in research-oriented universities. The dimensions, quality and quantity of research, vis à vis the use of English as a medium of research, also required systematic analysis, which this study provides.

Furthermore, the publications produced alongside this research project, such as the systematic review of English in Africa and reflections on fieldwork experiences, contribute to the empirical knowledge base. This state-of-the-art systematic review not only provides a critical review of existing research on African contexts but has also ensured that the research questions generated for this study are grounded in evidence. The fieldwork experience reflects what it means to research higher education in African contexts, adding valuable insights to the empirical contribution.

8.3.2. Theoretical Contribution

This study provides a deeper understanding of how research-oriented universities and their researchers navigate the English language-dominated research and publication landscape by employing theoretical perspectives from the sociology of languages and knowledges, and decoloniality. The interplay between these theories sheds light on institutional, individual, and contextual factors influencing language choices for research and publication.

This study specifically adopted Bourdieusian and decolonial perspectives, offering a nuanced and theory-informed understanding of the use of English for research. While these theoretical perspectives have been used separately to explore different aspects of the English language in teaching and learning, their combination represents a unique theoretical contribution to the literature on English for research purposes and higher education studies. The Bourdieusian perspectives offered insights into how language functions as a form of social capital, shaping power dynamics within academic communities and perpetuating inequalities. In addition, decolonial perspectives emphasised the need to recognise and valourise local languages and

epistemologies, challenging dominant narratives of knowledge production that prioritise the Global North. Basing the study on the collective work of Bourdieu and various perspectives from decolonial thought, rather than narrow or specific constructs and concepts, has provided the freedom and flexibility to explore the topic subtly. Overall, the study emphasises the need for multidimensional linguistic and non-linguistic theorising and analyses to examine further the implications of expanding the use of English.

8.3.3. Practical Contribution

The study's suggestions for creating an inclusive and equitable research publishing landscape in multilingual contexts can also be considered a practical contribution. By highlighting the challenges and opportunities associated with publishing in English, this study provides important insights into the support and resources required to facilitate successful multilingual publishing. It emphasises the need for investment in capacity development initiatives, access to publishing resources, and the recognition of local knowledges and epistemologies. These practical contributions can inform policies and practices in higher education institutions, offering a more nuanced and context-specific approach to language and knowledge production that considers the linguistic diversity and complexity of different regions and contexts.

8.3.4. Methodological Contribution

The design and execution of this study exemplify the notion of centring Africa as a “locus of enunciation” to address extroversion, as advocated by decolonial scholars. The transformation of African universities serves as the entry point for the study, and the research thoroughly and systematically examines African literature on the topic to justify the study and identify knowledge gaps. As this study demonstrated, it is essential to note that centring Africa does not imply promoting “Ethnoscience” or treating the study of Africa as detached from the collective knowledge of humanity. Instead, it involves two key aspects:

1. Recognising and engaging with the scholarly output of African scholars: This study emphasises the significance of considering the perspectives and contributions of African scholars in the discourse on English for research purposes. By acknowledging and incorporating African scholars' work, the study aims to enrich the understanding

- of English language research in African contexts. This inclusive approach fosters a more comprehensive and balanced analysis than that which existing research reveals.
2. Engaging and appropriating critical traditions of scholarly engagement: The study also acknowledges the importance of engaging with critical traditions of scholarly engagement from around the world. In particular, the extensive engagement with the work of Bourdieu and scholars in the ERPP subdomain of English for academic purposes from the Global North demonstrates the study's commitment to drawing upon diverse perspectives and insights.

This study also highlights the relevance of conducting a thorough and systematic literature review before proposing and conducting research. In addition, the selection of study sites that explore trans/multinational perspectives on the implications of using English for research and publishing reflects the effort to capture a broad range of perspectives. The publication of a collaborative article exploring fieldwork experiences also serves as an experiment to enhance reflexive practices in doctoral training, encouraging postgraduate students and early-career researchers to raise their voices through agentive reflections, which is not typical in such contexts.

8.4. Study Limitations

This study provides valuable insights into the implications of publishing in English for academic staff and universities in multilingual contexts in Africa, in Ethiopia and Mozambique. However, some limitations should be highlighted.

First, the study may not represent the experiences and perspectives of researchers and institutions in other regions or contexts since it was conducted at only two higher education institutions, the AAU and UEM. Secondly, the multiple case study approach that the study employed, which provides rich and detailed data, may not be generalisable to other contexts or populations. The study was also limited to assessing the perspectives of academic staff and doctoral students. It did not incorporate the views of other actors such as publishers, policy makers and funding agencies. Future research could incorporate these perspectives to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the implications of ERPP for higher education research and knowledge production in multilingual contexts in Africa.

8.5. Future Research

While this study has provided valuable insights into the implications of publishing in English for academic staff and universities in multilingual contexts in Africa, several areas warrant further investigation. Future research endeavours could focus on the following areas:

1. Conducting additional case studies: The inclusion of more case studies from different regions and contexts would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the implications of using English for research publishing. By examining a broader range of institutions and populations, researchers can gain insights into the diverse experiences and challenges faced in multilingual settings.
2. Exploring the holistic impact of English on higher education: Future studies could delve deeper into how the use of English for research publishing intersects with other core functions of universities, such as teaching, learning, and community engagement. Understanding the broader implications and interconnections in this regard would provide a more nuanced perspective on the role of English in higher education.
3. Investigating the experiences of graduate students and early-career researchers concerning publishing in English: As the study has highlighted, this group often encounters specific obstacles and may require targeted support to navigate the academic publishing landscape effectively. Therefore, it is crucial to explore further the strategies, challenges and impacts that graduate students and early-career researchers face in using English for research.
4. Examining the appropriation of English for rendering African experiences intelligible: Further research could explore how English is utilised to convey African experiences and contexts in research publications. Understanding the ways in which English is adapted, modified, or localised to reflect African perspectives and knowledge systems would shed light on the complexities of knowledge production in multilingual contexts.
5. Quantitative assessment of the implications of English for research: While this study has primarily relied on qualitative data, future research could employ quantitative methods to measure and document the effects of using English for research

- publishing. Surveys, bibliometric analyses, and quantitative indicators could provide a more quantitative understanding of language preferences, research outputs, and impacts.
6. Analysis of submitted manuscripts: Examining manuscripts submitted to academic journals could yield valuable insights into the use of English in research publishing. By analysing the language choices, patterns, and editorial decisions surrounding these manuscripts, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of the dynamics at play in the publication process.
 7. Investigation of academic writing processes: Future research could explore the cognitive and affective dimensions of academic writing processes in multilingual contexts. By examining disciplinary and transdisciplinary studies, researchers can gain insights into genre understandings, writing strategies, and the socio-cultural aspects that shape academic writing practices.
 8. Comprehensive study of non-English language publications: It would be valuable to conduct a more comprehensive study on the utility and impact of non-English language publications in local contexts. Exploring the reception, visibility, and influence of publications in local languages would provide a more holistic understanding of language choices and knowledge production in multilingual environments.

8.6. Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested as the study findings have significant repercussions for researchers, higher education institutions, policymakers, and other stakeholders at various levels who are involved in academic publishing and knowledge production in the contexts studied and beyond.

At the supranational level, encouraging discussion and dialogue to address language policies and practices in academic publishing and knowledge production is vital. Doing so includes fostering conversations that explore the implications of language choices and promote inclusivity and accessibility in research dissemination. Promoting the development of multilingual language

policies for journals is another recommendation at the supranational level. By accommodating diverse linguistic needs, these policies can ensure a more inclusive publishing environment that recognises and values research in multiple languages alongside English.

International funders and development agencies could support language training programmes and translation services to enhance researchers' language skills and enable them to publish in African languages and English for research purposes. Investing in developing African languages for research, including creating scientific dictionaries, terminologies, and multilingual corpora, is crucial for fostering a robust multilingual research environment. Encouraging the establishment of multilingual open-access journals can also expand access to research in different languages. Fostering partnerships between international and African publishers can contribute to producing and disseminating multilingual research publications. Providing technological and technical resources to support translation services and other language-related initiatives can further facilitate multilingual research collaboration and communication.



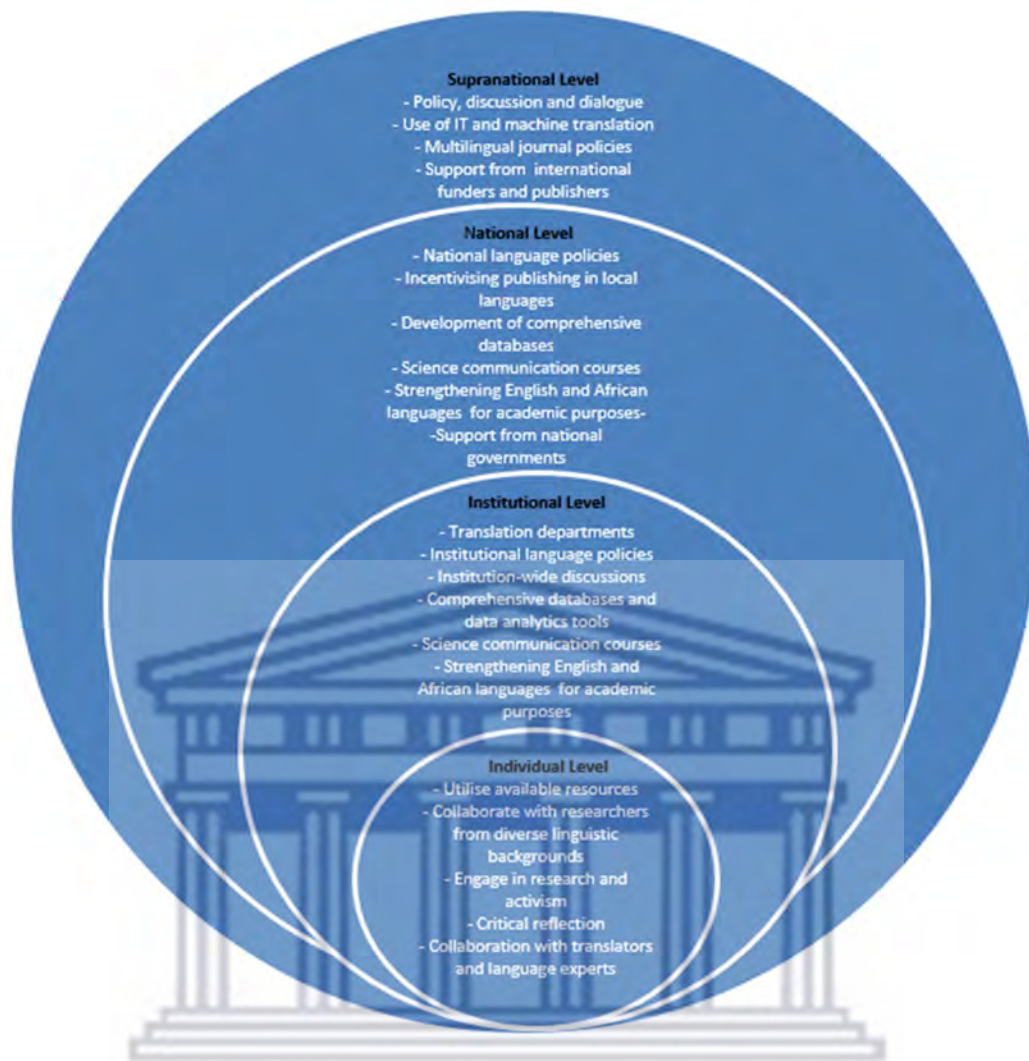


Figure 8.1. Study-based recommendations

At the national and institutional levels, the need for facilitating discussions and interventions to address the implications of using English for research is highlighted. By actively engaging in these conversations, institutions and systems can identify and address the challenges associated with language use in research, ensuring a more inclusive and equitable research environment. Moreover, it is recommended that governments and universities implement language policies that incentivise publishing in local languages and platforms. By promoting linguistic plurality in research and publishing, these policies can provide researchers with opportunities to publish in their preferred languages. It is recommended for institutions and systems to establish dedicated

translation departments or language centres to facilitate language-related activities. These entities can provide valuable support through translation services and the development of terminology resources, enhancing researchers' ability to communicate their work effectively.

Offering courses in science communication to researchers can significantly enhance their ability to effectively communicate their research in different languages and platforms. By equipping researchers with the necessary skills, they can engage with diverse audiences and effectively disseminate their findings. Furthermore, institutions should offer courses and programmes that enhance researchers' English language skills and support their engagement with multilingual research publishing. This involves not only addressing the technical and linguistic aspects of English proficiency but also acknowledging and addressing the power dynamics and positionality inherent in language use. By doing so, universities can create a more inclusive and equitable academic environment that empowers researchers to effectively communicate their work to diverse audiences.

To accurately capture the contribution of research in local languages and contexts, developing quality assessment mechanisms at macro and meso levels is essential. These mechanisms should recognise and value research conducted in local languages, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of multilingual research output. Establishing comprehensive databases, data analytics, and visualisation tools is essential for accurately and reliably portraying research in respective contexts. These resources can serve as more reliable repositories of research information and facilitate data-driven insights into the research landscapes contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of research output and language of publication nexus.

Individual researchers are crucial in promoting multilingual research and equitable knowledge production. Researchers should take advantage of available resources such as English language improvement centres and translation centres to enhance their language skills and engage in multilingual research. These resources can provide valuable support in improving language proficiency and facilitating multilingual communication. Collaboration with researchers from diverse linguistic backgrounds is also essential. By working together, researchers can foster inclusive and collaborative research practices that incorporate diverse perspectives and promote

a more comprehensive understanding of the research topic. Engaging in research and activism for multilingual research is another recommendation for individual researchers. By advocating for language diversity and promoting equitable knowledge production, researchers can contribute to a more inclusive research environment and challenge the colonial structures and dominant epistemologies that may be perpetuated through research.

Critical reflection is essential for researchers to understand and challenge the potential biases and power dynamics inherent in research. Researchers can actively identify and address colonial influences or dominant epistemologies by critically reflecting on their work, striving for a more inclusive and decolonised approach to knowledge production.

To promote wider accessibility and impact, individual researchers should seek collaboration with translators and language experts. Researchers can translate their research into African and other languages by working together, enabling broader dissemination and understanding of their work.

Journal editors, translators, and language experts play essential roles in promoting multilingual research. Encouraging the submission of research in African languages and collaborating with researchers to support the translation and editing of multilingual publications are necessary actions. Working with researchers and publishers can facilitate translating and editing research publications in multiple languages, contributing to broader dissemination and understanding of research findings.

Specific recommendations pertaining to the case-study universities can also be made. For instance, for AAU, it is crucial to recognise the use of English for research publishing and its negative implications for the quality of research. Institutional consultations and interventions should be undertaken to mitigate any perceived adverse effects and maintain high research standards to address this.

Another vital consideration for AAU is the impact of predominantly using English for research on the university's third mission. Given that the general population in Ethiopia exclusively uses local languages, the dominance of English in research publications can limit the accessibility and relevance of research to the local community. In this regard, AAU should explore options to

“intellectualise” Ethiopian languages and revive Ge’ez as viable alternatives for research communication and knowledge dissemination.

Furthermore, efforts should be made to strengthen PhD students’ and early-career researchers’ English language skills, particularly those in the natural sciences and engineering disciplines. This can be achieved through targeted language training programmes, workshops, and support mechanisms that enhance researchers’ proficiency in English. By bolstering their language skills, researchers can effectively engage with the global research community while preserving their own linguistic heritage.

For UEM, it is essential to acknowledge that the adverse impact of using English for research primarily affects the teaching and learning function of the university. This phenomenon calls for interventions to ensure that research published in English is more accessible to researchers and postgraduate students, who may face language barriers when engaging with English-language research materials. UEM should explore strategies to make English-language research more readily available and provide the necessary support for researchers and students to navigate these linguistic challenges.

Furthermore, the study highlights the fact that using English for research publishing may affect research quantity at UEM. Some researchers may be more comfortable expressing their ideas and conducting research in Portuguese or other Mozambican languages than English. To address this, UEM could consider providing interpretation and translation services to support researchers in bridging the language gap. By facilitating the translation of research materials, UEM can ensure that the valuable contributions of researchers who prefer local languages are included and recognised in the academic discourse.

8.7. Conclusion

This chapter summarises the gist of this PhD study undertaken to understand the phenomenon of publishing in English, considering the perspectives of academic staff members in selected multilingual African universities where the language is not the primary medium of day-to-day communication. It summarised findings for the main research questions the study sought to explore and heightened the theoretical and practical significance of the study. While suggesting

the study's limitations, the chapter also suggested directions for future research and forwarded some recommendations.



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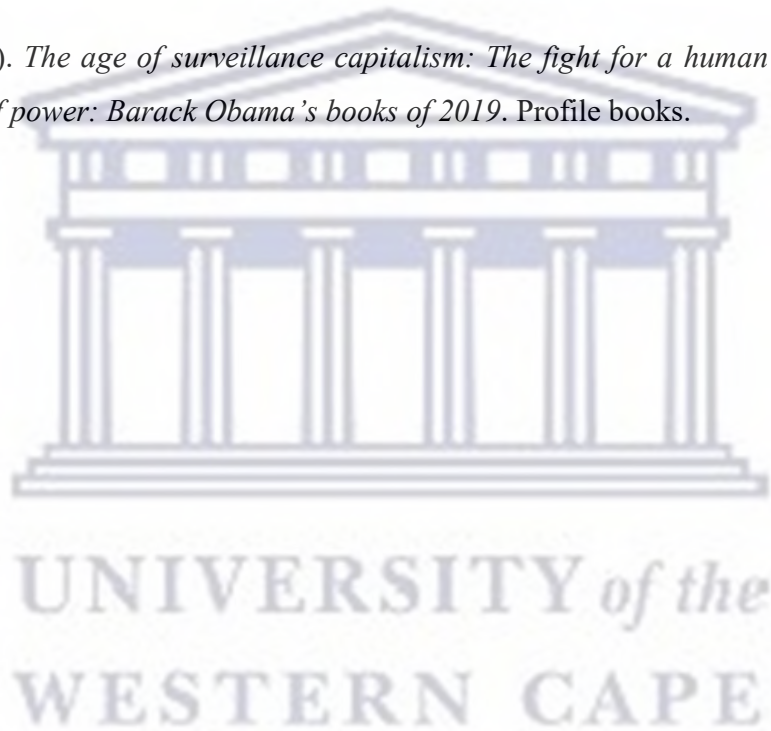
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APPENDICES



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Appendix A: Ethical Clearance



OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR: RESEARCH RESEARCH AND INNOVATION DIVISION

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31 July 2018

Ms A Yallem
Faculty of Education

Ethics Reference Number: HS18/4/17

Project Title: English language capital and its implications for Higher Education Institutions and researchers: A case study of three African flagship universities.

Approval Period: 27 July 2018 – 27 July 2019

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

Please remember to submit a progress report in good time for annual renewal.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Josias'.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

PROVISIONAL REC NUMBER - 130416-049



Appendix B: Consent Form
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC)

CONSENT FORM

Title:	English Language Capital and its Implications for Higher Education Institutions and Researchers: The Case study of Three African Flagship Universities
Ethics Approval Number:	HS18/4/17

1. I have read the attached Information Sheet and agreed to take part in the following research project:
2. The project has been fully explained to my satisfaction by the research worker. My consent is given freely.
3. Although I understand the purpose of the research project, it has also been explained that involvement may not be of any benefit to me.
4. I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged.
5. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time.
6. I agree to the interview being audio. Yes No
7. I am aware that I should keep a copy of this Consent Form, when completed, and the attached Information Sheet.

Participants to complete:

Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher to complete:

I have described the nature of the research to _____
(print name of participant)

and in my opinion she/he understood the explanation.

Signature: _____ Position: _____ Date: _____

Appendix C: Participant Information Sheet

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC)

Research Title

Publishing in English and its implications for researchers and higher education institutions in multilingual contexts in Africa: a multiple case study

Purpose of the Study

Using mainly qualitative methods and taking the case of selected African flagship universities, this PhD study focuses on investigating the major English language-related issues that have implications for research publishing and researchers in these universities.

Why have the Participants been invited to Take Part in the Study?

As Pro-Vice-Chancellor or Vice-President for Research, Director of Research, a researcher who specialises in studying language and higher education studies, a researcher in your field of study (social sciences, natural sciences, and engineering and technology) or a research policy maker, you have been chosen because your knowledge and insight about research and the language question in your specific context will have a considerable contribution for this study.

What will be asked of the Participant?

Participation in this research is voluntary and a participant has the right to withdraw from this research at any time.

Duration of Interaction

Semi-structured interview: Approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour.

Possible Benefits from the Study to the Participants and/or the Community

The study will serve as a platform for participants to share their views on issues pertaining to the implications of the use of the English language as a medium of research in the selected universities.

Assurance of Confidentiality

Data acquired from the field will be treated in a way that protects the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants. Codes will be assigned to participants to prevent their identification in the research report or any other subsequent publications from this study. Records of the project will be stored on the researcher's computer protected by a password. However, the data collected will be archived on a compact disc and securely stored for five years as prescribed by the University of the Western Cape regulations.

Measures that will be taken in the Event of an adverse Incident

If, at any stage a participant experiences discomfort, the researcher needs to be informed. The activity will be stopped immediately. If this request is made by a participant, all data collected up to that time will be deleted and disposed of permanently. After the completion of an interview, a participant can contact the researcher by email and request the removal of their data from the research. Upon receiving such a request, data collected from the participant will be removed and disposed of. Participants will be assured that no adverse effect will result from such requests. Please refer to the independent complaints sheet attached.



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Appendix D: Interview Guide for Researchers in the Case-Study Universities

Researchers' Linguistic Habitus

- 1) How would you describe English: first language, second language or a foreign language?
- 2) Tell me how you came to learn the language?
- 3) Where did you study for your graduate degree(s), and what was the medium of instruction and research?
- 4) How do you assess your overall level of your English language competence for academic writing?

Perceptions of English for Research and Publication

- 1) How would you describe the role English language plays for research and publication purposes in global and local academic contexts?
- 2) In your experience, how does using English impact the dissemination and accessibility of research findings?
- 3) How would you assess the current use of the English language in your institution/ higher education system?
- 4) How do you think academic staff members and university leaders view the dominance of English in academic publishing?
- 5) What do you think are the advantages (if any) of conducting research and publishing in English? Please elaborate on your views.
- 6) What do you think are the disadvantages (if any) of conducting research and publishing in English? Please elaborate on your views.
- 7) Could you share any additional specific challenges or benefits that you have observed or experienced related to publishing your research in English? How do these factors impact the overall research and publication performance?
- 8) Why do you publish in the language(s) you publish in?
- 9) In an ideal world, what language (s) would you prefer to develop your research concepts and publish and disseminate results?

Quantity and Quality of Research and ERPP

- 1) Would your mastery of the English language have any impact in terms quality of your research output? Would the quality of output improve if you could publish and present findings in languages other than English? Please elaborate on your views.
- 2) Would your mastery of the English language have any impact on the quantity or amount of your research output? Would the quantity of output improve if you could publish and present findings in languages other than English? Please elaborate on your views.
- 3) From your perspective, what is the influence of publishing research in English on the quantity and quality of academic research conducted by academic staff at your institution? Have you noticed any specific effects on the quality or productivity or scholarly output and engagement?

Linguistic Capital in Relation to Economic and Social Capital

- 1) Has your current level of English proficiency directly or indirectly helped you or hindered you regarding acquiring research funding? Can you provide examples to support your perspective?
- 2) Has your current level of English proficiency directly or indirectly helped you or hindered you regarding research collaboration opportunities? Can you provide examples to support your perspective?
- 3) Are there any observed barriers or advantages for academic staff regarding networking, collaboration, career advancement and professional growth related to publishing in English? How does language proficiency influence their ability to build connections and participate in scholarly discourse?
- 4) Do you see the need to improve your English language proficiency?
- 5) If yes, what are the outstanding challenges you have?

Rethinking Higher Education Research Publishing and the English Language Question

- 1) What, in your view, are the implications of the widespread use of English for current discussions and initiatives related to rethinking higher education research (such as internationalisation and decolonisation of research and knowledge production)? Are there any potential tensions or opportunities that arise from these discussions?

- 2) What ought to be done as far as the language of research is concerned to improve research capacity and productivity in your institution?
- 3) Are there any alternatives or strategies that you think could be explored to promote a more inclusive and diverse research landscape while still considering the use of English? How can institutions and stakeholders contribute to a more linguistically inclusive knowledge system?
- 4) What are your thoughts regarding publishing in local languages? Would doing so have implications for the quality, quantity and relevance of research from you and your institution?
- 5) By using English for publication and archiving knowledge, could there be a case for concern that researchers are making research inaccessible to their local communities in favour of seeking legitimacy and approval of the global academic community?



Appendix E: Interview Guide for Institutional Leaders and Directors of Research

Perceptions of English for Research and Publication

- 1) What are your views on the English language's role in making research in your institution globally accessible and locally relevant? Please elaborate on your views.
- 2) How would you assess the current use of the English language for research in your institution?
- 3) What are the advantages of conducting research and publishing in English, considering the overall English language proficiency of researchers in your institution?
- 4) What are the disadvantages of conducting research and publishing in English, considering the overall English language proficiency of researchers in your institution?
- 5) Are there any further specific challenges or benefits associated with using English as the primary language for research communication? How do these factors impact the overall research and publication performance?
- 6) How do you believe academic staff members and other university leaders view the dominance of English in academic publishing? Are there any differences in their perspectives based on your observations or interactions?

Quantity and Quality of Research and ERPP

- 1) How do you assess the overall English language proficiency of researchers in your institution?
- 2) Would mastery of the English language have any impact in terms of the quality of research output from your institution? Would the quality of output improve if academic staff could publish and present findings in languages other than English? Please elaborate on your views.
- 3) Would your mastery of the English language have any impact on the quantity or amount of research output from your institution? Would the quantity of output improve if academic staff could publish and present findings in languages other than English? Please elaborate on your views.

English Language Capital in Relation to Economic and Social Capital

- 1) Does your current level of English proficiency in your university have implications regarding acquiring research funding? Can you provide examples or anecdotes to support your perspective?
- 2) Does your current level of English proficiency have implications as far as research collaboration opportunities are concerned? Can you provide examples or anecdotes to support your perspective?
- 3) Are there any perceived barriers or advantages for academic staff members regarding networking, collaboration, or career advancement related to publishing in English?
- 4) What institutional resources are available for those who want to improve the linguistic capacity of researchers in terms of using English? Are there any specific mechanisms or strategies in place to support academic staff members in publishing their research in English?
- 5) Do you see the need to improve English language proficiency among researchers at your university? If yes, what are the outstanding challenges researchers have?

Rethinking Higher Education Research Publishing and the English Language Question

- 1) What are (if any) the implications of the current debates on language to the drive your institution is having towards being research intensive?
- 2) How does the dominance of English impact the diversity and inclusivity of knowledge production? How does your institution engage with critical discussions around this topic?
- 3) What, in your view, are the implications of the widespread use of English for current discussions and initiatives related to rethinking higher education research (such as internationalisation and decolonisation of research and knowledge production)? Are there any potential tensions or opportunities that arise from these discussions?
- 4) What should be done regarding the language of research question to improve research capacity and productivity in your institution?
- 5) Are there any alternative strategies, policies or practices that your institution has implemented or is considering to address language-related barriers and promote linguistic

inclusivity? How can institutions and stakeholders contribute to a more linguistically inclusive knowledge system?

- 6) What are your thoughts regarding publishing in local languages?
- 7) Are there any opportunities for researchers to publish in local languages and make research accessible in local languages?
- 8) What institutional resources are available for those who want to improve the linguistic capacity of researchers in terms of using local languages? What initiatives (if any) are being undertaken to develop African languages for research?
- 9) By using English for publication and archiving knowledge, could there be a case for concern that researchers are making research inaccessible to their local communities in favour of seeking legitimacy and approval of the global academic community?

