An examination of the suitability of PADev as a method for effective participatory assessment of the development of higher education institutions: the case of Eduardo Mondlane University (1976-2016)

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CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Chapter two first addresses the Participatory Evaluation Theory, a variant of Evaluation Theory, whereas participatory assessment of development (PADev) approach is integrated. From the proposed theory, three main concepts, specifically the concepts of "evaluation", "participation" and "development" are discussed in relation to PADev principles that strives change assessment in poverty context, bottom-up approach concerning participation, long-term perspective towards inclusion, and holistic view that trace the development path. The underlying principles concerning PADev approach which results in the production of knowledge on institutional change and development is also presented. The path-dependence theory is employed in an attempt to trace back the development path of EMU to early contingent event.

As far as knowledge production is concerned, the study departs from two epistemological assumptions, specifically based on Social Realism, and the Institutional Change. From the discussion on how social reality is constructed, following how the institutional change is perceived to occur, and knowledge about the sources and the direction of change, some constructs emerged and properly addressed, namely the construct "reality", "institution" and "change". Moreover, it also discusses the various participatory evaluation approaches, stressing their potentialities and limitations in assessing change and development. Second, the chapter discusses the historical development of higher education in Africa with a special focus on Mozambique as the context for testing the usefulness and effectiveness of the PADev method.

2.1. Participatory Evaluation Theory

The theoretical perspective that has led the study, was the Participatory Evaluation theory.

Scriven (1998, p. 15) distinguished two types of evaluation theory. The normative theories are about what evaluation should do or be, or how it should be conceived or defined. The descriptive theories are about what evaluation types there are (classificatory theories) and what they in fact do, or have done, or why or how they did or do that (explanatory theories). According to the author, an evaluation must, by definition, lead to a particular type of conclusion – one about merit, worth, or significance or value of things (Scriven 1998, p. 16), judged according to appropriate criteria, with those criteria explicated and justified (House, 1993, as cited in Garaway, 1995, p. 85). Evaluation also requires a synthesis of facts and values in the determination of merit, worth, or value (Scriven, 1998).

Participatory Evaluation theory is a variant of evaluation theory, which is concerned with valuing, knowledge production, knowledge use, and the nature of the evaluand (Shadish, 1998).

Participatory Evaluation as a concept is attributed different interpretations, depending on whether evaluation is seen as a process or an end. Cousins and Earl (1992, p. 399) defined Participatory Evaluation as an '*applied social research that involves a partnership between trained evaluation personnel and practice-based decision makers, organisation members with programme responsibility or people with a vital interest in the programme*', that is, the primary users. From this perspective, Participatory Evaluation better suits a project's evaluation when it seeks to understand innovations with a clear intention to inform and improve its implementation (Cousins & Earl, 1995).

A different conception is presented by Brunner and Guzman (1989), who define Participatory Evaluation as '*an educational process through which social groups produce action-oriented knowledge about their reality, clarify and articulate their norms and values, and reach a consensus about further actions*' (Brunner & Guzman, 1989, p. 11). Implicit in this definition is the idea of shared learning through this attempt at collective knowledge production, which also characterizes the approach employed in the current study: the PADev approach.

Chouinard (2013, p. 245) shares a similar view when defining Participatory Evaluation as a '*learning system*[3] *where stakeholders work alongside evaluators in identifying issues, carrying out research tasks, and responding to research findings and results.*' Learning takes place in the process of participation, in which the evaluation participants develop relationships amongst themselves. This occurs, according to Oakley (1991), on a practical or informational level concerning the programme, the organisation, the context, and the evaluation itself, as well as on a conceptual or reflective level concerning relationships to self and others (Oakley, 1991, as cited in Chouinard, 2013).

Recent literature discussing evaluation practices highlights stakeholder involvement and active engagement in the evaluation process. Stakeholders' involvement includes, amongst others, collaborative, participatory, and empowerment evaluation (Fetterman et al., 2014).

The key point about participatory evaluation is not which methods to use but whose voices to include, how to include them, and determining who will speak for whom (Greene, 2000, as cited in Chouinard, 2013).

[3] A concept by Cousin and Earl (1992).

A distinguishing characteristic of participatory evaluation is its focus on stakeholders' perspectives towards evaluation and the evaluation principles and process. Stakeholder participation in this case can be seen as a principle, and the degree of the stakeholders' participation affects the evaluation process.

2.1.1. Participatory Assessment of Development - PADev

Participatory assessment of development, abbreviated as PADev, is an evaluation approach that enables the study of changes in a region over a specified period equal to or longer than 15 years; which seeks to extract the collective experience of change from a given population, and information about development interventions and initiatives that played a role in their experiences of change and impacts afterwards; which links specific interventions to specific changes; and where assessment is performed by the representatives of the local population, with external evaluators acting as workshop facilitators in a context where beneficiaries are sharing their experiences of change (Dietz et al., 2013; Dietz, Obeng, Obure, & Zaal, 2009).

Four principles characterize the PADev approach: (i) departure from a poverty context, and focusing on people's own assessment, valuation, and interpretation of life changes, and what is causal to those changes; (ii) a bottom-up approach, based on individual and group discussions among presumed beneficiaries of development interventions; (iii) an approach that takes a long-term perspective, spanning a few decades, so as to incorporate the experiences, knowledge, and perceptions of different age groups within the population; and (iv) a perspective that strives for holism, in the sense of keeping an eye open to all sorts of development initiatives, irrespective of sector and agency (Dietz, 2012).

The concept of *evaluation* was related to the first PADev principle since the participants, either individually or in group, performed a subjective assessment of the institutional changes they experienced or had factual knowledge as being positive or negative. The assessment was done by relating interventions to the changes, and valuing the changes based on their own perception on the change effects.

The concept of *participation* was linked to the second PADev principle once the sampled units were selected from the presumption that development interventions implemented at EMU, regardless of its type, benefited the whole university community, or particular sectors (administrative and services) or academic and research units.

The concept of *development* was related to the third and fourth PADev principles. Development is a stage that can be traced back to narrate its path, and, in the process, experiences, knowledge and perceptions of the beneficiaries of the development interventions can be captured. Time is an important dimension in this process, which

demands a sampling composition that attends age groups to cover the time span to reconstruct the development history. In this case, taking into account the period under analysis, nearly 40 decades should be covered to report all sorts of development initiatives taking place at EMU.

The PADev framework is presented in figure 3 below, showing the relationship between important historical events, positive and negative changes, and development interventions. 'Changes' is placed in between events and development interventions, as the first and the third might both influence change.

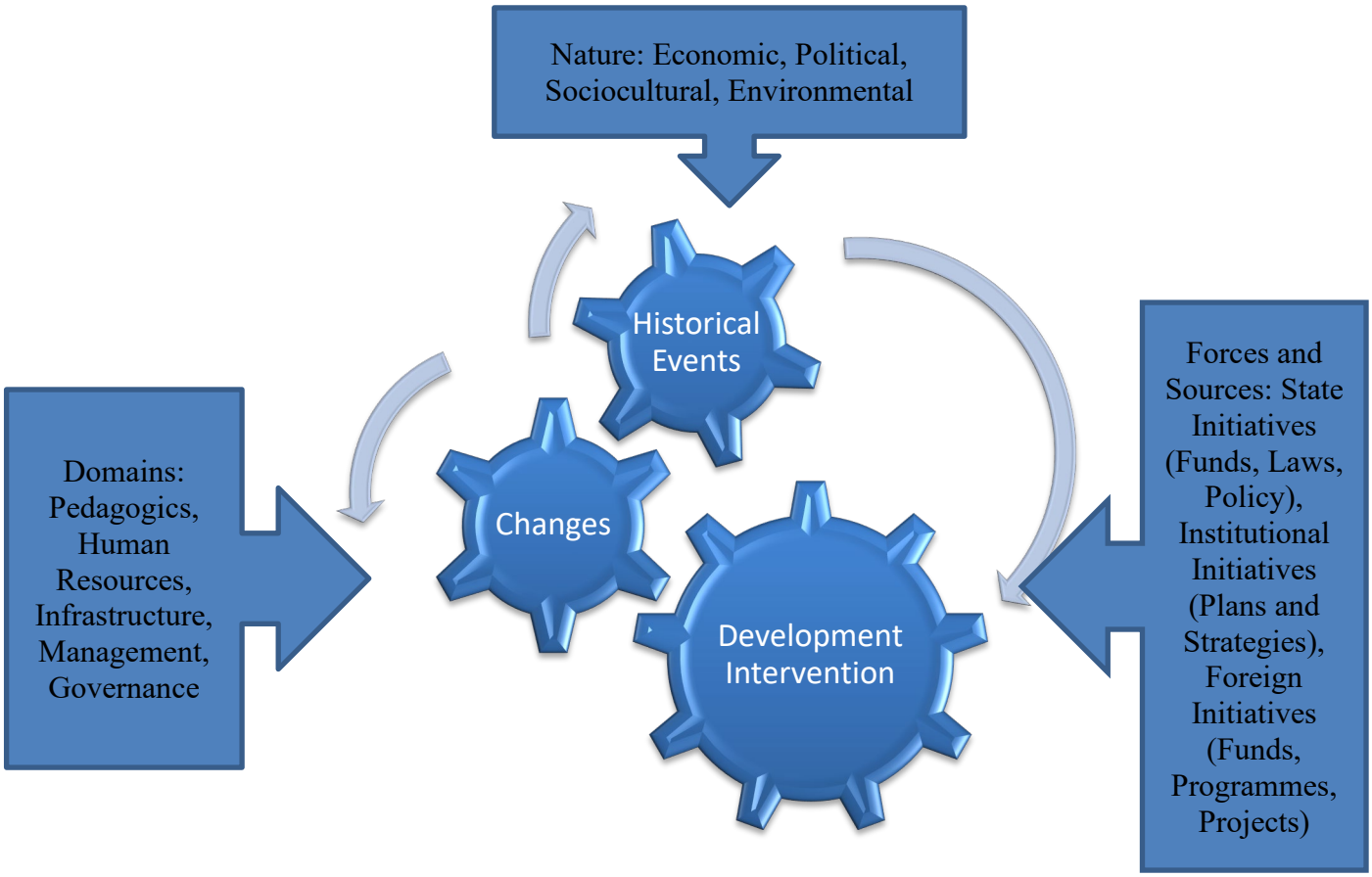

Figure 3: PADev Framework

Historical events are presented in four main categories: economic, political, sociocultural, and environmental. The occurrence of events might or might not influence specific changes within the institutions in various domains such as pedagogics, human resources, infrastructure, management, and governance. External and local development interventions or initiatives coming from collective entities or individuals vary. These include programmes, projects, funds, policy and legislation, and sectoral plans and strategies. The implementation of development intervention might or might not influence changes and promote institutional development.

In our case, the study's object is not a region, but a university, and it involves the listing of external events that had an impact on the university, the inventory of the major changes that occurred at the university, and the identification of development interventions as well as their impact on the institution's transformation. They all enable the reconstruction of the development history of the institution from inside. Participants' living memories become a key tool, taking into account the time range in development assessment.

2.1.2. Path Dependence Theory

The holistic perspective and historical recollection of the development path of Eduardo Mondlane University provided by the PADev tools and methods allowed to analyse whether path dependence mostly used by historical sociologists, and historically-oriented researchers (Mahoney, 2000) might account for the comprehension of the transformation of the university from the post-Independence period onwards. PADev tool enables the reconstruction of the most important historical events in the research site, and asses their most important effects on the community, in this particular case in the institution. Besides, path dependence stresses the importance of early events for later occurrences. It was relevant to find out if there was a contingent event that triggered a subsequent sequence amongst the recalled events by study participants that led to the current pattern the university presents.

Concerning the conceptualization of path dependence, Mahoney (2020) point out two trends. Some historical sociologists such as Swell (1996)[4] and Nooteboom (1997)[5] employ a broad conceptualization, defending the argument that past events influence future events. According to Sewell's influential definition, path dependence means 'that what has happened at an earlier point in time will affect the possible outcomes of a sequence of events occurring at a later point in time' (Swell, 1996: 262-263 as cited in Mahoney, 2020: 510). In the same line, Nooteboom argues that organisational evolution 'is path-dependent in the usual sense that directions for future development are foreclosed or inhibited by directions taken in past development' (Nooteboom, 1997, as cited in Mahoney, 2020: 510). This assertion led to the assumption that implicitly, most historical sociologists employ a more specific understanding of path dependence that goes beyond the basic notion that past choices affect future processes, to assess how

[4] Sewell, W.H. (1996), 'Three temporalities: toward an eventual sociology', in T.J. McDonald (ed.), *The Historic Turn in the Human Sciences*, Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press, pp. 245–281.

[5] Nooteboom, Bart (1997), "Path Dependence of Knowledge: Implications for the Theory of the Firm," in Lars Magnusson and Jan Ottosson (Editors), *Evolutionary Economics and Path Dependence*, Edward Elgar Publishing, n. 57.

process, sequence, and temporality can be best incorporated into social explanation. (Mahoney, 2020).

As stated by Mahoney (2000), path dependence is related to historical sequences in which contingent events set into motion institutional patterns or event chains have deterministic properties. Therefore, it highlights the importance of early events for later occurrences, assuming a causation flow from contingent historical events to general processes of potentially broad significance.

To the author, the identification of path dependence involves both tracing a given outcome back to a particular set of historical events, and showing how these events are themselves contingent occurrences that cannot be explained on the basis of prior historical conditions (Mahoney, 2000). Somehow the current study follows this approach, since its prior goal was to analyse the recollection of events gathered, regardless of the presence or absence of contingency, the type of sequence (self-reinforcing or reactive) and deterministic properties and explain whether and how the events influenced change and development of the university during the period under analysis.

Whereas self-reinforcing sequences are characterised by the formation and long-term reproduction of a given institutional pattern, exhibiting what economists call 'increasing returns'[6], reactive sequences are the chains of temporally ordered and causally connected events, to the extent that each event within the sequence is in part a reaction to temporally antecedent events. That is, early events trigger subsequent development not by reproducing a given pattern but by setting in motion a chain of tightly linked reactions and counter-reactions. Early events trigger subsequent development not by reproducing a given pattern but by setting in motion a chain of tightly linked reactions and counter-reactions. The initial event that sets into motion the overall chain of reactions is contingent. Each event in the sequence is both a reaction to antecedent events and a cause of subsequent events. Thus, each step in the chain is "dependent" on prior steps and the overall chain of events can be seen as a path leading up to a possible outcome. Reactive sequence follows a specifically path-dependent trajectory, and the historical event that sets the chain into motion must have properties of contingency. This is a step ahead from representing simply a sequence of causally connected events, Furthermore, the overall event chain itself must be marked by processes of 'inherent sequentiality' (Mahoney, 2000).

The basic idea underlying inherent sequentiality is Abbott's notion that an "inherent logic of events" characterizes enchained sequences. Inherent sequentiality enables a

[6] With increasing returns, an institutional pattern, once adopted delivers increasing benefits with its continued adoption, and thus over time it becomes more and more difficult to transform the pattern or select previously available options, even if these alternative options would have been more "efficient." (Mahoney, 2020).

fine-grained analysis of the 'causal mechanisms'[7] that link initial conditions with final outcomes, and connect all temporally consecutive events in the sequence. In a reactive sequence, each intermediary event represents a causal mechanism that links an initial breakpoint with a final outcome. The final component of inherent sequentiality is a clear temporal ordering among events in a sequence. A step further, as proposed by historical sociologists, would be, as stated by Mahoney (2000), to perform narrative analysis, which portrays social phenomena as 'stories' that unfold in a clear chronological order. The chronological ordering of events in narrative is a key reason why reactive sequences appear to follow an inherent logic in which one event naturally leads to another.

Mahoney (2000) further explains that path dependence occurs when a contingent historical event triggers a subsequent sequence that follows a relatively deterministic pattern. In the case of a self-reinforcing sequence, the contingent period corresponds with the initial adoption of a particular institutional arrangement, while the deterministic pattern corresponds with the stable reproduction of this institution over time. By contrast, in the case of a reactive sequence, the contingent period corresponds with a key breakpoint in history, while the deterministic pattern corresponds with a series of reactions that logically follow from this breakpoint. Events in a path-dependent reactive sequence are often necessary or sufficient conditions for subsequent events.

Thus, to Goldstone (1998) 'Path dependence is a property of a system such that the outcome over a period of time is not determined by any particular set of initial conditions. Rather, a system that exhibits path dependency is one in which outcomes are related stochastically to initial conditions' (Goldstone, 1998: 853, as cited in Mahoney, 2000: 511).

It is important to acknowledge, as stated by Sarkis, Zhu, and Lai (2011), which, at the organisational level, path dependence has been well articulated for organisational change, as well as interorganisational change. Likewise, David (2007), argues that path dependence can explain processes of change and developmental sequences, since a dynamic process whose evolution is governed by its own history is path dependent. The conceptualization of path dependence as a branching process, implies to looking for critical bifurcations in the sequence of development, and for the factors that conditioned the actions taken at those historical junctures. In a branching process, the prevailing probabilities of transitions among states are functions of the sequence of past transient states that the system has visited (David, 2007: 5).

Since plausible claims can be generated through path-dependence logic, a sequence analysis was performed to ensure whether the current state of the institution and the

[7] 'Causal mechanisms' is seen by Mahoney (2000) as the intervening processes through which one variable exerts a causal effect on another variable (Mahoney, 2000: 531).

nature of interventions and/or initiatives implemented in the institutions were determined by the conditions resulted by the occurrence of the referred events.

2.1.3. Social Realism and Institutional Change: An epistemological assumption on knowledge production

Concerning the production of knowledge and considering the chosen method to gather information about change and development of a higher education institution, the understanding of the knowledge construction process and perceptions on change become relevant. Thus, whereas Social Realism Theory describes how the intended knowledge is constructed, Institutional Theory of Change instead explains the changing process within institutions answering what, how, who and why change occurs.

2.1.3.1 Social Realism

The joint reconstruction of the history of development of EMU from 1976 to 2016 by the relevant stakeholders implies understanding how they see, interpret, and make statements about the reality they have to judge, and assessing how they construct knowledge about an objective social reality, the reality the study aims to capture in order to establish institutional facts.[8] The facts that make up the development history of the institution can be categorised as social facts, as defined by Searle (1995, p. 26) to refer to any fact involving collective intentionality and typified as institutional facts.

According to Searle (1995), *social realism* is an ontological theory that explains how social reality is objectively constructed. Realism is defined as the view that the world exists independently of our representation of it, that is, independent of any statement, beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, etc. It means that reality exists outside of our system of representation and does not depend on intentionality in any form (Searle, 1995, pp. 153-154).

Social realism emphasises that there is a way that things are, which is logically independent of all human representations and is independent of how we represent how things are. When realism states that reality exists independently of consciousness and of other forms of representation, the claim is that reality is not logically constituted by representations, that there is no logical dependence (Searle, 1995).

Rational objectivity in knowledge is acknowledged as itself a fact, since subjects do actually have knowledge, but it is also recognised as a social phenomenon, something

[8] Facts that involve human institutions such as language and that depend on human agreement: a socially constructed reality (Searle, 1995, p. 2).

that subjects do in socio-historical context, and it is fallible rather than absolute or merely relative (Maton and Moore, 2000).

On the opposite side, stands the social constructivism perspective, which states that the social construction of something depends on contingent aspects of our social selves. It means that this thing could not have existed had we not built it, and we need not have built it at all, at least not in its present form (Boghossian, 2001)[9]. The author further explains his claim by arguing that had we been a different kind of society, had we had different needs, values, or interests, we might have built a different kind of thing, or built this society differently. The author's argument is based on the assumption that only a naturally existing object exists independently of us, and we did not have a hand in shaping it (Boghossian, 2001).

Realism can be understood as superseding constructivism. It signals a shift from viewing knowledge in terms of construction (we can construct the world as we see fit, free of the consequences of how the world will react back on that construction) towards a focus on its production within relatively autonomous fields of practice according to socially developed and applied procedures that may have both arbitrary and non-arbitrary bases.

Accordingly, social realism focuses on how knowledge is produced, and it is concerned with the sociality of knowledge in terms of how knowledge is created (social), emphasising that knowledge is more than simply produced, since its modalities held shape the world (realism), due to its objective nature (Maton and Moore, 2000).

A key aspect of the process of knowledge production and development is its sociality, the way in which people are related in that process, whether through direct engagement or indirectly through participation in a shared intellectual field (Maton and Moore, 2000).

The result of the stakeholders' involvement in evaluating is the production of knowledge claims, an objective knowledge about the development of EMU without anyone questioning their evaluation competencies: it is knowledge constructed on the basis of their collective memories and their experiences.

The sociology of knowledge states that history and experience inevitably enter into all forms of knowledge, whether or not it is produced by specialists within particular disciplinary traditions. Knowledge is seen as being social in the sense that it asserts that any claim to knowledge is premised on some idea of society. Therefore, as social interests shape the structuring of knowledge, social relations of power and interests are expressed in the organisation of knowledge. The process of embedding or giving

[9] http://paulboghossian.com/docs/Boghossian-Paul-socialconstruction1.pdf.

meaning to knowledge takes into consideration the wider social and historical contexts which shape particular communities (Young, 2008, p. 11).

In social realist perspective knowledge producing involves both relational structures of concepts and methods for relating these to the empirical world and actors positioned in institutions within specific social and historical contexts (Maton and Moore, 2000). Moreover, according to Maton and Moore (2000), knowledge involves more than social power, it also involves epistemic power.

However, there is criticism from Moore and Muller (1999) vis-à-vis the perspectives that invoke experience as being the foundation of all knowledge, and therefore the basis for claiming that all knowledge or truth claims are equal, whatever their origin: common sense, folk tradition, laboratory-based scientific research, or systematic disciplinary knowledge. This is the case of voice discourse approaches, which do not distinguish knowledge from experience and confer equal validity to the perspectives of all groups, arguing that knowledge that can, in some objective sense, be independent of the social position of the knower is untenable (Moore & Muller, 1999, as cited in Young, 2008, p. 9).

Moore (2000:3) claims that knowledge is socially produced, but at the same time has the capacity to transcend the social conditions under which it is produced. This is to say that knowledge is both social and has emergent properties that transcend and react back on social contexts and practices.

Having said that, PADev, as a data production method, proposes following in the opposite direction, away from a 'voice' or discourse perspective. PADev is based on the 'social realist' idea that people can (collectively) know about their experiences with social reality and can share those insights with others, although always as a self-perceived phenomenon.

In this context, stakeholders' participation in the evaluation process is taken into perspective, and PADev as a participatory approach to evaluation is employed in this study. The PADev approach is placed within the frame of participatory-evaluation-research design and theory, in which the study is grounded.

2.1.3.2. Institutional Theory of Change

The current study intends, amongst others, to understand why and how change took place in the institution, and what sources or forces influenced and affected the change process, regardless the direction of the change. That is, whether it was desired change or not. Different aspects are taken into consideration in the attempt to understand

change at EMU, which includes the conditions for change, the nature and the focus of change.

Since the study focuses on perceiving change that took place at an institutional level, it becomes relevant to point out some notions of institution. Whereas Bush (1987) defines an institution as 'a set of socially prescribed patterns of correlated behaviour' (p. 1076), institutionalists argue that all human behaviour within a community is ultimately subject to social prescriptions or proscriptions, particularly all problem-solving (purposive) behaviour, since these are perceived to be vital to the survival of the community.

North (1990: 3) defines institutions as '… the rules of the game in a society, or more formally (…) the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction' (North, 1990, p. 3, as cited in Kingston & Caballero, 2009). Thus, institutions provide a structure to everyday life and include both formal rules such as laws and constitutions, and informal constraints such as conventions and norms (Kingston & Caballero, 2008).

Both notions complement each other as each address institutions as typified behaviour and standardised human interaction developed and structured socially, and subject to some constraints. In social systems this typifies behaviour and standardised interactions are present in different domains of social life, such as economic, political, and social domains, that form a set of interrelated institutions.

According to Elsner (2021), Bush's theoretical scheme of institutional forms and dynamics, developed in the 1980s, had a great impact on institutionalist thinking on the process and variants of institutional change (Elsner, 2021). For Bush (1987), the theory of institutional change must begin with a theoretical formulation of the institutional structure, as the society determines the character of the institutional structure based on the significance of their value system. Moreover, institutional change is seen by Campbell as a fundamental force of social change (Campbell, 2004: 1, as cited in Tang, 2012).

Concerning the higher education setting, Kezar (2001) introduces six higher education models of change, based on an extensive review of research on change conducted within higher education, namely evolutionary, teleological, life cycle, dialectical, social cognition, and cultural. The main assumption underlying the first model, the evolutionary approach towards change, is that change is a response to external circumstances, situational variables, and the environment faced by each organisation. For the second, the teleological theory, also called planned change models, change tends to be rational and linear and it occurs whenever leaders, change agents, and others see the necessity of change. The third, the life-cycle model, conceptualizes change as a natural part of human or organisational development, which includes stages of growth, organisational maturity, and organisational decline. The fourth model, the dialectical

model, also known as political model, envisions change as the result of clashing ideologies or belief systems. Change processes quite often involve bargaining, consciousness-raising, persuasion, influence, and power, and social movement. The fifth, the social cognition model, describes change as being tied to learning and mental processes such as sense making and mental models. Thus, change occurs because individuals see the need to grow, learn, and change their behaviour. According to the sixth model, the cultural model, change tends to be long-term and slow as it occurs naturally as a response to alterations in the human environment. That is, change is more likely to entail alteration of values, beliefs, myths, and rituals (Morgan, 1986; Carnall, 1995; Carret et al., 1996l Levy and Merry, 1986; Bolman and Deal, 1991; Schein, 1985 as cited in Kezar, 2001). Amongst those, Kezar states that within higher education, changes are more likely to be explained through political, social cognition and cultural models. Whereas the political processes such as persuasion, informal negotiation, mediation, and coalition-building are seen as powerful strategies for creating change; through social cognition models the importance of altering mental models, learning, constructed interaction, and other processes for creating change are highlighted. The cultural models focus on the importance of symbolism, history and traditions, and institutional culture for facilitating change on campus (Conrad, 1978; Hearn, 1996; Eckel and Kezar, n.d.; Weick, 1995; Cohen and Maech, 1974, as cited in Kezar, 2001).

In an attempt to provide responses to the why, what, how and the target of change, Kezar (2001) argued that change can be characterised on the basis of forces or sources (external environment and internal environment), degree (first-order change: organisational development; second-order change: organisational transformation), timing (revolutionary, evolutionary), scale (individual, interpersonal and organisational level), focus (structure, process and attitude), responsiveness (adaptative, generative), intentionality (planned, unplanned), response time (proactive, reactive), involvement (active, static), and target (process, outcome). Each of these characteristics falls into a particular model of explaining changes, and they were further used as analytical categories to discuss PADev data concerning the characteristics of change that took place at EMU.

Regarding the forces and sources of change, Kezar (2001) states that both the interaction between the external environment and an organisation, as well as the internal sources that include gathering of surplus resources, readiness and willingness of a dominant coalition to endure change and transformational leadership are the major impetus for change. The author argued that whereas the planned change results from external factors, the impetus for the change is often internal (Kezar, 2001, p. 15).

Concerning the degree of change, the author differentiates first-order-change from second-order-change. The first involves minor adjustments in one or a few dimensions of the organisation at individual or group level. The latter entails change in the

organisations', underlying values or mission, culture, functioning processes, and structure, which is multidimensional, and multilevel as it affects individuals, groups and the overall institution. Whereas the fist-order-change leads towards organisational development, the second-order-change leads to organisational transformation and a paradigmatic shift towards the institution's philosophy, beliefs, values, structures, policies, and operations. The description of the second-order change also portrays both revolutionary and evolutionary change, if one considers the timing of change. The author stated that both revolutionary and evolutionary change affects the organisation's mission, culture and structure. However, whereas revolutionary change is sudden and drastic, evolutionary changes are long-term, natural, and alterations of the mission happens over time, newcomers influence culture change, and structure change with the retention of new people (Kezar, 2001).

Following the discussion about the categories of change, the Kezar referred to practices and processes as the indication of whether the change is at an individual, interpersonal or organisational level of scale (from the classification by Goodman; 1982). Individual change might include technology integration into the learning process. Interpersonal dynamics change as long as colleagues, departmental chairs and individual faculty member participate in the process. Institution's mission change might affect all three levels, individual, interpersonal and organisational scale (Goodman, 1982, as cited in Kezar, 2001).

Changes in structure can include the organisational chart, the reward system, or institutional policies and procedures. In terms of responsiveness, Kezar (2001) distinguishes adaptive from generative change, arguing that adaptive change is usually a one-time response to the external environment, cyclical, responding to new forecasts, and generative change is ongoing and is reflected within the learning organisational model. Concerning intentionality (planned or managed), change refers to modifications that are deliberately shaped by organisation members. Planned change is the conscious decision to change, marked by the intentionality and deliberateness of process, involvement of internal and external expertise, and strategy of collaboration. Unplanned change happens ad hoc and can increase adaptability (Kezar, 2001).

Change is proactive, when happening before a crisis and facilitated by a generative environment with ongoing learning; or reactive when happening after a crisis. Both proactive and reactive kinds of change can sometimes be active or static change according to the extent of change agents involved, that is, the number of participants implementing the change. Active change requires many of the organisational participants to be involved, while static change can be implemented by one or a few individuals. Considering the target, change can be a process, as referring to the way in which change happens, or an outcome which can be intended or unintended, including

a new structure, process, mission, rituals, and individual beliefs, culture, and benefits (Kezar, 2001).

Kezar's categorisation portrays different characterisations of the process of change that can be useful to describe the changing process of a higher education institution such as EMU and can be used to find out how the total set of interventions played a role in causing changes.

2.1.4. PADev Analytical Model

The PADev model shows the relationships between the concepts that were taken to sustain the analysis in addressing the research question and sub-questions. For better understanding of how beneficiaries are incorporated in the process of generating co-constructed knowledge about the social reality, some concepts from the social realism and institutional theory perspective were incorporated. Thus, the main concepts integrated in the model are the following: holistic, local context, participation, and development interventions. Other related concepts are connected (See figure 4).

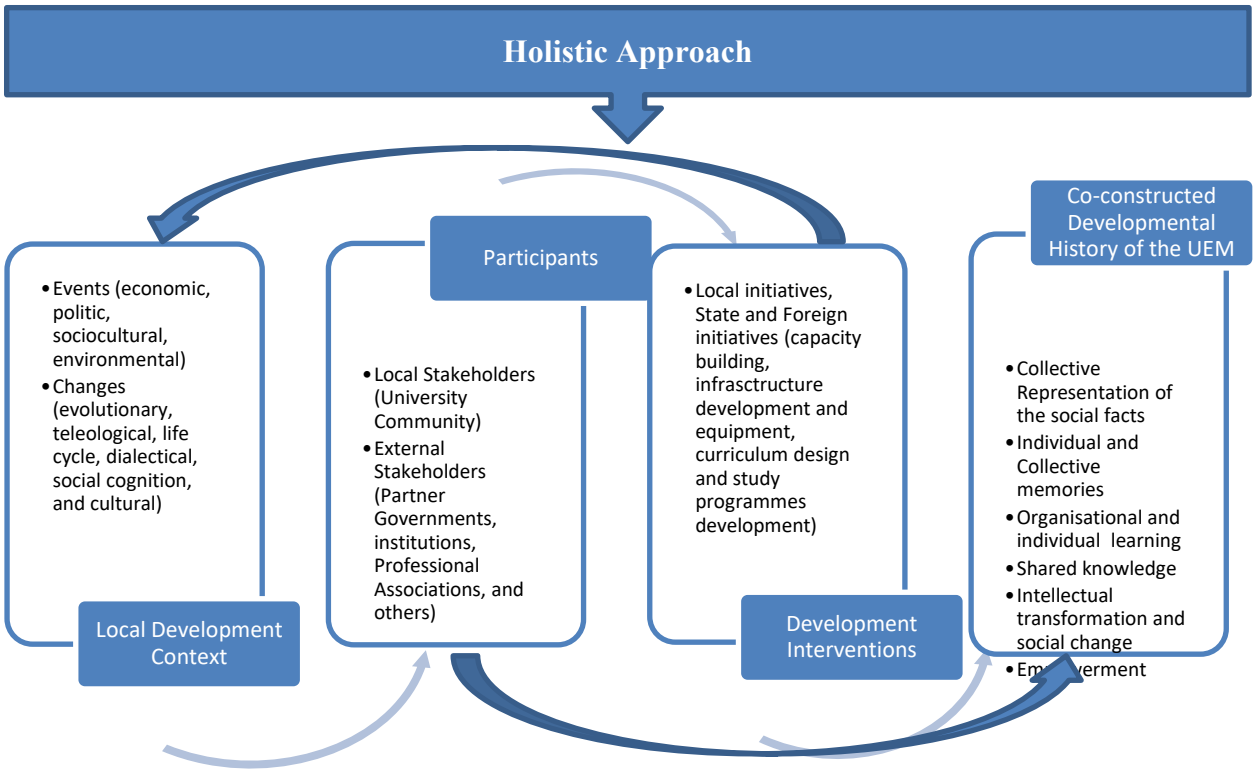

Figure 4: PADev Analytical Model

Holistic

The PADev methodology encompasses a holistic view towards development. 'Holistic' refers to an approach of thinking about development in its broader sense, providing a 'big picture' of development, allowing to see the contributions of different development initiatives in the context of wider societal change.

A holistic approach in PADev means that development interventions are assessed in relation to the changes that have occurred in the community and the structures and processes that drive development, taking into account the various domains of the functioning of the institution.

Local context

In PADev, the development context is established by collecting information from participants on the 'events' and 'changes' that have occurred in the local context, which can be a community, and, in the case of this study, an educational institution. Context is important because of the two-way relationship it has on stakeholders who are affected by events and changes in their institution on the one hand, and stakeholders may also act in ways that cause events or bring about changes, on the other hand.

Participants/Participation

Participants include a wide range of people from all relevant categories of the local population, chosen for a variety of purposes, and it includes university community members, local education authorities, donors, development and funding agencies, professional organisations and associations, and partner institutions. In practice, this means sampling participants in a way that does justice to the demographic, socio-cultural and socio-economic composition of the community and ensures diversity within the participating stakeholders. Diversity in experience and perspective on development is required in order to build a holistic understanding of change and development in a given setting and period.

In the centre of PADev's conceptual scheme, are the workshop participants (local stakeholders) who are sampled according to (i) gender, (ii) occupational category, (iii) function (lecturer, researcher, and CTA), and (iv) contractual regime (full-time and part-time) attributes. Other external stakeholders were sampled based on partnership criteria. This enabled the analysis of participants' responses, involvement and commitment in relation to these attributes.

The study units, which include academic, research and administrative units, were sampled using the following criteria: (i) period of existence, (ii) the relevance of their study field, and (iii) the volume of external support received.

Participation in PADev means equally active involvement by all participants at least in workshop sessions, therefore it uses so-called 'stick and stone' methods to enhance participation and avoid undermining the voice of some participants' against the views of dominant individuals. It is also used to generate in-depth discussions and promote engagement among participants.

Development interventions

Development interventions are the range of initiatives that benefited the community members in a given setting, which can also impact on the local context, therefore subjected to beneficiaries' assessment.

2.2. Participatory Evaluation Approaches

Participatory evaluation approaches can be distinguished by taking into account their goals and their forms or processes. A simple distinction is made by Chouinard (2013) by comparing technocratic approaches with participatory or collaborative approaches. According to the author, whereas participatory or collaborative approaches to evaluation are more sensitive and responsive to community needs, the accountability-driven technocratic approaches do not. The accountability-driven technocratic approaches to evaluation can be seen as a neutral instrument providing impartial, evidence-based, and objective information intended primarily to satisfy accountability requirements. Thus, this approach falls short of capturing the range of local views, contextualised meanings, and culturally relevant perspectives that participatory and collaborative approaches to evaluation are intended to capture. Playing an instrumental role, accountability-driven technocratic approaches serve as management tools designed for accountability and decision-making purposes. Participatory evaluation demands a new perspective towards evaluation where the interaction between the social actors results in knowledge construction. In terms of utility, participatory approaches to evaluation are designed to address diverse programmes and organisational needs across a broad range of local, programme, and cultural contexts, with various purposes that include local ownership, empowerment, use of findings, organisational and individual learning, and programme improvement (Cousins & Chouinard, 2012, as cited in Chouinard, 2013, p. 238).

Concerning stakeholder involvement, Fetterman and colleagues (2014) differentiate participatory evaluation between collaborative evaluation and empowerment evaluation by discussing the role of the evaluator. Collaborative evaluators are in control of the evaluation despite the involvement of the stakeholders that strengthens

the evaluation designs, enhances data collection and analysis, and results in better stakeholders understanding and usefulness of the results of their involvement. Collaborative evaluation not only enables an evaluator's consultation with the client but also a full-scale collaboration with specific stakeholders in all phases of the evaluation (Rodrígues-Campos & O'Sullivan, 2010, as cited in Fetterman et al., 2014, p. 145). A next step can be that participatory evaluators gradually share control of the evaluation with the programme staff members and programme participants by having them participate in the evaluator's agenda or involving them in the design and implementation of the evaluation – defining the evaluation, developing instruments, collecting and analysing data, reporting and disseminating results (Shulha, 2010, as cited in Fetterman et al., 2014, p.145). One step further, empowerment evaluators give control of the evaluation to programme staff members, programme participants, and community members, but they are criticising and/or coaching them to keep the evaluation process on track, rigorous, responsive, and relevant (Fetterman & Wandersman, 2010, as cited in Fetterman et al., 2014, p.145).

Chouinard (2013) suggests that participatory and collaborative approaches to evaluation are more inclusive and sensitive to local contexts than instrumental approaches. However, very often the stakeholder involvement approach is reduced to a stakeholder-based evaluation approach that gives the evaluator control of the evaluation, and often stakeholders' participation is limited (Bryk, 1983; and Mark & Shotland, 1985, as cited in Fetterman et al., 2014, p.146).

From the perspective of Garaway (1995), participatory evaluation finds itself differentiated from other approaches to evaluation more in their process than in their products. Intended as a tool of transformation, the potential of participatory evaluation stems from its democratic base: it requires a sharing of power and stimulates a strengthening of the analytical capabilities of all participating stakeholders. It encourages mutual understanding and appreciation of different perspectives that in turn can be the precursor for both intellectual transformation and social action (Mathie & Greene, 1997, p. 279).

Participatory evaluation becomes a team effort that includes the variety of strengths within the participants' pool. The evaluation performed by a team differs from traditional formats of action-research where the researcher maintains the control over the research process (Whyte, 1991, as cited in Garaway, 1995). The researcher acts like a moderator or facilitator in the research process and shares the control and involvement in all phases of the research. Moreover, it is expected that the facilitator will become a learner, arbitrator, and teacher, developing local skills and promoting an interactive learning environment. Furthermore, there is an understanding that the participatory evaluation approach enhances knowledge construction, and shared knowledge

improves its utilisation, empowers participants, and thus makes the evaluation process and development interventions more relevant for the community (Garaway, 1995).

Whyte (1991) places the earlier expression of participatory evaluation in participatory action research (PAR) and defines this approach as a form of applied research, where the researcher becomes a facilitator in helping those being studied to become actively engaged in the quest for information and ideas to guide future efforts (Whyte, 1991, as cited in Garaway, 1995, p.86). Quite often, this approach is used for the purposes of inclusion, social justice, and equality of participants in the research (Zuber-Skerritt, 2015).

In the large family of action research, there is also another approach: participatory action learning and action research (PALAR), conceived as a philosophy, a methodology, a theory of learning, and as a facilitation process for community engagement. It appears as a holistic, integrative concept that incorporates related concepts (action learning, action research, participatory action research, and lifelong learning) and values such elements as participation, collaboration, communication, community of practice, networking, and synergy. The epistemological assumption behind PALAR is that practitioners can also create knowledge on the basis of concrete experience by critically reflecting on this experience, formulating abstract generalisations from it, and testing these newly created concepts in new situations – thus gaining new concrete experience, and continuing the next cycle of experiential learning and knowledge creation (Zuber-Skerritt, 2015).

Despite its potential concerning the involvement of the stakeholders in the evaluation process, there is an understanding that participatory evaluation raises questions of credibility and bias addressed via the process of conceptual analysis and explication of world views, since it highlights the importance of all involved evaluators (all participants involved in the evaluation process) making their own personal world views, values, and beliefs explicit. Usually, evaluation is a process carried out by an external judge, an 'objective' observer/data gatherer, where objectivity is intended to guard against bias and to preserve the validity of the findings. Participants are potentially good judges because they alone experience the full impact of a programme. It is through the 'experiencing' that they have a knowing, a knowing that observation and testing cannot attain (Garaway, 1995).

Smits and Champagne (2008) provide a categorisation of participatory evaluation made by researchers, based on evaluation's ultimate goals, in an attempt to show its applicability. Once the main goal is to create social justice for minority groups divested of their rights, it is called *capacity evaluation* (Fetterman, Kaftarian, & Wandersman, 1996, in Smits & Champagne, 2008). When the participatory process aims to improve the use of the evaluation results through the involvement of the addressees, it is called

practical participatory assessment – PPA (Brisolara, 1998, and Cousins & Whitmore, 1998, in Smits & Champagne, 2008). When the objective is to construct the trajectory of development and change in a specific area over time it is designated *participatory assessment of development* – PADev (Dietz et al., p. 2011).

2.3. Placing PADev amongst the Existing Development Assessment Approaches

This section discusses the empirical foundations of the PADev approach to verify its effectiveness, pointing out its strengths and weaknesses. A comparative perspective was adopted in order to position PADev and other existing development assessment approaches.

Pouw and colleagues (2016, pp. 2-3) argue that, since the 1980s, participatory approaches to evaluate development have gained prominence and are being recognised for bringing in stakeholders' knowledge, cultural values, and experiences. In this context, the participatory assessment of development (PADev) approach is regarded as a participatory, bottom-up, and holistic approach to development impact assessment as it assigns critical value to local people's knowledge, experiences, and cultural-ethical values while expressing their assessment of development and change.

PADev is compared with other existing development impact evaluation approaches in terms of design, method, project/programme objectives, or process orientation (Pouw et al., 2016), whether it is a programme or project, or organisation specific. According to Dietz (2012), programme or project evaluations focus on the effectiveness of the intervention based on the interventions' outcomes or on the efficiency or sustainability of the intervention's implementation. The project evaluations mostly do not take into account the wider developments in the region. During many project evaluation processes, the relevance of the interventions to the target group's needs or development priorities are scarcely addressed, that is, the opinions of the supposed beneficiaries are largely neglected (Dietz, 2012; Dietz et al., 2013, p. 3).

Moreover, other methods of participatory evaluation, such as democratic evaluation, empowerment evaluation, or collaborative action research, often focus on a short period, are often donor or sponsor-driven, and are narrowly focused on input and output, and not enough on long-term impact (Dietz et al., 2013, p. 3).

Duflo and Banerjee (2011), for instance, argued that most evaluations are performed to trace the cost-effectiveness of development-project-specific intended impacts. Therefore, the evaluations reflect the perspective of the intervening agency, the donor or back donor, and follow the causal chain downward to find effects at beneficiary (or recipient) level (Duflo & Banerjee, 2011, as cited in Pouw et al., 2016).

PADev, instead, approaches the causal chain from the bottom-up, as it assigns different groups of stakeholders the task of identifying the projects and interventions they are able to recall or have knowledge about, and relies on multiple data sources. Doing so,

it creates more room for including social-cultural values, criteria, and a sense of shared ownership and responsibility (Dietz, 2012; Easton, 2012, as cited in Pouw et al., 2016).

PADev's main feature is the holistic and participatory perspective which is built into the methodology, concepts, and evaluation criteria (Dietz, 2012, as cited in Pouw et al., 2016). Pouw and colleague's (2016) description of PADev also places the approach within the synthesis design:

PADev fits closest to the participatory category as main design, but can be seen as a specific variant because it is holistic (multiple interventions are considered), historical (going back in time at least one generation), while blending in elements of a normative design (focus on effects on the poorest of the poor) and elements of agency design (collaborative action research). Validation takes place by the workshop participants if and how their actions and perceived or experienced effects, on themselves and others, are caused by the project or intervention under discussion. (…) PADev also contains elements of a synthesis design. On the basis of PADev modules on historical events and changes (…), meta and narrative analysis is conducted of the history of development initiatives in the community and an assessment of development agencies in the community (Pouw et al., 2016, p. 5).

According to the authors, the starting point of PADev is the stakeholders' living memory from which a collective history is built. The historical information on development is gathered in a systematic way and the discussions on why things happened lead to a comprehensive and collectively shared understanding of the current situation and of the roles played by the development interventions. Pouw and colleagues (2016) also argue that an intersubjective assessment of development reaffirms the human being as a social being who relates to others and its environment.

From the citation, it is suggested that PADev offers not just a better approach but that it also provides analytical and methodological categories that help address the shortcomings of other development impact evaluation approaches. PADev is described as a flexible approach that combines features of different design approaches which offer a holistic perspective on the development history of the region, community, or organisation.

Employed in education institutions, PADev can be an alternative to a short-term, expert-driven, donor-oriented approach to evaluation, and provide an inner perspective and better insight on development. It also provides a powerful perspective for the improvement of educational organisations by creating learning systems that reinforce organisational learning and, therefore, leading to better informed decisions (Cousins & Earl, 1995, p. 11).

2.4. Comparing PADev and Other Participatory Approaches to Assessment

This section compares the different methods, presenting in Table 1 below a description of participatory and collaborative evaluation approaches, and collaborative inquiry. The table shows commonalities and differences amongst the approaches in terms of use, objective, and control of the evaluation process. The approaches vary from research-controlled to practitioner-controlled, stakeholder selection ranging from primary users to all legitimate groups, and depth of participation that includes either mere consultation or deep participation.

Table 1: Comparing Participatory Assessment Approaches

Design approach	Specific variants	Utilisation	Objective	Control of the evaluation process	Stakeholder selection	Depth of participation
Participatory Evaluation	Practical Participatory Assessment (P-PA)	It supports organisational and programme decision-making and problem solving without commitment to effecting social change.	To empower participants and create data from the practitioners' perspectives.	Balanced: Both evaluators and participants are partners in the evaluation process.	Focus on primary users: programme sponsors, managers, developers, and implementers.	Extensive participation in all phases of the evaluation
	Transformative Participatory Evaluation (T-PA)	It is committed to democratising social change, to empower people through participation in the process of constructing and respecting their own knowledge.	To create data from the practitioners' perspectives. Aim to empower, emancipate and promote social justice.	Balanced: Partnership but participants control decision-making.	Focus on all legitimate groups, especially programme or project beneficiaries.	Extensive participation in all phases of the evaluation.
	Participatory Assessment of Development (PADev)	It is designed to get a bottom-up assessment of development and change in a particular area over a period of time based on the value system of the population with focus on the poorest of the poor.	To add both context and depth by building up a big picture of development and change in an area over time.	Balanced: Partnership but workshop facilitator controls decision-making.	All legitimate groups: The intended beneficiaries of multiple development interventions	Extensive participation of all relevant category of the local population in all phases of the evaluation.
Other Forms of Collaborative Evaluation	Collaborative Action Research	It engages local actors to reflect, investigate, take action, interpret and change with the technical support of researchers.	To promote personal, professional development and improved practice.	Balanced: Evaluator and collaboration members work in partnership.	Focus on primary users: Local and nearby stakeholders.	Extensive participation in all phases of the evaluation, particularly in identifying programme issues.
	Democratic Evaluation	It legitimates the use of evaluation in pluralistic society.	To stimulate programme improvement and evaluation utilisation.	Balanced: Evaluator and participants are partners in work and decisions.	Primary users: mostly programme developers and implementers.	Substantial participation. Ongoing involvement and participation.

	Stakeholder-based Evaluation	It advocates the involvement of a wide range of stakeholders in limited evaluation tasks such as assisting in scoping out the evaluation and in interpreting findings.	To emphasise the political aspects of evaluation (evaluation utilisation).	Evaluator: Evaluator coordinates activities and technical aspects of evaluation.	All legitimate groups: representation is key to offset all effects of programme politics.	Limited participation since stakeholders are consulted for planning and interpretation.
	School-based Evaluation	It enables staff training and support from external facilitator.	To support programme decision-making and problem-solving.	Balanced: Evaluator trains school-based personnel who do their own inquiry.	Primary users: School-based personnel, mostly programme implementers.	Extensive participation in all phases of the evaluation.
	Developmental Evaluation	It is designed for programme development and the process is the outcome, as the evaluator moves beyond evaluation responsibilities.	To improve programme, and evaluation and utilisation.	Balanced: Evaluator and participants work in partnership.	Primary users: Mostly programme developers and implementers.	Substantial participation. Ongoing involvement and participation.
	Empowerment Evaluation	It is designed to teach people to do their own evaluations and thus become more self-sufficient.	To facilitate empowerment, and illumination and self-determination. Through facilitation, training and advocacy, evaluators foster illumination and liberation of programme participants.	Participants have almost complete control, facilitated by evaluator.	Primary users: Usually key programme personnel, sometimes wider groups included.	Extensive participation in all phases of evaluation.
Other Forms of Collaborative Inquiry	Participatory Action Research (PAR)	It involves all relevant parties in actively examining together current action (which they experience as problematic) in order to change and improve it.	Inform and improve practice while advancing scientific knowledge.	Researchers and practitioner are co-participants in research.	Primary users: programme implementers, beneficiaries, and others.	Extensive participation in all aspects of research.
	Participatory Action Learning and Action	It is a conceptual integration of lifelong action learning and participatory action.	To facilitate process for community engagement aiming at positive social	Balanced: Researcher and practitioner are co-participants in research	Primary users: programme implementers, beneficiaries, and others.	Extensive participation in all aspects of the research.

	Research (PALAR)		change for a just and better world.			
	Emancipatory (Participatory) Action Research	It is designed to empower, emancipate, and ameliorate social conditions.	To advocate social change through enlightenment and action resulting from a process of deliberation and symmetrical communication.	Practitioner: researcher maintains exclusive control as resource person.	Unspecified: disenfranchised or marginalised stakeholders.	Extensive participation in all aspects of the research.
	Cooperative Inquiry	It is designed to root propositional research knowledge about people in their experimental and practical knowledge.	To engender social change.	Practitioner: Participants are both co-researchers and co-subjects with full reciprocity.	Unspecified: Most often participants are members of an inquiry group with all of the problems of inclusion, influence, and intimacy.	Extensive participation in all aspects of the research.

Source: Adapted from Butterfoss, Franscisco, & Capwell (2001), Dietz et al. (2013), Pouw et al. (2016), Zuber-Skerritt (2015), Cullen &Coryn, 2011.

The differences and commonalities between the participatory assessment approaches can be discussed, taking into account the control of the evaluation process amongst the evaluator and the participants; the selection of the stakeholders, whether all legitimate groups or primary user are included in the evaluation process; and the depth of participation of the study subjects.

Amongst the participatory evaluation approaches (Practical Participatory Assessment, Transformative Participatory Evaluation, and Participatory Assessment of Development), the control of the evaluation process is balanced between the researcher (that can be an evaluator or facilitator, depending on the objective of the approach) and the evaluation's participants. This balance is different when analysing particular forms of collaborative evaluation and inquiry, specifically, Stakeholder-based Evaluation, Empowerment Evaluation, Emancipatory (Participatory) Action Research, and Cooperative Inquiry.

In regard to the stakeholder selection, the dominant trend is the focus on the primary user, which includes programme personnel (specifically, sponsors, developers, managers, and implementers), and local and nearby stakeholders. Few approaches tend to include all legitimate groups, that is, all relevant categories of the local population (Dietz et al., 2013), thus ensuring full representation of the beneficiaries of the programmes and projects. That is the case of Transformative Participatory Evaluation, Participatory Assessment of Development, and Stakeholder-based Evaluation.

As for stakeholders' participation in the evaluation, nearly all the approaches presented in the table value extensive participation of the evaluated, in all phases of the evaluation process that may include planning, implementation, and interpretation. Substantial and limited participation characterises democratic evaluation and developmental evaluation on the one hand, and Stakeholder-based Evaluation, on the other hand, respectively.

2.5. Historical Development of Higher Education in Africa: A special focus on Mozambique

This subchapter discusses briefly the historical context in which higher education developed in Africa. The trends in Mozambican context were outlined in this section, placing Eduardo Mondlane University in perspective.

2.5.1. Higher Education in Africa

This section provides a historical institutional overview of the development of higher education in Africa.

The broad literature on higher education (Johnstone, 1998; Fehnel, 2003; Cloete, 2006; Kogan, Bauer, Bleiklie & Henkel, 2006; Assiè-Lumumba, 2006; Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2006; Kyvik, 2009, Bitzer, 2009; Allen &Van der Velden, 2011; Massen, Moen & Stensaker, 2011; and Musselin & Teixeira, 2014) indicates that in the 1990s higher education was subjected to close attention and reflection. Its importance, functioning, benefits, and vital relationship with economic growth and social development was elucidated, particularly in developing countries. The key role to be played by higher education has been continuously emphasised by world organisations and institutions (UNESCO, 1998; The World Bank, 2000; The World Bank, 2006). In the late 20th Century, thinking on higher education revolved around the reform of the higher education system and institutions set by international agencies. As a result, institutional autonomy and change and transformation in higher education became topics that have dominated the debate ever since.

The idea of higher education as a key factor to enhance social and economic growth is consensual, despite the late recognition of its potentiality. Before the mid-1990s, educational developments in developing countries were mainly directed to primary and secondary education, aiming to expand its access (The World Bank, 2000). For several years, donor institutions neglected the role of tertiary education, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, as the international community did not consider its benefit as improving economic growth and having a positive impact on poverty reduction. The World Bank, for example, reduced the worldwide education-sector spending on higher education from 17% (1985 to 1989) to 7% (1995 to 1999) (Bloom, Canning & Chan, 2006). That explains the relatively insignificant investment made in higher education until 2000. Nevertheless, empirical evidence has shown higher education's viability and ability to change and to induce change and progress in society over the centuries (UNESCO, 1998, p. 1).

Society has rapidly become knowledge-based in such a way that higher learning and research have become essential components of the cultural, socioeconomic, and environmentally sustainable development of individuals, communities, and nations (UNESCO, 1998, p. 1). A UNESCO statement praises the role of higher education and research in promoting intellectual work and expanding human knowledge, as well as in the transfer of technological innovation and extension activities that transform societies.

According to Teferra and Altbach (2004), around 2000, higher education starts to be seen as a key force for modernisation and development and an important driver of the 'knowledge era'. Thus, it was recognised that African development would henceforward be relying on a strong post-secondary sector, and academic institutions were recognised by national governments and international agencies as key sectors in society.

Consumers, governments, and students find it important to have a stronger higher education system and broader higher education institutions to meet the demand of the local population. African countries have indeed increased their higher education systems tremendously since 2000. Access to higher education was no longer mainly restricted to a country's elite (The World Bank, 2000).

Governments around the world were concerned with building a stronger higher education system and ensuring that higher education institutions offered high-quality education. By offering quality education, these institutions are more likely to produce a qualified, highly skilled, and well-prepared workforce to fulfil labour market needs and contribute to the socioeconomic growth of nations. In this regard, the expectation is that the higher education system should perform with efficacy and efficiency without losing autonomy, flexibility, and responsibility (United Nations University – UNU, 2009).

Concerning the relevance of universities in Africa, Aina (2010) stated that: *'Yet, the university in Africa and higher education in general remain, a significant part of the overall social, economic, and cultural constitution of societies and nations. Higher education contributes to the formation and deployment of human capital, the cultural and social construction of values and meaning, and the capacity for individual and collective emancipation from ignorance and domination. Higher education further contributes to how the energies and products of science, technology, and the improvement of material conditions are mobilised for the well-being of individuals and groups. It provides people with the tools and capacities for their collective and individual self-definition and empowerment, and for interpreting their relationships to themselves, to others, and to nature and their material and other environments. It provides the platform for the advanced study, dissemination, and utilisation of knowledge and its products for the benefit of society and its constituents'* (23).

Aina's quote describes clearly the meaning and impact of universities in the various domains of African societies and citizens, as it constitutes a factor for peoples' emancipation, autonomy, and empowerment, while providing and disseminating knowledge.

African governments' expectations are that higher education institutions (HEIs) will perform additional tasks beyond teaching tertiary-level students. The additional tasks include (i) ensuring equity of access, (ii) enhancing and promoting women's participation, (iii) advancing knowledge through scientific research, (iv) having a long-term orientation based on societal relevance, (v) strengthening cooperation with the labour market and analysing and anticipating societal needs, (vi) diversifying for enhanced equity of opportunity, (vii) embracing innovative educational approaches

such as critical thinking and creativity, and (viii) promoting staff development (UNESCO, 1998).

The expectations concerning higher education institutions not only affect their entire structure but also demand a clear vision of the society's future needs. Each of these aspects challenges HEIs to think strategically and change in many ways, which thus makes it relevant to discuss the development of African universities to see how they have evolved.

2.5.2. The Development of African Universities

This section provides a brief description of the early developments of universities in Africa. This development is described in terms of expansion, management and governance, and financing,

The analysis of the impact of the colonial past and the continuing impact of the former colonial powers on African universities becomes relevant to understanding some current features and issues challenging African universities. Thus, the awareness of the global issues around knowledge production, the universal character of knowledge and universities, and the need to internationalise local curricula compel African universities to acknowledge their colonial origins and simultaneously remain open to the world (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013, p.39).

It is argued that legacies from the pre-Independence period shaped the structure and substance of African universities in their initial phase of development (Saint, 1992). The overall characteristic of colonial legacy (mainly anglophone, francophone, and lusophone) in African universities include, amongst others: (i) separation and alienation from the rural majority, particularly in the anglophone countries, reflecting the ivory tower nature of the colonial institutions; (ii) an overemphasis on the arts and humanities, with little attention given to the sciences, technology, economics, and other professional subjects; (iii) research not related to the needs of the majority; and (iv) limited access to higher education, since the universities were geared towards serving the elite, although in francophone countries, for instance, university access was offered to all students who successfully completed the secondary school baccalaureate examination (Ajayi et al., 1996; Akin Aina, 1994; and Saint, 1992, as cited in Ng'ethe et al., 2003).

Overall, the characteristics pointed out above clearly denote the discriminatory and elitist nature of colonial education. Beverwijk (2005, p. 102), who stated that university access was very much based on social and economic capital, which most African families did not possess, highlighted this idea of limited access to HEIs.

Concerning university access, in lusophone countries, for instance (Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, and São Tomé and Principe), Langa (2013) pointed out the discrepancy between the colonial discourse towards the education of the locals and the actual implementation of this discourse. Furthermore, the foundations on which Portuguese education was built prevented most Africans from succeeding in reaching university level.

There is a common vision that contemporary African universities have maintained a continued dependence on the European higher education paradigm (Ng'ethe et al., 2003), which includes the adoption of the Western model of organisational and academic structure, course content, teaching and learning methodologies, and credit transfer systems (Amonoo-Neizer, 1998; Teferra & Altbach, 2004; and Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013).

Once most sub-Saharan African countries became independent from the colonial powers, the existing local universities were urged to change. The countries' new political situation and development aspirations in the new post-Independence era justified the universities' new role and their need to change in order to address socioeconomic development needs. Amonoo-Neizer (1998, p. 301) pointed out that African universities experienced a process of adaptation that incorporated the social structure of the countries in which they were implanted, moving away from their European heritage.

In that regard, Ajayi and colleagues (1996, p. 95) stated that the 'newly established independent governments made their impact felt in asserting their sovereign rights to own and to control their universities' (Ajayi et al., 1996, p. 95, as cited in Ng'ethe et al., 2003, p. 10). Following the orientation towards nation-building and national development in the Independence era, and despite diverse and adverse situations, university reform assumed common features in different countries. Those features included: (i) curriculum innovations through the introduction of vocational and professional educational programmes, new study subjects, and introduction of 'African culture' and 'indigenous knowledge' in the study of humanities, medicine, technology, and architecture; (ii) wider access, which increased student enrolment; and (iii) the establishment of new universities, new national universities' campuses, and specialised universities (Ajayi et al., 1996, pp. 74, 95; and Akin Aina, 1994, pp. 10-11, as cited in Ng'ethe et al., 2003, p. 10). Accordingly, Ng'ethe and colleagues (2003) stated that the concept of the 'developmental university' emerged in African states.

2.5.2.1. Expansion

The changes in African education policies subsequent to the various countries' Independence, led to the nationalisation and expansion of local higher education

systems with the emergence of multiple national higher education institutions. The main feature of the emerging HEIs was that institutions were different in type, with diversified curricula that incorporated national content and interests (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013, p. 39).

According to Teferra and Altbach (2004, p. 22), by 2004, the African continent had more than 300 universities spread over 54 countries. In a short period, this number doubled, as in 2009 Africa had more than 250 public and 420 private higher education institutions (The World Bank, 2009, as cited in Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013, p. 36). The figures on the evolution of the existing African universities shows a tremendous expansion of the African higher education system. This rapid growth was accompanied by the 'universalization' of secondary education and the perception of higher education as a viable and profitable 'commodity' (Achanga, 2012).

Notwithstanding this expansion and the effort to develop higher education in African countries, the issue of access assumed new contours, since the offer fell short of the increased demand posed by post-secondary graduates. It became even more problematic when students' enrolment rates exceeded the capacity of the structure of the institutions and went far beyond the available financial resources (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, pp. 25-26). The issue of university access also arises when, for instance, universities' graduation rates are low and the proportion of students entering in higher education institutions every year is very high.

Following the expansion trend, many African governments designed and implemented policies to increase diversity in higher education. Accordingly, different types of HEIs have emerged, always government-driven, prescriptive, and often defined by law. What distinguishes them all are the funding sources and mechanisms, legally defined permissions, and prohibitions. The institutions' classifications are based on the institutions' research and teaching objectives, levels and degrees offered, size, and comprehensiveness (Van Vught et al., 2010, pp.14-15).

Whereas the funding criteria classify HEIs as public and private, the research and teaching objectives and the levels of degrees offered categorize them as universities (conventional and specialised universities), polytechnic institutes, specialised colleges, higher institutes, higher schools, academies, etc. (Langa, 2013, Assiè-Lumumba, 2006). The categories of HEIs vary and are also linked to the existing categories in the francophone, lusophone, and anglophone systems.

While public higher education institutions are owned by the state, private higher education institutions are owned by individual or collective entities that include limited liability companies, foundations, or corporations, whose main sources of income are private. The profitability is also another funding-related criterion used to distinguish higher education institutions, and based on the fact that there are for-profit institutions

(business-like) and non-profit institutions (philanthropic associations/organisations) (Langa, 2013, p. 66).

2.5.2.2. Management and Governance

In African countries, the involvement of the government in university affairs constitutes the norm when the institution is public (Teferra & Altbach, 2004) and somehow determines the level of authority held by the university' management body and the way it is performed. In anglophone Africa, for instance, the head of state often holds the ultimate authority as the chancellor or president in appointing vice-chancellors and others in the line of command. The vice-chancellor has the executive power as assigned by the board of directors, which themselves are composed largely of government-appointed members and, in some countries, include students. The vice-chancellors might also be appointed by the country's minister of education with or without the approval of parliament or even the chancellor. The chain of power starts with the vice-chancellor, down to deans/directors, and lastly heads of departments. The nomination of the deans and directors in most cases is done by the vice-chancellor, directly by government officials, or by boards of directors or trustees. It is common that fellow members democratically elect the head of a department. A few countries submit a shortlist of candidates to the government to occupy the highest positions as a compromise between the university community and the government (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, pp. 29-30).

There are implications when the university governance depends on state authorities, or when a vice-chancellor is appointed either by the minister or the president. With such a centralised governance structure, matters such as academic freedom and autonomy, and the degrees of freedom in decision-making processes become questionable due to conflicting interests and expectations (politics versus academy) that characterise these administrative positions. The persistence of these governance structures influences the development pattern of higher education throughout the continent as well as the knowledge production system.

Overall, management systems in African universities were described by Teferra and Altbach (2004) as being poor, inefficient, and highly bureaucratic. According to the authors, management in African universities was a problem because institutions lacked well-trained and well-qualified personnel; efficient, effective, and modern management and administrative infrastructures; and well-remunerated staff. Another issue African universities have to address is the size of non-academic and administrative staff that often exceeds the size of teaching and research staff. There is an understanding that the existing governance models and leadership appointment procedures foster these problems.

2.5.2.3. Funding

HEIs, both public and private, mostly rely on financial resources to perform their mission. The literature discussing financing of higher education shows that institutions obtain their budget from the local government, external funding (donations from foreign governments and/or agencies and foreign universities), revenues, and other sources.

Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumble (2009) stated that African governments normally provide (public) higher education with 90% to 95% of their total operating budget. The remaining percentage comes from tuition fees, services, consultancy, renting facilities, and external funding sources. In many countries, the state budget covers stipends and living allowances for students, while donor funds often support research activities. The funding source influences the nature of the research being done and its impact on African higher education. Hence, a stronger market orientation and an entrepreneur perspective to expand the universities' financial resources became vital for HEIs to operate.

According to Wield (1995), the need for external support increased as the local availability of financial resources for the education sector gradually declined during the 1980s. This situation caused funding crises that affected installations, libraries and access to textbooks, and material conditions for students and staff.

In the earliest stage of their post-Independence development, African universities were confronted with financial setbacks that often placed them in a critical situation. Assiè-Lumumba (2006) stated that African universities have been at the centre of a higher education crisis due to this funding issue. The availability, scarcity, and absence of financial resources for higher education have influenced the capacity of institutions to function and fulfil their educational and societal missions. Accordingly, the quantity, nature, and sources of the financial resources not only affect the learning process and learning output, but also influence knowledge production through research and access to publications. The author also argued that the great limitations in resources affecting teaching, research, and learning conditions lower the level of staff and student motivation. This situation also produces a negative impact on curriculum development, governance of the university and university life, the principles and practice of academic freedom, and the capacity to hire, retain, and renew the teaching staff. Accordingly, the author stated that low-level task performance has become the norm in African universities, and thus innovative impulses are desirable (Assié-Lumumba, 2006).

Funding seems to play a major role in materialising any initiatives towards university development. The availability of financial resources keeps institutions functioning, ensures teaching and learning, and influences administrative practices, management procedures, staff, and infrastructure development.

2.5.3. Changing Context of Higher Education in Mozambique

After discussing the early developments of universities in Africa, the current section focuses on the genesis and trends in the Mozambican higher education system including its expansion, management and governance, and funding.

The higher education in Mozambique was established with the emergence in 1962 of the General University Studies of Mozambique (EGUM), which later in 1968 became Lourenço Marques University (ULM). Subsequent to Independence, in 1975, Lourenço Marques University was, in 1976, renamed after FRELIMO's first president, and became Universidade Eduardo Mondlane[10] (UEM).

In the pre-Independence era, the HE was managed by the colonial regime, and right after the Independence of the country, higher education was under the guardianship of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC), which provided the framework under which new institutions were created. Later, in 2000, with the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education, Science, and Technology (MESCT), higher education was assigned to the newly created ministry. The MESCT was responsible for developing the overall frame for higher education in Mozambique, deciding on the relative roles of governmental and non-governmental institutions, and the most appropriate utilisation of public funding (Mario et al., 2003).

The new ministry developed a strategic plan for science and technology, reformulated the Law 1/93 on higher education, operationalised the Higher Education Strategic Plan (2000-2010), and developed a range of policies on distance education, credit accumulation and transfer system, and evaluation and quality assurance (Beverwijk, 2005, p. 121).

The new challenges facing the sector highlighted the role of science and technology for the development of the country. This new vision led to the elimination, in 2004, of the MESCT and the establishment of the Ministry of Science and Technology (MCT). Higher education was, in the new context, re-integrated into the Ministry of Education (MINED).

A set of complementary regulatory instruments for higher education was also developed, approved, and implemented in the period between 2000 and 2010. These included the following: (i) the National System for Evaluation, Accreditation, and Quality Assurance of Higher Education (Decree no. 63/2007 of 31 December); (ii) the

[10] Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU)

Regulations of the National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (Decree no. 30/2010 of 13 August); (iii) the National Credit Accumulation and Transfer System (Decree no. 32/2010 of 30 August); (iv) the Regulations of the National Council for Higher Education (Decree no. 29/2010 of 13 August); (v) the Regulations for the Licensing and Operation of Higher Education Institutions (Decree no. 48/2010 of 11 September); and (vi) the Regulations of Inspection to Higher Education Institutions (Decree no. 27/2011 of 25 July) (Premugy, 2012).

In 2015, changes in the political scenario (presidential elections and legislative changes) led to changes in the education context, and a new Ministry of Science and Technology, Higher Education and Technical and Vocational Education (MCTESTP) was established by Presidential Decree 1/2015 (Presidency of the Republic, 2015). The assignments of the new ministry include determining, regulating, planning, coordinating, monitoring, and assessing the activities within the field of science and technology, higher education, and technical and vocational education. The new ministry's approach was the integration of science and technology with higher education. Since the productive sector was a priority, technical and vocational education was added in order to link HEIs with the productive sector (public and private), and to promote scientific and technological innovation in technical and vocational educational institutions (MCTESTP, 2015).

A specific body from the Ministry of Education coordinated and managed higher education, and monitored the implementation of these regulations, namely the Directorate for Coordination of Higher Education (DICES). Since 2015, DICES tasks were assigned to the National Directorate of Higher Education (DNES), a new unit under the MCTESTP.

2.5.3.1. Expansion

The approval of the first Higher Education Act, the Law 1/1993 of 24 June, contributed to the development of the Mozambican higher education system concerning the expansion and diversification of HEIs. The number of both public and private institutions providing higher education rose from 3 institutions in 1993 to more than 50 institutions of higher learning in 2019. These institutions were established not only in the capital city Maputo, but they are also operating all over the country (Langa, 2011) with a great impact on gross enrolment rates.

From 2003 onwards, higher education flourished in terms of the number of public HEIs undoubtedly because of the approval of the Law 5/2003 of 21 January. This growth was exponential, taking into account the increasing demand for higher education, particularly from secondary school graduates. Moreover, private initiatives also affected the expansion and diversification of the system. As Beverwijk (2005) stated, the rapid growth of the sector originated as a result of a growing demand for equitable

access to higher education as well as a growing need for highly qualified professionals for the labour market. From 1995 to 1999, the country experienced a proliferation of private HEIs in a period where no other public institution emerged.

Historically, in terms of infrastructure and services, the southern provinces of Mozambique, particularly Maputo Province are more developed than other provincial capitals in the central and northern regions. This might be explained by the fact that the central government has its headquarters in the capital city of Maputo, and investments in physical infrastructure and provision of services is highly concentrated in Maputo. This fact is also associated with a model of urbanisation inherited from colonisation, and in contrast to the pre-colonial situation, when the most powerful area was the North of the country, which had historically been under Arab influence. This uneven development of infrastructure and services also reflects the reality in terms of the settlement of higher education institutions, both public a private (Appendix 1).

Currently, the Mozambican higher education scenario is composed of twenty-two public HEIs, among them nine universities, eight institutes including polytechnic institutes, three academies, and two higher schools. First established in 1962, Eduardo Mondlane University monopolised the provision of higher education during the first two decades after Independence. More than twenty years later, two other public institutions emerged in the Mozambican HE scenario, namely the *Universidade Pedagógica*[11] (UP) in 1985, and the *Instituto Superior de Relações Internacionais* Higher Institute of International Relations[12] (ISRI) in 1986.

The UP was established by Decree 73/85 of 4 December as the *Instituto Superior Pedagógico*[13] (ISP), under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. ISP emerged as a public HEI devoted to training teachers for all levels of the National Education System (SNE) as well as educational practitioners. The institute became the Pedagogic University by Decree 13/95 of 25 April 1995, with the approval of its statute (*Universidade Pedagógica*, 2014). This was the first institution based in Maputo that expanded its services across provinces and opened its first branches outside the capital city, Maputo (Taimo, 2010).

Between 2011 and 2017, no other public universities emerged, but in 2018 and 2019 big changes occurred, and new institutions were established. New developments accounted for the extinction of the UP (Decree no. 2/2019 of 13 February) given the need for restructuring HE in order to provide public universities with more efficient administrative and management mechanisms so as to be capable of responding to the

[11] Pedagogic University

[12] Pedagogic University

[13] Higher Pedagogic Institute

current demands of the country. Five new autonomous universities resulted from the restructuring of the UP with representation in the three major regions of Mozambique (two in the South, two in the Centre, and one in the North). These institutions include the *Universidade Pedagógica de Maputo*[14] (UP Maputo), the *Universidade Save*[15] (UniSave), the *Universidade Púnguè*[16] (UniPúnguè), the *Universidade Licungo*[17] (UniLicungo), and the *Universidad Rovuma*[18] (UniRovuma) (*Conselho de Ministros*, 2019a, b, c, d, e)[19]. The UP Maputo is the current headquarters of the UP's eliminated branches. The merger of the Massinga and Gaza locations resulted in the UniSave. UniLicungo and UniPúnguè resulted from the merger of the former UP`s branches across the country, specifically UP Beira, UP Quelimane, UP Manica, and UP Tete. The merger of the UP Niassa, UP Nampula, and UP Montepuez resulted in the establishment of UniRovuma.

The *Instituto Superior de Relações Internacionais*[20] (ISRI) was established by Decree no. 1/86 of 5 February 1986, and was eliminated under the Decree 85/2018 of 26 December. The same decree also eliminated the *Instituto Superior de Administração Pública*[21] (ISAP) created by Decree no. 61/2004 of 29 December. The extinction of these two HEIs was allegedly to streamline costs and make public education management more efficient. A new institution emerged from the fusion of ISRI and ISAP, namely the *Universidade Joaquim Chissano*[22] (UJC), which was also established by Decree no. 85/2018 (*Conselho de Ministros*, 2018). Thus, the number of public HEIs in 2019 reached 22. The number of public universities rose from four in 2013 to 9 in 2019. As for academies, apart from the two established in 1999 and 2003, specifically *Academia de Ciências Policiais*[23] (ACIPOL) and *Academia Militar*[24] (AM), respectively, one new academy was established in 2017, namely the *Academia de Altos*

[14] Maputo Pedagogic University

[15] Save University

[16] Púnguè University

[17] Licungo University

[18] Rovuma University

[19]Maputo University (UP Maputo) established by Decree no. 5/2019 of 15 February, the Save University (UniSave) established by Decree no. 6/2019 of 13 February, Púnguè University (UniPúnguè) established by Decree no. 4/2019 of 4 March, Licungo University (Uni Licungo) established by Decree no. 3/2019 of 14 February, and Rovuma University (UniRovuma) established by Decree no. 7/2019 of 18 February (Conselho de Ministros, 2019).

[20] Higher Institute of International Relations

[21] Higher Institute of Public Administration

[22] Joaquim Chissano University

[23] Academy of Police Sciences

[24] Militry Academy

Estudos Estratégicos[25] (AAEE). There was no variation in the number of institutes (8) and schools (2) (MCTESTP, 2019).

The emergence of private HEIs within the higher education scenario goes back to 1995. Amongst the private HEIs, the predominance of highly specialised institutes surpassed the number of universities and schools. Numerically speaking, from 1995 to 2022, the private higher education institutions (HEIs) reached 35, amongst them 11 universities, 22 institutes, and 2 schools. From 2014 up to 2019, only one new institution, THE *Instituto Superior de Negócios e Ciências Tecnológicas*[26] (ISCET) entered the private HEIs' group.

Changes were introduced into the system, and the *Instituto Superior de Tecnologia e Gestão*[27] (ISTEG) established by Decree 26/2008 of 1 July of the Council of Ministers, became *Universidade Wutivi*[28] (UniTiva) in 2014. The university arises following the growth of the Higher Institute of Technologies and Management, and currently comprises four faculties (Engineering, Architecture and Physical Planning; Law; Social and Human Sciences; and Economics and Business Sciences; a Secondary School; a medical centre, and halls of residence.

New developments inserted a new private Higher Education Institution in the Higher Education System (HES) with the emergence of the ISCET, established by Decree No. 43/2016 of 10 October of the Council of Ministers.

Overall, the HES in Mozambique in 2019 is comprised of 53 HEIs operating, amongst them, 19 universities, 27 institutes, 4 schools, and 3 academies (MCTESTP, 2019). However, the development of the Mozambican HES is not only visible in terms of the establishment of operating HEIs, but the system also integrates HEIs that were established, but are not yet operating (Appendix 1).

Both public and private HEIs were established with a similar purpose, the provision of higher education. Nonetheless, these institutions differ in nature, mission, and vocation. According to Langa (2013, p. 66) the differences between public and private higher education institutions are basically the type of property and the mechanisms of funding. Whereas public HEIs are owned by the state and rely on public funding, private institutions are entities whose income is private. By law, the private collective entities include limited liability companies, foundations, and corporations.

[25] Academy of High Strategic Studies

[26] Higher Institute of Business and Technological Sciences

[27] Higher Institute of Technology and Management

[28] *Wutivi* University

Another criterion of differentiation is the focus and importance the HEIs give to technical and professional training, scientific research and extension, including the kind of certification (certificates, diplomas, and honorary degrees) and/or academic degree (degree[29], master's, and PhD) they grant. Among the HEIs, universities, higher institutes, and higher schools offer technical training and scientific research, while higher schools and polytechnic higher institutes focus on technical and professional training. Polytechnic higher institutes are not permitted by law to award PhD degrees (*Assembleia da República*, 2003).

Profitability also constitutes a criterion applied to categorise HEIs, especially private HEIs. In theory, some private HEIs are for-profit institutions and others are non-profit institutions. The profitability is linked to the nature of the funding entity, whether it is a philanthropic association or organisation often with a religious background, or a business corporation. Somehow, student fees ensure the sustainability of the majority of these institutions, which turns them into for-profit institutions, regardless of their religious or corporate nature (Langa, 2013, pp. 67-68).

The profitability criteria are also stressed by Beverwijk (2005), who argues that the reputation of private institutions varies from profit seekers that neglect quality, to institutions that have better equipment and highly dedicated teachers that enhance quality. Concerning private HEIs, the dominant characteristic is the common perception on what motivates their emergence. In this sense, private institutions are more likely to be seen as profit-driven and money-oriented institutions.

The proliferation of public and private universities also reveals a differentiation of programmes and courses, and specialisation of institutions (Langa, 2006). The offer of different programmes and courses was intended to respond to the country's economic and social environment as well as to expand the income generation through student's fees. The growing expansion and diversification of the higher education institutions in terms of organisation, procedures, curricula, and qualification of the staff may lead to the intensification of the competitiveness among them for financial resources, as well as for legitimacy and prestige (Wangenge-Ouma & Langa, 2010, as cited in Langa, 2011).

The academic programmes offered by both public and private higher education institutions are intended to be relevant and aligned with the country's priority areas of development. The conception of the academic programmes not only depends on the mission and/or vocation of each HEI, but also depends on the availability of material, financial and human resources. This conditioning led institutions to focus on one or more study fields, namely Arts, Social Sciences and Humanities; Engineering, Natural and Health Sciences; and Services and Business Sciences (Appendix 2). The market

[29] *Licenciatura*

competition somehow allows the convergence of academic programmes offered by public and private HEIs, but it also responds to local demand in terms of course offer and in terms of target groups.

The Second General Meeting Report (UEM, 1982) poses EMU as an institution that should be taken as a source of inspiration for the expansion of higher education in Mozambique. Perhaps because of that statement, Eduardo Mondlane University is one of the institutions that provides a more comprehensive study programme. For more than 23 years, EMU was the only higher education institution in the country and accordingly it was able to provide highly qualified training for scientists and technicians. These professionals were expected to contribute with their knowledge and expertise to the country's socioeconomic development, as well as to ensure scientific and technological development.

A different scenario occurs with the public institutions that were specifically created to address particular areas of expertise. That is the case of the *Instituto Superior de Estudos da Defesa*[30] (ISEDEF), the *Escola Superior de Jornalismo*[31] (ESJ), the *Instituto Superior de Administração Pública*[32] (ISAP), the *Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e Auditoria*[33] (ISCAM), and the *Academia de Ciências Policiais*[34] (ACIPOL).

Among the private institutions, the *Instituto Superior Politécnico*[35] (ISPU/*A-Politécnica*) and the *Universidade Católica de Moçambique*[36] (UCM) are leading in the offer of academic programmes in terms of number of programmes (Appendix 2).

The situation that characterises public HEIs also occurs among private institutions where the differentiation in the nature and mission/vocation of the institutions has implications for the offer of either fewer or more courses.

Usually, private institutions offer low budget programmes such as economics, management, and accounting. However, there are private HEIs, namely UCM and ISCTEM, which offer expensive courses such as medicine and dentistry. The uniqueness of some institutions is related to the fact that they offer exclusive courses.

[30] Higher Institute of Defence Studies

[31] Higher School of Journalism

[32] Higher Institute of Public Administration

[33] Higher Institute of Accounting and Auditing

[34] Academy of Police Sciences

[35] Higher Polytechnic Institute

[36] Mozambique Catholic University

That is the case of ISUTC that offers courses such as civil and transport engineering, and communication engineering, which are unique in Mozambique (Beverwijk, 2005).

2.5.3.2. Management and Governance

The higher education sector in Mozambique was, according to Beverwijk (2005), mostly directed by authoritarian regimes in the first three decades (1960s-1980s), and the central government determined and enforced the education policies. In the 1960s, the HEIs' sector was ruled following a colonial ideology. In the 1970s, the Marxist-Leninist ideology characterised higher education, which implied central planning at the national level. At the end of the 1980s, a Western orientation influenced the sector, which led to the approval of the Law 1/1993, of 24 June.

The Law changed the model of governance of the higher education system in the sense that, before its approval, the Ministry of Education of Mozambique centrally controlled the whole system. The principles of autonomy and academic freedom, stated in the Law 1/93, drastically reduced the ministry's interference in the sector (Langa, 2013). The Law 1/1993 conferred autonomy to higher education institutions and a prominent role to the rectors as advisors to the Council of Ministers on higher education matters. Moreover, the rectors' role concerning the design and implementation of higher education policy increased due to their active participation in the National Council for Higher Education (CNES). In practical terms, the CNES became responsible for evaluating the applications for the establishment of higher education institutions and became the advisor to the Council of Ministers on higher education policy. The Council of Ministers, as the central authority, approves the establishment of new institutions, the funding of public institutions, and takes decisions about policy (*Assembleia da República, 1993*).

The autonomy that higher education institutions gained was crucial for asserting and positioning themselves in the higher education scenario. Universities now had full academic autonomy, which allowed them to decide what courses they offer, to define their own criteria for quality, to establish entry requirements, and to define their institutional governance structure (*Assembleia da República*, 1993).

However, according to Langa (2013), in the mid-1990s, the rapid expansion, diversification, and differentiation of higher education raised issues related to coordination, quality assurance, and supervision, along with regional and social equity. Accordingly, the government is back in action, again playing a crucial role in the sector. In 2000, a governmental board was created to coordinate the sector at the national level, namely the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology (MESCT). MESCT's mission included among other things guiding and supporting the expansion and diversification of higher education. Ten years later, in 2010 the coordination of the

sector was handed over to three institutions; the Ministry of Education, the National Council for Higher Education, and the National Council for the Assessment of the Quality of Higher Education (CNAQ).

2.5.3.3. Funding

Different funding mechanisms benefit both public and private HEIs. The main sources of financing for public HEIs are the state and cooperation partners (external sources). However, in spite of being relatively insignificant in terms of amount of money, public HEIs still have their own revenues, mainly from the payment of tuition fees and income generation. Higher education is financed through various types of interventions, including the following: (i) direct funding to public HEIs through the General State Budget (OGE), which translates into direct budget allocations to institutions through the submission of specific proposals to the Ministry of Finance within the annual state budget proposals; (ii) direct financing to public HEIs through other mechanisms that include donations from international cooperation institutions, external bank credit, credit from national commercial banking, and student contributions (tuition fees); (iii) financing of private HEIs through various sources, such as student contributions (tuition fees), national bank credit, and foreign direct investment; and (iv) indirect financing to public and private HEIs through a scholarship programme through the Scholarship Institute and other scholarship sources (Alberto et al., 2012).

The HEI financing system was incremental, fiduciary, and based on budgetary negotiations between the Ministry of Finance and the HEIs (MINED, 2013). Whereas public higher education institutions have the possibility of negotiating their funding directly with the Ministry of Planning and Finance (MPF) based on institutions' needs, private higher education institutions are not financially dependent on government support. The government of Mozambique has, however, indirectly supported private institutions through the payment of scholarships for students to cover tuition fees and textbook costs, and exempting them from taxes when buying equipment (Beverwijk, 2005).

Nevertheless, government support for both public and private higher education institutions is heavily dependent on donor funding and expertise. Each donor organisation seeks its own niche, field of interest, and expertise (Lind & Igboemeka, 2002, as cited in Beverwijk, 2005). Donor funding and support have assumed different forms, including scholarships and training opportunities, technical assistance, research support to various faculties, and institutional capacity building. In other cases, financial resources have been provided to central institutional management that coordinates and distributes the money further (Beverwijk, 2005).

A new approach – the Strategy for the Funding of Higher Education (EFES) – was approved in 2013 in the expectation of introducing interinstitutional competitiveness based on performance indicators. The EFES is a financing system based on the real cost of providing education, taking into account the specific cost of the programmes, as well as the performance of higher education institutions (MINED, 2013).

The EFES proposes a new financing model composed of three mechanisms: (i) basic financing (divided into two categories: fixed costs and performance-based financing) – direct financing that aims to ensure the current functioning of the HEIs; (ii) institutional financing – direct financing based on competitive projects research and other projects related to this; and (iii) student funding – indirect funding through scholarships and student fees. Through the first mechanism, the government will ensure at least 30% of the total fund for basic financing, up to 60%, depending on the nature and mission of the targeted public HEIs. For the second mechanism, the institutional financing constitutes 10% of the total fund and aims to encourage the demand for innovation and infrastructure improvement by the beneficiary institutions, as well as to encourage a greater institutional response to government policies, improving the management and governance of the higher education as a whole. For the third mechanism, the student funding has to be administered by the Institute of Scholarships (IBE) and constitutes up to 60% of the total funding in institutions with several programmes and a considerable number of students. However, the nature and mission of public HEIs may increase or decrease this proportion (MINED, 2013).

The EFES would, according to Chilundo (2010), make the funding of higher education more sustainable, equitable, accountable, and efficient, since the previous funding system puts serious limitations in terms of the state's capacity to guarantee equitable access and acceptable levels of quality (Chilundo, 2010, as cited in Langa, 2013). The rationale behind the institutions' new approach is that the pressure to reach high standards of quality and academic excellence, as well as the context of scarce resources, demands the introduction of performance indicators. Seven years after EFES's approval, the instrument has yet to be implemented, since the funding regulations is being improved by a technical team from the MCTESTP, including the development of a formula for calculating the financing value, based on various criteria.

2.5.4. Eduardo Mondlane University

The previous section discussed the changing context of the Mozambican HES as a whole. This section presents the profile of Eduardo Mondlane University with a focus on its establishment as an elitist colonial higher education institution and transition to a national university. In doing so, a brief description of the rationale for the establishment of the university and its evolution will be provided. In addition, a

summary of the contribution of EMU's leadership will allow to portray their achievements in the different periods of the university`s existence. The organisational and academic structure, and study programmes were also presented in this section.

As stated before, the *Universidade Eduardo Mondlane*[37] (UEM)[38] is the oldest public higher education institution established in Mozambique. The Decree-Law 44/530 of 21 August 1962 established the institution under the name of *Estudos Gerais Universitários de Moçambique*[39] (EGUM)[40]. Six years later, in 1968, by the Law 48790, the General University Studies of Mozambique became *Universidade de Lourenço Marques*[41] (ULM),[42] due to its considerable development in terms of establishment of infrastructure, equipment, and human resources. On 1 May 1976, Samora Moisés Machel,[43] the President of the People's Republic of Mozambique, baptised the institution as *Universidade Eduardo Mondlane*, honouring the popular and revolutionary character of the Doctor Eduardo Chivambo Mondlane, the first president of the Mozambique Liberation Front, FRELIMO and organizer of the outbreak of the armed struggle for national liberation (ULM, 1971; UEM, 1991; and Mário, Fry, & Chilundo, 2003). Eduardo Mondlane is a name that, in the words of Samora Machel, symbolised the determination of all the Mozambican people, in the historic journey begun under his leadership, towards a new horizon of freedom, justice and progress. By naming the university after Eduardo Mondlane, a new phase in the life of the institution would be decisively and consciously marked (*Departamento do Trabalho Ideológico da FRELIMO*, 1977)[44].

The General University Studies of Mozambique, although implemented by the Portuguese colonial regime in a context of its growing isolation by the international community that was in the process of decolonisation, given the violent and aggressive nature of Portuguese colonialism, it is pointed out in Machel's speech as having been a direct result of the liberation struggle of the peoples of the Portuguese colonies (UEM, 1976: 17). It taught the general part of some courses. The priority of the courses taught corresponded to the areas of activity where there was a greater shortage of qualified personnel with higher education degrees (pedagogic sciences, clinic-surgery, civil engineering, mining engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, chemical-industrial engineering, agronomy, forestry and veterinary medicine, pure

[37] Portuguese.

[38] Portuguese Acronym.

[39] General University Studies of Mozambique.

[40] Portuguese Acronym.

[41] University of Lourenço Marques.

[42] Portuguese Acronym.

[43] First President of the People's Republic of Mozambique.

[44] FRELIMO's Department of Ideological Action.

mathematics, applied mathematics, chemistry and biology). With its development, and having ensured the full functioning of the same courses with the gradual introduction of the third, fourth, fifth and sixth years of the courses that corresponded to the bachelor's degree, it came to be called the "Universidade de Lourenço Marques" (University of Lourenço Marques).

The University of Lourenço Marques was a centre for higher studies whose mission was to promote cultural development and higher education, as well as to promote research (ULM: 1969). Created in close association with existing universities and integrated into the Portuguese University, it was a modern university, technically well-equipped, with renowned professors and social services. New courses were established, the bachelor's degrees in Romance Philology, History and Geography. The Centre for Humanistic Studies created in 1963 at the ULM promoted the dissemination of the Portuguese language and culture in Mozambique (ULM, 1969, UEM, 1977).

Thus, despite the existence of a culture with moral aspects and educational methods through which children could absorb the culture and become members of the society into which they were born (Mondlane, 1975), the colonists despised, fought against and ignored traditional Mozambican culture and education. Consequently, they instituted a version of their own education system, completely out of context, which would uproot the Mozambican African from his past and force him to adapt to colonial society.

It is in this context that EMU inherited the curricular legacy of colonialism where Portuguese remained the means of instruction, since the government of Mozambique maintained Portuguese as the country's official language because it was considered the language of national unity in a context of the existence of a diversity of local languages, and thus became the language of instruction. Regarding the linguistic situation in Mozambique, it is important to note that, as stated by Chimbutane (2022) as this is a multilingual and multicultural country, in addition to Portuguese, the official language, more than twenty Mozambican languages of Bantu origin are spoken. Geertz (1973) and Fishman, (1972b) argued that the choice between native languages and an ex-colonial language portrays the dilemma towards language issues in post-colonial African countries such as Mozambique. On the one hand, the establishment of a communications framework that could be up to the task of modernity, and on the other hand, the desire to preserve local traditions. Thus, the adoption of the ex-colonial language is justified on the basis that it is vital for the functioning of the social, economic and political institutions in the new state. Another justification is that the ex-colonial language favours the integration of different groups into the national system, in which a native language would supposedly have a disruptive effect. Furthermore, it was believed that the ex-colonial language would facilitate the integration of the post-colonial country into the international economic system (Geertz, 1973 and Fishman, 1972b, as cited in Firmino, 2002), and that was the case also in Mozambique. However,

Firmino (2002) stated that ex-colonial languages did not remain as static products, but rather acquired new symbolic meanings and structural aspects, rising to the status of linguistic variants with their own value and not exclusively as mere folkloric distortions of European languages.

As as a national university emerged in a context in which Mozambique sought to break with the colonial legacy that characterised the entire education system and which was reflected in its elitist nature, content and method, structure, and lack of planning, EMU strived to follow the revolutionary line that advocated the setting of an educational system at the service of the broad masses, and a system that would free man from the negative vestiges of tradition and colonial values (*Departamento do Trabalho Ideológico da FRELIMO*, 1977:13). Therefore, the vision that was the same as the university's was that the university should serve the people not as an external entity, but to deeply and definitively take root in the people (UEM, 1976). A university that seeks to descend to the people, the revolutionary reality in which it found itself. The new university that should radically break with the bourgeois conceptions of the old university.

Thus, the university is given the task of immersing its roots in the national reality, carrying out systematic and organised research and collection of Mozambican historical, cultural, artistic, scientific and technical heritage, based on the assumption that only by deeply knowing the country in which it was rooted would it be possible to restructure courses, organize school work and guide local research. To this end, the university should not be disconnected from the productive sector and social life. Therefore, the expectation of the university was that it would become a driving force in national reconstruction (UEM, 1976)

Focused on the relationship between work and knowledge, and knowledge based on Mozambican reality, on the contingencies of social life, EMU adopted a transformative agenda, and evidences of the rupture between the colonial university and the national university can be seen through the initiatives undertaken by the university, that affected both its early organisational structure and the range of study programmes it offers.

EMU initiatives can be placed in line with what Du Preez (2018:21) describes as *"decolonisation"*, "*a strategic response of higher education institutions to redress past inequalities and injustices, challenge the dominance of Western Knowledge, pedagogy and research, and question the colonial roots of university curricula*". It is the process through which "*colonial ways of knowing and doing are deconstructed and then reconstructed to include the history, culture, language, and identity of colonised peoples*".

In response to the desire to break with the colonial university, EMU established the African Studies Centre (CEA), the Faculty of Education (FACED), and the Faculty for Veterans and Vanguard Workers (FACOTRAB), introduced preparatory courses in the areas of science, and introduced Bantu language teaching courses.

The African Studies Centre was established in January 1976, with the mandate to perform scientific research in the field of social and human sciences. The centre had a multidimensional research programme that included teaching, debate of ideas (seminars) and dissemination of results. Its multidimensional research programme was guided by a paradigm informed by the ideals of equality, justice, responsibility, and social and contextual relevance of the themes and study objects. As part of its mission, the African Studies Centre helps to ensure the excellence and the quality of the university in terms of education, science, culture and technology, through the implementation of a multidimensional agenda for academic research and extension, contributing to the strengthening of bonds between the academia and the wider society (CEA, 2014) .

The history of the Faculty of Education can be divided into three different periods. The old Faculty of Education was created in 1980 to train teachers for the secondary education subsystem since the country was in crisis due to teaching staff shortage, and closed in 1986. The closure of the old FACED, occurred in parallel with the establishment of the Higher Pedagogic Institute, currently the Pedagogic University (UP), a public higher education institution devoted to the training of teachers and educational personnel for all levels of the National Education System (SNE). Accordingly, in1986, part of the functions of the faculty were transferred to the Higher Pedagogic Institute (ISP). FACED ceased to exist as such and assumed a new role as the unit that coordinated the implementation of two programmes, specifically the Basic University Sciences Course Experimental Project (BUSCEP) and the Staff Development Programme (STADEP). Therefore, the Faculty assignment shifted drastically from secondary teacher training to provide students' academic support and foster university teachers' career development. The unit started to offer academic support for secondary graduates willing to pursue further education at the university, and provide didactic and pedagogic training for newly admitted university teachers (Mário, Cassy, Kouwenhoven, Mandlate, Pereira, Tchernych, and Usta 1999). In 2001, the Faculty of Education was reopened offering postgraduate training in the field of education sciences. The faculty assignment was to train educational professionals, including graduates from the Pedagogic University, and perform scientific research and extension activities in the field of education.

The Faculty for Veterans and Vanguard Workers (FACOTRAB) (1983-1992) was created as an initiative to strengthen ties between the university and the freedom fighters of Mozambique. It was an innovative pedagogic experience rooted in the national

reality, which aimed to respond to the social and political contexts that Mozambique was experiencing. Through the teaching and learning process, the university established a relationship with the wider society, in the search for solutions to some of the country's problems (Jenseen, Lourenco, Cruz e Silva and Casimiro, 2022: 96, as cited in Quilambo, 2022).

The propaedeutic courses such as agronomy, veterinary, and medicine were implemented at EMU aiming to raise the level of preparedness of the secondary school finalists entering the university. The preparatory courses, which included a zero semester, were a useful mechanism to bring on board students whose profile in terms of knowledge did not meet the requirements of university education. It was a mechanism to ensure mass entry into the university, particularly for children of the poor, activists, workers, peasants, and freedom fighters, thus transforming the social face of the university, which democratised its teaching (Machel, 1976).

The injustices of colonialism regarding education included, according to Enslin and Hedge (2024), misrecognition, maldistribution and misrepresentation. Due to the dismissiveness towards of the indigenous, colonial education failed, amongst others, to recognize the worth of the bodies of knowledge and languages of the colonised (Enslin and Hedge, 2024). The introduction of Bantu language teaching courses at the extinct Faculty of Arts, now Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FLCS), represented an attempt to introduce local languages into the teaching process, as it they were part of the colonial education system. The purpose of introducing Bantu language courses was to enable graduates, future teachers, to be proficient in Bantu languages. In the bilingual teaching model, these languages would be used as a medium of instruction in the primary education subsystem for children who speak local languages as a first language, thus facilitating their learning in the initial classes. Moreover, the introduction of Mozambican languages into education had great significance, as it was a symbol of the ethnic and cultural identity of the Mozambican people.

Regardless of the fact that this study did not primarily intent to discuss the decolonisation of higher education, particularly higher education institutions, one can state that the initiatives taken by the university stands out as its early attempts in addressing its colonial past and its enduring effects, the curricular legacy of colonialism. Nevertheless, Enslin and Hedge (2024) argued that decolonising higher education and its institutions must also address new forms of empire which have colonised the university, since the influence of the late capitalism in the form of neoliberalism on the contemporary university is so strong. According to the authors, its modes of practice are likely to foster superficial strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

The authors further argued that capitalist structures and practices sustain current form of coloniality. In the post-colonial era, following formal decolonisation in the later

decades of Twentieth Century, conditions of coloniality, which varies according to context, have continued to prevail in most countries, including past colonies. Concerning universities, they claim that since the 1970s, most universities, including in former colonies were materially and culturally influenced by the global neoliberalism concerning knowledge, curriculum and pedagogy, learning and assessment, and systems and organisation (Enslin and Hedge, 2024).

While there are vast inequalities in expenditure on education, maldistribution of resources, persisting material injustice, universities under global neoliberal influences are complicit in the continuation and intensification of coloniality. Neoliberalism. as the contemporary realisation of both colonialism and capitalism, is exemplified in higher education in the form of competitive global rankings and the related quest for global 'excellence', both of which amplify systems and structures remaining from a colonial past (Enslin and Hedge, 2024: 233). Complicity with global rankings also extends, and may be mandated by national governments that aim for their universities to be recognised as 'world-class' (Barnett 2020: 16, as cited in Enslin and Hedge, 2024: 234), and with rankings doing 'some of the work of governing for the state, as a proxy for creating knowledge-economies' (Robertson 2022: 433, as cited in Enslin and Hedge, 2024: 234).

Within the frame of geopolitics of knowledge premised by Mignolo's (2011b), Shahjahan and Baizhanov suggest that global university rankings both project a 'universality of quality and excellence' and reproduce 'colonial knowledge/power relations' (Shahjahan and Baizhanov 2023: 261, as cited in Enslin and Hedge, 2024: 34).

EMU is not exempt from the influences and this phenomenon of the neoliberalism, to the extent that EMU is also subject to the global rankings. For instance, in a ranking developed by the British magazine Times Higher Education in 2023, Eduardo Mondlane University ranked 27th among the best universities in sub-Saharan Africa. The 2023 ranking, which was 59.9, focused on five main pillars containing different metrics scored by the university, namely: resources and finance (61.8), access and equity (42.6-44.7), teaching ability (38.1-47.8), student engagement (81), and impact on the African continent (74.5) (Times, Higher Education, 2023).

Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU) participated in 2023 for the second time in the prestigious Impact Ranking by Times Higher Education (THE), which assesses the performance of universities in relation to the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This ranking aims to highlight the contributions of higher education institutions in areas such as sustainability, equality and innovation. In this ranking, the university was evaluated in relation to three specific SDGs: SDG 2 (Zero Hunger and Sustainable Agriculture), SDG 3 (Good Health and Well-being) and SDG

15 (Life on Land), and scored 57.9 in SGD2, ranking among the top 101-200 out of a total of 647 participating institutions. Specifically, the university reached 91.9 points for training of graduates in agricultural sciences, 80.8 points for significant scientific production, and 62.5 points for relevant actions in the fight against hunger at national level. In SDG 3, EMU reached a score of 52, ranking among the 601-800 best out of 1,218 institutions. It reached 81.7 and 51.8 points for scientific production and collaborations in health services, and 28.9 for training of graduates in the health area (*UEM*, 2024a).

In 2024, the university ranked 32nd among the best universities in Africa in the EduRank System and scores positively in several disciplinary fields, obtaining more than 50 percent in around 29 research topics assessed, with emphasis on the field of medicine and environmental sciences, among others, where it appears with honourable mention, namely epidemiology and engineering (UEM, 2024b).

Eduardo Mondlane University also stands out in World university rankings, having maintained its position in 2024, among the 1,201 to 1,500 universities, in a series of around 3,000 higher education institutions evaluated. In the area of teaching, the score reached is 10.5; in the research environment, 9.0; in publications, 58.4; in the link between university and industry, 20.6; and, in internationalisation, it reached a score of 52.2, out of 100 being required in each area (UEM, 2024c)

The position reached by the university in the various rankings while, on the one hand, it portrays EMU as a prominent institution in the academic panorama on the African continent and elsewhere, it also, on the other hand, shows the willingness to excel on its three pillars (teaching, research and outreach), in order to gain recognition as a significant knowledge production system. It may be, according to Enslin and Hedge (2024), a setback for the decolonisation movement initiated by the university.

Enslin and Hedge (2024) stated that while the rankings' criteria for success are designed to exclude all but those institutions already able to meet them, they are poor proxies for quality. Moreover, global rankings, part and parcel of the neoliberal capitalist university, are in direct tension with an agenda that seeks to decolonise.

Since the Independence, Eduardo Mondlane University has gone through a succession of leaders which, in a unique and continuous way, have driven its development at each historical moment (see Appendix III, Table 3). The following lines present the profiles and achievements of the rectors who contributed to the development of the university within the sociopolitical and economic context in which the country found itself, and the dynamics of the higher education system.

After Independence, EMU was led by six rectors, namely: Fernando Ganhão (1976-1986), Rui Baltazar (1986-1990), Narciso Matos (1990-1995), Brazão Mazula (1995-2007), Filipe Couto (2007-2011), Orlando Quilambo (2011-2022), and, recently, by Manuel Guilherme Júnior, whose term began in May 2022. Depending on the socioeconomic and political context of the time, each of these rectors played a fundamental role in the development of EMU, designing strategies, plans and programmes to respond to the different challenges that were posed to the development process of this institution (Quilambo, 2022: 474).

Fernando Ganhão was the first rector of EMU and led the university during the first ten years of the institution's existence (1976-1986), a period dominated by the country's socialist regime. Graduated in History in Poland, his filiation in political and civil organisations include the Mozambique Liberation Front (FRELIMO), the Permanent Commission of the Popular Assembly, the first chairmanship of the Mozambique Olympic Committee. Professor at the Social Sciences Training and Research Unit at EMU, he was also Rector of the Technical University of Mozambique.

His government was marked by the university's integration into the "ideology of the Party" FRELIMO (Mazula, 1995:162 as cited in Quilambo, 2022), by a political interest in transforming the university and its teaching content, breaking with the philosophy of the courses in force at the then University of Lourenço Marques. The expectations towards the University role to fulfill national interests were high. Accordingly, this phase was also marked by a vision of training human resources who could serve the Mozambican revolution, tackling the "central issues of the economy" (Meneses, 2005: 49, as cited in Quilambo, 2022). Under Ganhão's leadership, in order to guarantee staff who could ensure the teaching-learning process, the University adopted a strategy of stabilising its human resources, through the establishment of a teaching and research body, by retaining the best undergraduate students, using teaching assistants, and hiring foreign teachers. In response to the challenges of restructuring the national education system in the first years of Independence, EMU embraced the project of training teachers for secondary education. This project was materialised through the establishment, in the late 1970s, of the Faculty of Education (Buendía, 1999: 245 as cited in Quilambo, 2022).

Rui Baltazar was the second rector of EMU, having directed the institution between 1986 and 1990. This was a period of the implementation of the Structural Readjustment Programme (1987), and the Constitutional Reform oriented towards multiparty democracy, and the establishment of a market economy. Rui Baltazar graduated in Law and Political and Economic Sciences from the University of Coimbra and was lecturer at the Faculty of Law of EMU. He has taken up different roles in the national political sphere as minister of justice of the Transitional Government in Mozambique, member of parliament, minister of finance, ambassador of Mozambique to the Kingdom of

Sweden, advisor to the President of the Republic of Mozambique, and president of the Constitutional Council.

During his term, EMU introduced new curricula and pedagogic regulations, reopened the Faculty of Law, and reintroduced the courses in mathematics, physics, chemistry, history and linguistics. The university began to implement important programmes to improve the quality of teaching in engineering and science-related courses, such as BUSCEP (Basic University Sciences Experimental Project) (1986), and the STADEP (Staff Development Programme) (1989) (MANDLATE, 2003 as cited in Quilambo, 2022).

Strengthening international cooperation initiated during Ganhão's term was one of his contributions to the development of EMU. Thus, the university expanded its cooperation relations with several organisations and countries, namely with the Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation (SAREC), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Population Fund (UNPFA), the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), the World Bank, the Ford Foundation, the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, the Netherlands, Italy, England and the former Federal Republic of Germany (Quilambo, 2022).

Narciso Matos was the third rector of EMU between 1990 and 1995. PhD in Chemistry from the University of Berlin (Germany), he was the head of the Chemistry Department, director of the Faculty of Sciences, and is currently the Rector of the 'A Politécnica' University, based in the city of Maputo. Professionally He has taken up the role of secretary-general of the Association of African Universities, also served as director of the International Development Programme of the Carnegie Cooperation of New York, and executive director of the Foundation for Community Development in Mozambique. His political affiliation includes the Mozambican Parliament.

During Narciso Matos' term, it was beginning a new historical stage in the process of social, economic, cultural and political development in Mozambique. During this period, EMU faced challenges and difficulties, particularly related to its structure, autonomy, teaching and technical-administrative staff, students, transport and finances. Driven by the need to overcome these challenges, the university developed the first planning effort - *Present and Perspectives for the Future* -, later transformed into the Institutional Capacity Building Project, financed by the World Bank. This project boosted the training and retention of qualified Mozambican staff, increased research activity and student admission rates. In addition, the Articles of Association and the first Regulations of the Teaching Career of EMU, designed during Rui Baltazar's term, was approved, and it was introduced the Open Fund for Research. Concerning the university access, the admission exams was institutionalised as an entry criterion

(Decree no. 80/90, of 26 September). More importantly, EMU launched the E-mail services nationwide through the EMU's Computer Centre (Quilambo, 2022).

Brazão Mazula was the fourth rector and led EMU between 1995 and 2007. With a degree in Philosophy and Theology from the Major Seminary of S. Pio X in Lourenço Marques, he was ordained a priest for the Diocese of Vila Cabral (now Lichinga). PhD in History and Philosophy of Education from the Faculty of Education of the University of São Paulo, he held several positions in the then Ministry of Education and Culture. He was also the first president of the National Elections Commission, and executive director of the Centre for Studies on Democracy and Development.

His term occurred during the construction of the democracy in Mozambique, a corollary of the signing of the General Peace Agreement (1992) and the holding of the first General and Multiparty Elections in Mozambique (1994). It was during his term that EMU approved its first Strategic Plan (1998-2003), aimed at improving academic, administrative and financial efficiency; and improving the quality of teaching (UEM, 1998, as cited in Quilambo, 2022). Within the scope of this plan EMU carried out several projects, with particular reference to Higher Education Project 1 and Reform of University Administration and Management Project (RUMA) which, among other aspects, resulted in curricular reform, reform of the financial management system, administrative and management reform, training of staff (teachers and technical and administrative personnel), and the construction of several infrastructures (UEM, 2003 as cited in Quilambo, 2022). The university also increased the course offer through the establishment of new units, both in the city of Maputo (School of Communication and Arts) and in the provinces (Higher School of Hotel Management and Tourism in Inhambane and the Higher School of Marine and Coastal Sciences in Quelimane, the Branch of the Faculty of Law of EMU in Beira) (Quilambo, 2022).

Filipe Couto was the fifth rector of EMU, between 2007 and 2011, in a context of plurality of higher education institutions. During his term, it was dominat the debate on the issue of the quality of higher education and the role of the University in the social and economic development of the country. Graduate in Philosophy from the Umaniana University (Rome-Italy), PhD in Dogmatic Theology from Münster (Germany), and PhD in Sociopolitical Sciences qualifying for Full Professor from the University of Paderbon (Germany), he was ordained a priest in Lichinga and parish priest of the Cathedral of Nampula. He was also rector of the Catholic University of Mozambique, and a member of the National Council for Higher Education, the Council of Rectors, and the National Council for Combating AIDS (Quilambo, 2022).

During his term, EMU approved its second Strategic Plan (2008-2012), aimed at implementing and monitoring academic reform; promoting equitable access; ensuring excellence and quality in teaching, research and extension activities; developing the

physical plant; developing and enhancing human resources; promoting administrative and management efficiency, communication and marketing; and developing and strengthening national, regional and international cooperation (UEM, 2008, as cited in Quilambo, 2022). Within the framework of this Strategic Plan, EMU implemented several actions, with emphasis on the establishment of the Office for Regional Integration, for Academic Reform (2009), which instituted a training system by academic cycles corresponding to the bachelor's, master's and doctoral levels. The university also approved the Research Policy, created the Communication and Marketing Centre, and introduced distance learning. Concerning partnerships, the university strengthened cooperation with several national and international institutions, with particular emphasis on SIDA/SAREC. Regarding infrastructure development, the university started the operation of the *Pedagogic Complex*, and completed the construction of Brazão Mazula Library. As part of its expansion strategy, new academic units were created, namely the Higher School of Entrepreneurship and Business in Chibuto, the Higher School of Sports Sciences, and the Higher School of Rural Development in Vilankulo. There were also created two internal administrative units, specifically the Centre for Studies and Coordination of Gender Affairs and the Editorial Unit of EMU Scientific Journal (Quilambo, 2022).

Orlando António Quilambo was the sixth rector of EMU and led for two terms, between 2012 and 2022. He holds a Bachelor's Teaching degree in Chemistry and Biology from EMU, a diploma degree in Biology from the Higher Pedagogic School of Gustrow (former German Democratic Republic), and a PhD in Natural Sciences from the University of Groningen (The Netherlands). He has taken up several university management positions, such as head of the Department of Chemistry and Biology at the Faculty of Education, deputy director of the Faculty of Biology, Director of the Faculty of Sciences, scientific director, and academic vice-Rector. He is affiliated to the Mozambican Academy of Sciences, the Association of African Universities, the Association of Portuguese-Speaking Universities, the Association of Rectors of the Universities of the Commonwealth of Southern African Countries, and the Distance Education Association of Portuguese-Speaking Countries (Quilambo, 2022).

He has taken up the leadership of EMU at a time when the Strategic Plan for Higher Education (2012 - 2020) was being drawn up and implemented. During his first term (2011-2016), the university approved its vision and mission, the excellence initiative and registered an increase and diversification of undergraduate and postgraduate courses. His achievements included the improvement in quality of the instruments regulating the teaching and learning process, and research management. As such, EMU approved the Postgraduate Regulations, created the Office for Academic Quality, and introduced the Academic Quality Assessment and Assurance System. Moreover, the university defined its lines of research, and created research centres (the Regional Centre for Oil and Gas Studies and Technologies, the Centre for Studies in Agro-Food

Policies and Programmes, the Centre for Trauma Prevention and Research, the Centre for Marine Technology Studies, and the Centre of Excellence in Hospitality and Tourism). The university institutionalised the EMU's Scientific Gala and implemented a democratic and collegial governance decision-making processes. In the same period, the standard regulations for faculties, schools, centres and the Central Services was approved, as well as several university governance and management instruments, such as the Teaching Career Regulations, the Performance Evaluation System and the Researcher Career Regulations, were review and updated (Quilambo, 2016, as cited in Quilambo, 2022). His second term (2016-2022) focused on institutional reform, the beginning of the implementation of EMU's Strategic Plan (2018-2028), which advocates the transformation of EMU into a research university. During this period, EMU implemented the Resources Mobilisation Strategy, which included the entrepreneurial initiatives and the alumni initiative. Aiming to consolidate postgraduate studies at EMU, the Regulations and the Curricular Framework were approved, and the EMU's Postgraduate School was established (Quilambo, 2022).

Manuel Guilherme Júnior is the seventh rector of EMU, whose 5-year term began in 2023. He begins his term in office at a time when EMU is still in the initial phase of institutional reform within the framework of the implementation of its 2018-2028 Strategic Plan, aiming to become a research university. He holds a Law Degree from the Faculty of Law of Eduardo Mondlane University, a Master's Degree and a Postgraduate Degree in International Commercial Law from the Faculty of Law of the University of Macau-China, and a PhD in Law from the Faculty of Law of Eduardo Mondlane University through the Legal Cooperation Centre with the Faculty of Law from the University of Lisbon. Lawyer, consultant and lecturer at the Faculty of Law of Eduardo Mondlane University, he was director of the Centre for Studies on Regional Integration Law of SADC, director of the Cooperation Office of Eduardo Mondlane University, and Member of the Higher Council of the Administrative Judiciary. He was also director of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities at Zambeze University in Beira, coordinator of the Law Course at the Faculty of Economics and Management at the Catholic University, also in Beira (https://guilhermejr.uem.mz).

The ongoing Institutional Reform of EMU, based on EMU's Reform Agenda is expected to last until 2025, and it is focused on reviewing and adapting the structure, culture and management, and governance processes of EMU to become a research university. Simultaneously, the university is also focused on fulfilling the United Nations 2030 Agenda, by carrying out several actions to place the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on its own institutional agenda. Supported by the Cooperation Policy, approved in 2020, the diversification of partnerships and internationalisation continue to be the main priorities in the field of cooperation at EMU, considering the desideratum of its transformation into a research university, the changes in the cooperation models and approaches worldwide (UEM, 2024).

The succession of rectors and the initiatives developed by them demonstrate a vision of growth for the university in all its domains. There is evidence of actions to consolidate the initiatives initiated by the outgoing rectors, thus strengthening the status of the university in the Mozambican society.

3.5.4.1. Organisational Structure

The university's organisational structure changed over the years as external and internal circumstances demanded the university to adjust or adopt new forms of organising its management and administrative structure.

The highest structure of the university is the University Council (Deliberative Body) below, which is the rector who also presides over the University Council and the Academic Council (Advisory Body). The documented organic structure is presented below, in figure 5.

In its current composition, the university collegial bodies include two others, namely the Rector's Council, which includes the directors of the university Central Services, and the Board of Directors, formed by the directors of the academic units and centres.

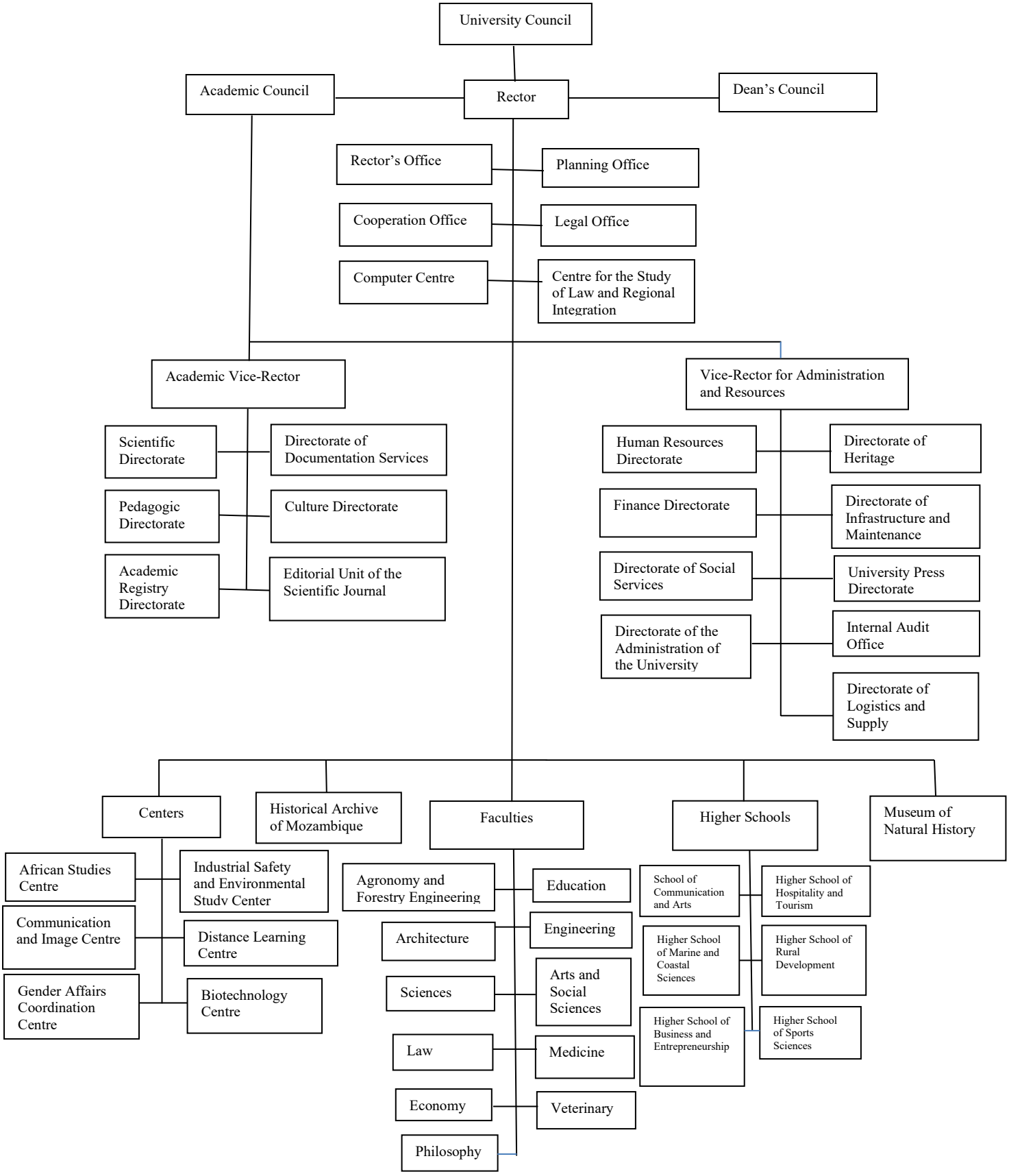

Figure 5: EMU's Organisational Structure (Deliberation no. 20/CUN/2005)

2.5.4.2. Academic Structure and Programmes

The university's course offer expanded over the years. By 2012, the university was offering seventy-nine *licenciatura* programmes, forty-three master's programmes and two doctoral programmes delivered by eleven faculties and six schools (UEM, 2012). By 2020, the number of courses offered increased, as the *licenciatura* programmes reached a hundred and four, seventy-nine master's programmes, and eleven doctorate programmes (see Appendix IV). In 2021, there was an increment in the offer of master's courses (eighty-five) and doctorate programmes (fifteen) if compared to the previous year. New degrees and specialisations amongst the existing courses, courses restructuring, and new study fields were introduced, diversifying the course offer even more.

The university offers undergraduate programmes in eight different study fields, namely agronomic sciences, biological sciences, human sciences, natural and exact sciences, social and applied sciences, engineering, arts, and health (see Appendix V).

The course offer is broad in the field of social and applied sciences. Health, biological sciences, and agronomic sciences present a limited course offer. The level of investment needed in laboratories, supplies, and equipment, including maintenance costs is probably one of the factors that prevent the introduction of new courses in these fields.

In 2024, EMU was offering eighty-one undergraduate courses grouped in eight fields: human sciences (fourteen); applied social sciences (twenty-five); exact and earth sciences (thirteen); health sciences (two); linguistics, literature and arts (three); engineering (eleven); agricultural sciences (nine); and biological agricultural sciences (four). Seventy-one postgraduate courses are being offered, of which fifty-seven are at master's level and four are at doctoral level, distributed in four fields: human sciences (thirteen), applied social sciences (thirty-five), exact and earth sciences (ten), and agricultural sciences (thirteen) (UEM, 2024d, UEM, 2024e). Eduardo Mondlane University has existed now for more than 50 years and, despite the varied offer of master's courses, PhD programmes are still limited to only a few.

The national conjuncture, the changes in the economy and society greatly influence the emergency of new courses and the restructuring of the existing courses. Being aware of its role and society's expectations, the university's contribution is focused on training staff for different sectors, producing knowledge in areas of specialisation and serving the community through extension and innovation.