THE ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION COUNCILS AND COMMISSIONS IN AFRICA

A case study of the Mozambique National Council on Quality Assurance in Higher Education (CNAQ)

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CHET

HERANA

Contents

Acronyms and abbreviations

CRM   Council of Rectors of Mozambique (*Conselho de Reitores*)
CES   Council on Higher Education (*Conselho do Ensino Superior*)
CHET   Centre for Higher Education Transformation
CNAQ   National Council on Quality Assurance in Higher Education (*Conselho Nacional de Avaliação do Ensino Superior*)
CNES   National Council on Higher Education (*Conselho Nacional do Ensino Superior*)
HEI   higher education institution
HERANA   Higher Education Research and Advocacy Network in Africa
MESCT   Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology (*Ministério do Ensino Superior, Ciência e Tecnologia*)
MoE   Ministry of Education
SINAQES   National System of Evaluation, Accreditation and Quality Assurance of Higher Education
UEM   Eduardo Mondlane University
ISP   Higher Pedagogical Institute
ISRI   Higher Institute for International Relations

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Introduction

1.1   About the study

The key research programme of the Higher Education Research and Advocacy Network in Africa (HERANA) Phase 1 (2007-2011) focused on the link between higher education and development in Africa. The overall findings and analyses were published in, amongst others, eight country reports,[1] a synthesis report, and a book entitled *Universities and Economic Development in Africa* which was launched in August 2011.[2] HERANA Phase 2 (2011–2014) is further developing the analyses and findings of the first phase through a number of higher education projects.

One of the analytical propositions of the *Universities and Economic Development in Africa* project was that for higher education to make a sustainable contribution to development in a country, there has to be national-level coordination of knowledge policies and of the key actors in the system. The study found that tertiary or higher education councils and commissions had been established in each of the eight countries. More often than not, these agencies were mandated to undertake a regulatory accreditation function and had, over time, assumed additional roles and functions. It became apparent to the research team that these organisations could be key players in national coordination and implementation monitoring.

The *Higher Education Councils and Commissions in Africa* project was initiated in late 2011. The main aim of this comparative study is to explore the role of the councils and commissions in the governance of tertiary education, in the same eight African countries, through their mandated functions. The following tertiary/higher education councils and commissions are included in the study:[3]

• The Botswana Tertiary Education Council (BTEC);[4]
• The Ghana National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE);
• The Kenya Commission for Higher Education (KCHE);[5]
• The Mauritius Tertiary Education Commission (MTEC);
• The Mozambique National Council on Quality Assurance (CNAQ);
• The South African Council on Higher Education (CHE);
• The Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU); and
• The Uganda National Council for Higher Education (NCHE).

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1   The eight countries are: Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda.

2   Cloete et al. (2011). See the CHET web site for further information on these outputs: http://www.chet.org.za/.

3   Some of the acronyms for the councils/commissions used in this report have been invented in order to distinguish between organisations with the same acronyms (e.g. 'TEC' refers to both the Botswana Tertiary Education Council and the Mauritius Tertiary Education Commission).

4   This agency was reconstituted as the Human Resources Development Council in 2013.

5   This agency was reconstituted as the Kenya Commission for University Education in 2013.

The broader study set out to explore the following research questions:

- What functions are these councils and commissions mandated by law to undertake?
- Why and how were these organisations established, and how are they structured and resourced?
- How have their mandates, structure, capacity and operations evolved over time?
- What factors have impacted on the capacity of these organisations to carry out their respective mandates?
- What role(s) do the councils and commissions fulfil in the governance of tertiary education in their respective countries?

It was assumed that factors both internal and external to the organisation impact on its *raison d'être* and the way it functions and operates. Internal factors include the way in which the organisation is structured and composed, its legal status and powers, and the resources available to it to carry out its mandate. External factors include funding sources and arrangements, shifts in the broader governance system, and interaction with other key stakeholders. A simple distinction between 'function' and 'role' is maintained in the study, where a function refers to activities an individual or organisation engages in, in order to carry out their role in a particular context.

There are also two sub-components to the broader project, each of which has their own report and informed the broader case studies:

- A comparative analysis of the legislation that gives rise to and mandates the councils/commissions in the study;[6] and
- A comparative analysis of how the councils/commissions are financed, and how they carry out their funding functions (where applicable).[7]

This project has been undertaken by the following multi-disciplinary research team:

Project leader and researcher	• Tracy Bailey (CHET consultant, South Africa): Seven case study reports and synthesis report
Researchers	• Danwood Chirwa (Head of Public Law, University of Cape Town, South Africa): Report on the legislative frameworks of councils/commissions and reviewing the legislative aspects of the draft case study reports • Praveen Mohadeb (former Executive Director of the Mauritius Tertiary Education Commission): Report on the financing and funding of the councils/commissions

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6 This sub-component includes seven of the eight countries; Mozambique was excluded because the legislation is in Portuguese. See Chirwa (2013).

7 See Mohadeb (2013).

- Patrício Langa (Faculty of Education, Eduardo Mondlane University, Mozambique): Mozambique case study report

Research assistants

- Monique Ritter (CHET consultant, South Africa): Sourcing key documents and for desk research, compiling background information for the interviews and comparative analysis tables
- Samuel Kiiru (Institute of Development Studies, University of Nairobi, Kenya): Compiling background information for the study
- Gillian Bailey (CHET consultant, South Africa): Interview transcriptions

Project advisors

- Åse Gornitzka (Department of Political Science, University of Oslo, Norway)
- Nico Cloete (Director of CHET, South Africa)

In each country, the team worked closely with a key contact/resource person. In Mozambique, our contact was Patrício Langa (CNAQ), who assisted in providing background information, scheduling interviews, responding to queries, and attending work-in-progress seminars, as well as drafting the Mozambique case study report.

The case studies have been developed primarily via extensive desk research and interviews with key informants. Desk research included preparing background information to inform the site visits (including information about each country's tertiary education system, the councils/commissions, and the relevant legislation and policies), as well as gleaning information from policy documents, annual reports and other relevant publications and websites as part of the development of the case study reports.

Site visits were undertaken by the project leader between March and October 2012, to conduct interviews with senior leadership and staff at each of the councils/commissions, and with at least one key individual in the parent ministries. In Mozambique, interviews were conducted during July 2012 (see List of sources). These interviews were recorded and later transcribed.

The draft case study reports were developed during 2013 and were finalised during March 2014. The synthesis and comparative analysis of the roles and functions of the eight councils/commissions in the study was published in 2014.[8]

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8   See Bailey (2014).

1.2   About this case study report

This report draws together the documentary and interview data on the CNAQ that was collected and analysed during 2012/2013. It aims to provide a detailed description of the creation of the organisation, how it is structured, what its primary functions are, the challenges it faces in carrying out these functions, as well as the broader (national) context within which it operates. The report also provides an analysis of the functions of the CNAQ and what role(s) it plays in the governance of the higher education sector in Mozambique.

A disclaimer: Sketch for a self-analysis

This case study report is idiosyncratic within the broader study in that the author is also a key informant. I, Patrício Langa, am one of the executive directors of the National Council for the Evaluation of Quality in Higher Education (CNAQ). This situation has two implications. On the one hand, my research benefits from my being an insider: I am an expert in higher education studies studying my very own institution. In that position, I simply tried to gather and convey some elements for a 'self-socioanalysis'[9] of my institution. On the other hand, as an insider, it will be assumed I have a vested interest in the institution. Borrowing from Bourdieu (2007), I do not conceal my apprehensions, which go far beyond the usual fear of being misunderstood. I undertook this task as honestly as I could as if it were an outsider who carried out the study – an analyst, not the executive director. Neverthless, I naturally submit myself to academic critique.

Note: The author of the report is responsible for the choice and presentation of the data and facts contained in this document and for the opinions expressed therein. These are not necessarily the views of CHET or the various informants who were interviewed or provided data.

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9   Bourdieu (2007).

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The governance of higher education in Mozambique

National councils and commissions for higher education have become common in many countries' governance structures. These councils/commissions have varying forms and status in the different higher education systems. In some cases, they are part of government structures, while in others they are classed as civil society organisations. This is in accordance with Burton Clark's (1983) observation that there are distinctive national models of higher education governance and coordination.[10]

Higher education in Mozambique is a sub-system of the education system that comprises different types and processes of teaching and learning, research and extension[11] provided by post-secondary institutions. There are four national councils in the Mozambican higher education governance system: the Council on Higher Education (CES),[12] the National Council on Higher Education (CNES),[13] the National Council for the Evaluation of Quality in Higher Education (CNAQ),[14] and the Council of Rectors (CRM).[15] The first three councils are government bodies, while the fourth is a civil society entity.

This report examines the establishment of these (national) councils on higher education in Mozambique. It describes the various processes and events that led to the creation of these government and non-governmental bodies in the country, their missions and functions.

The creation of national councils on higher education was both part of endogenous processes of reforming and restructuring the Mozambican higher education system, and of the response to exogenous pressures in the context of global changes in the governance structures of higher education.[16]

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10 Clark (1983).

11 'Extension' is the term commonly used in Mozambique's higher education sector to describe outreach or civic engagement with non-academic partners.

12 Conselho do Ensino Superior (CES).

13 Conselho Nacional do Ensino Superior (CNES).

14 Conselho Nacional de Avaliação do Ensino Superior (CNAQ).

15 Conselho de Reitores (CR).

16 Wangenge-Ouma and Langa (2010).

2.1 The higher education landscape

Historical background

The development and current state of the field of higher education in Mozambique can be traced through three periods, namely the colonial period, the socialist period, and the multi-party democracy and free-market period.[17]

The *colonial phase* covers the period 1962 to 1975. Unlike other European colonial powers – especially the United Kingdom and France, which established higher education institutions at the beginning of the 20th century, and in particular during the immediate decades after the Second World War – Portugal did not establish any higher education institutions (HEIs) in its former colonies before the 1960s. Responding to pressures from both the international community and local Portuguese settlers, the Portuguese government created, through Decree Law No. 44 530 of 21 August 1962, the first HEIs in Mozambique and Angola, which were referred to as General University Studies.

The General University Studies of Mozambique (EGUM) was therefore the first HEI to be established in Mozambique. In its early years, EGUM offered academic programmes in education, medicine, agronomy and veterinary sciences, as well as civil, mining, electrical and chemical engineering. By 1968, the EGUM had become the Lourenço Marques University and it extended its academic programmes to include applied mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and geology, as well as Roman philology, history, geography, economics and metallurgical engineering.[18] Although towards the end of Portuguese colonialism, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s, the Portuguese colonial government attempted to spread the idea that it was no longer racist, access to EGUM continued to be determined by colonial and racist ideology. By independence in 1975, only 40 black Mozambican students, representing less than 2% of the overall number of students, had entered Lourenço Marques University.[19]

Independence and the socialist period. The second phase of the development of higher education in Mozambique covers the period 1975 to 1986. This phase is marked by the experiments of the socialist regime, which followed the country's independence in 1975. In 1976, following the wave of political changes brought about by independence, Lourenço Marques University was renamed after FRELIMO's hero, and thus became the Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM). During the early years of independence, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, the UEM passed through a difficult time. The number of students fell from 2 433 in 1975 to 750 in 1978. The number of teaching staff also decreased owing to a massive

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17 See Langa (2006) and Langa (2010).

18 Beverwjik (2005); Langa (2006); Langa (2010); Mário et al. (2003).

19 Mário et al. (2003).

exodus of Portuguese qualified personnel after independence. In 1978 there were only ten Mozambican teaching staff. This shortage was filled by scientists and sympathisers from other socialist countries and/or the Soviet bloc, with which the FRELIMO regime had a strong relationship.[20]

The newly independent government not only changed the university's name to UEM, it also transformed its mission and academic programmes. In 1983, Law No. 4/83 was approved by the People's Assembly and was the first law to institutionalise the Mozambican national system of education. Higher education was one of the sectors that were regulated by this law (others included primary, secondary and technical and vocational education). All sectors of education, including higher education, were controlled centrally by the ministry of education (MoE).

Law No. 4/83 determined that the mission of the whole educational system was to train a 'New Man', the builder of the socialist society. The university was specifically given the role of training cadres to implement the government's socialist programme. In order to allow the university to fulfil this mission, the MoE prescribed all issues concerning higher education centrally, such as curricula, staff, students and the entire infrastructure.[21] Thus, issues concerning the micro-management of the HEIs, such as the number of students enrolled and the kind of courses offered, were decided centrally by the MoE.[22]

Access to university did not require entrance examinations and university attendance was free. The courses considered of lesser priority were closed (e.g. biology, chemistry, physics, geology, mathematics, geography, modern languages and educational sciences).[23] Concerns about autonomy and academic freedom were simply overlooked during the socialist period. One of the sectors in which the UEM participated actively was the training of teachers for secondary schools in order to expand the education system, as illustrated by the creation of the Faculty of Education in 1980. But apart from the Faculty of Education, other faculties were also created, such as the Faculty of Marxism-Leninism, which had the mission of providing education to all students, and the Faculty for Combatants and Vanguard Workers, designed to enable party cadres to acquire higher education.[24] Another way of facilitating access to higher education for Mozambicans was to send them abroad, in particular to socialist countries such as East Germany, the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria.

Until 1984, the UEM continued to be the sole HEI in the country. In 1985 and 1986 two new public HEIs came into existence, namely the Higher Pedagogical Institute (ISP) and the Higher

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20 Ibid.

21 Beverwjik (2005: 15).

22 Resolução 8/79 de 3 de Julho de 1979; Gonçalves (2007); Mário et al. (2003).

23 Mário et al. (2003).

24 Ibid.

Institute for International Relations (ISRI). The ISP was designed to train teachers and was founded after the closure of the UEM's Faculty of Education.

The *multi-party democracy and free market phase* covers the period from 1986 to date. During this period, the country experienced a transition from socialism to multi-party democracy and a market-driven economy. The transition process was initiated in the mid-1980s and ended with the adoption of a new constitution in 1990, which formalised the shift from a one-party political system to a multi-party democracy, as well as from socialism to market-oriented economic policies. The democratic transition also resulted in the end of the civil war in 1992 that had started soon after independence between the government, led by FRELIMO, and the rebel movement, Renamo (Mozambican National Resistance).

This fundamental socio-political and economic re-orientation had significant implications for the Mozambican higher education system. The most important change was the introduction of a new law, No. 1/93, revised in 2003.[25] This law marked the beginning of a 'new era' of multiple suppliers of higher education, including the opportunity for private institutions to participate. The new law also introduced the principles of 'autonomy' and 'academic freedom' to guide the functioning of HEIs, as reflected in the quotation below:

> *Autonomy is the capacity of higher education institutions to exercise their powers, perform the necessary obligations, to pursue academic freedom at an administrative, financial, patrimonial and scientific pedagogic level, according to the institutions' objectives, strategies of the sector, policies and national plans.[26]*

As a result of the law, new private HEIs were created. The first private university to open was the Higher Polytechnic and University Institute (ISPU) (later transformed into a polytechnic), followed by the Catholic University (UCM). Both were established in 1995. The ISPU and UCM were followed in 1998 by the Higher Institute of Science and Technology of Mozambique (ISCTEM), and by the Islamic Mussa Bin Bique University (UMBB). In 2000, the Higher Institute of Transport and Communication (ISUTC) was also established. From 2000 onwards private organisations, in particular business and denominational organisations, continued to actively participate in the creation of private HEIs and, by 2010, there were about 21 in the country.[27]

Alongside the foundation of private HEIs, from the late 1990s onwards, the government made efforts to expand the public sector of higher education. From 1999 to 2008, 14 new public HEIs were established, increasing the overall number of public institutions from three to 17. As the following section shows, a quick glance at the names of the newly founded public HEIs reveals that the government policy trend was to create professional and polytechnic higher institutes and/or

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25 Beverwijk (2005: 15); Langa (2006: 18); Mário et al. (2003: 10).
26 MESCT (2003).
27 DICES (2009); Taimo (2010).

schools, rather than traditional universities. Only two of the 14 newly established public institutions are labelled 'universities'; the other 12 are either higher institutes or higher schools, and each of them is designed to train professionals in a specific and precisely defined professional area.

At present there are at least 38 different HEIs operating in Mozambique, but the accurate number may be nearly or slightly over 42, as new institutions are founded every year, especially by private providers. Therefore, recent developments in the Mozambican higher education system display a process of expansion, differentiation and diversification (public vs. private; for-profit vs. non-profit; denominational vs. secular).

Trends of expansion, diversification and differentiation

As was highlighted in the section above, up until the mid-1980s, there was only one HEI in Mozambique, namely the UEM. There after two new public HEIs were established (the Higher Pedagogical Institute, which became the Pedagogic University (UP) in 1995, and the Higher Institute for International Relations. However, from 1995 onwards, the higher education landscape in Mozambique began to shift and, in particular, the number of both public and private HEIs increased at a rapid rate. Apart from the macro-political and economic context of peace, stability, democracy and economic growth at the time, three other factors were responsible for this rapid expansion of the sector.

Firstly, there was a shortage of qualified personnel in the country and few opportunities to attend higher education while, at the same time, there was high demand for personnel with university degrees. This led to an increase demand for higher education in Mozambique. Mário and colleagues note that in the 1990s, students in high-demand fields such as economics, management, law and engineering could secure employment before completing their courses.[28]

In the late 1990s, only 0.16% of the age cohort 20–25, or 40 in every 100 000 inhabitants, studied at a higher education institution.[29] Quoting the Strategic Plan for Higher Education (2000), Mário et al. mention that in 1999 there were 10 974 applicants for 2 342 available places at the UEM.[30] However, they also provide ratios illustrating that in the late 1990s, the excess of demand over supply characterised nearly all government institutions: at the UEM the ratio was 8:1; at the ISRI 9:1; at UP 9:4; and at the newly founded Academy of Police Sciences (ACIPOL) it was 3:1.[31] The high demand for higher education encouraged different stakeholders, both governmental and non-governmental, to create new HEIs. It also led the government to introduce competitive entrance examinations in 1991 as a means of selecting students for public HEIs.[32]

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28 Mário et al. (2003: 50).

29 Ibid.: 20.

30 Ibid.: 18.

31 Ibid.: 19.

32 Dias de Conceição MCL (1998).

The second factor responsible for the expansion of the higher education sector was the approval of Law 1/93. As mentioned above, this law created the legal conditions for the establishment of private HEIs. As a result, a range of non-governmental organisations began to establish new institutions. Two kinds of non-governmental groups were particularly active in this regard, namely religious communities (mainly Islamic and Christian) and business companies or corporations. By 2010, nearly all 21 private HEIs belonged either to denominations or corporations. But very recently, other stakeholders such as political parties have also entered the market of higher education.[33]

The third factor that accounted for the increase in the number of HEIs was the government's political will and intervention in the sector. Government intervention was driven not only towards enabling non-governmental organisations to participate in the provision of higher education, but also towards the extension of the public sector through the creation of more public institutions (see 'Historical background' above).

In summary, owing to these factors, the number of HEIs in Mozambique increased from three in 1994 to 46 in 2013. Table 1 below indicates the different institutional types within the higher education sector, both public and private.

Table 1: Higher education landscape in Mozambique (2013)

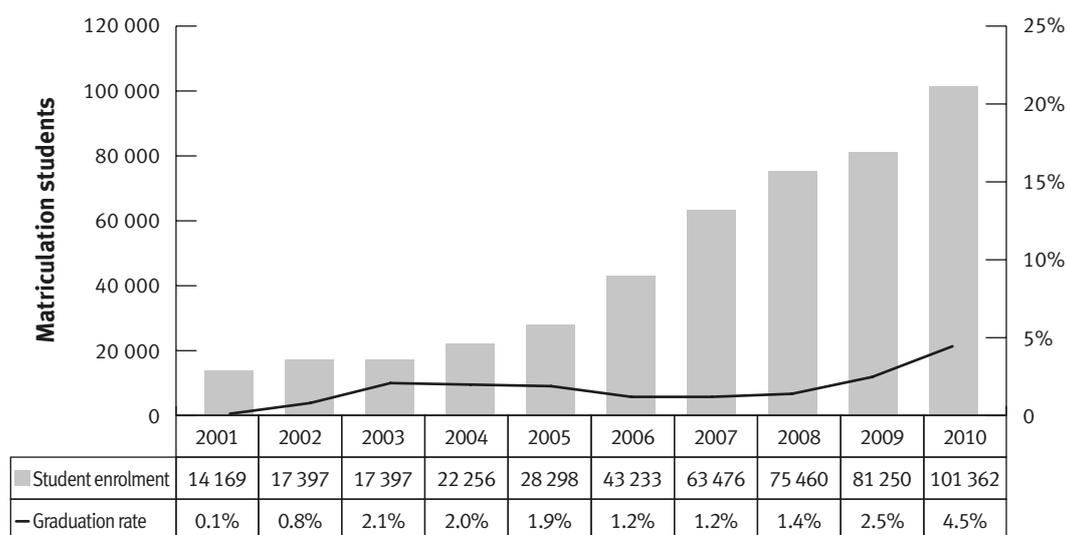| Institutional types	Number
Universities	**13**
Public	4
Private	9
Higher institutes	**23**
Public	6
Private	17
Polytechnics	**4**
Public	4
Private	0
Higher schools	**4**
Public	2
Private	2
Academies	**2**
Public	2
Private	0
Total	**46**
Public	18
Private	28

Source: MINED (2011).

33   For example, in 2011, the FRELIMO political party created the Nachingweia University (UNA).

Mozambican higher education has experienced considerable increases in the number of students as a result of the expansion and diversification policies of the last two decades. Since the mid-1990s, the number of students enrolled in higher education grew from less than 5 000 to more than 110 000 students. In 2000 the number of students in the system had already tripled and it continued to grow steadily. Nevertheless, according to the World Economic Forum's latest available figures, Mozambique's gross tertiary education enrolment rate was 1.5% in 2005,[34] which was the lowest in the sample of eight countries in the study. More recently, there are non-confirmed reports that the enrolment rate has increased to approximately 4%, but it is still one of the lowest on the continent.

Notwithstanding the success of increased enrolment, the graduation rates did not follow the same pattern. From 2001 to 2010 graduation rates increased from 0.1% to 4.5% of total student enrolment (see Figure 1 below). In response, government established the CNAQ as an instrument to create mechanisms to promote quality while at the same time encouraging HEIs to increase their graduation rates.

Figure 1: Evolution of higher education student numbers and graduation rates (2001–2010)

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Student enrolment	14 169	17 397	17 397	22 256	28 298	43 233	63 476	75 460	81 250	101 362
Graduation rate	0.1%	0.8%	2.1%	2.0%	1.9%	1.2%	1.2%	1.4%	2.5%	4.5%

Source: MINED (2012).

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34   WEF (2012).

2.2   Changes in higher education governance

In 1993, the first higher education law, Law No. 1/93, was enacted by parliament – which included provision for private institutions. Two years later, new private HEIs began to emerge, along with new public institutions.[35] These developments introduced some complexity into the higher education sub-system which, in turn, called for the need to rethink governance and coordination.

In 1999, former president Joaquim Chissano established a task team and commissioned a thorough assessment of and a report on the state of higher education in the country. The commission was established and chaired by the then minister in the presidency for social affairs, Dr Eneas Comiche, and became known as the Comiche Commission.[36] The commission recommended that a specific board should be established to examine higher education, science and technology. It was not clear in the recommendation whether that body should be a ministry, a department or a state secretariat, but they did reach a consensus that it was vital to have a specific institution to oversee the higher education sector.[37] Following the commission's recommendations, the MoE established another team to produce the first strategic plan for higher education in the country. In the plan, the task team endorsed the need for having a specific body to govern the higher education sector. Hitherto, no council for higher education had been established; there was only an informal association of rectors, the Council of Rectors of Mozambique (CRM) (see page 15).[38]

Prior to the enactment of Law No. 1/93, higher education in Mozambique was centrally controlled by the MoE. The principles of autonomy and academic freedom, stated in Law No. 1/93, significantly reduced the MoE's interference in the sector. Furthermore, HEIs ceased to be dependent on the ministry in many respects (e.g. with regard to the courses they could offer and the careers to be chosen by students).[39] The rectors' role in higher education policy-making was increased as a result of their appointment to the Higher Education Council (CES).

In the mid-1990s, owing to the challenges that the rapid expansion, diversification and differentiation of higher education had given rise to – such as coordination, quality assurance and supervision, regional and social equity – the government was called upon to play a crucial role in the sector once more. There was a consensus that a government board should be created to coordinate the sector at the national level. As a consequence, in 2000, the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology (MESCT) was established. The MESCT's mission was to guide and support the expansion and diversification of higher education, as well as to put science and technology on the government's agenda.

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35   Langa (2006).

36   Do Rosário (2012).

37   Interview with Prof. Arlindo Chilundo, Deputy Minister of Education, in charge of the higher education portfolio, July 2012.

38   Do Rosário (2012) regards the establishment of the CRM as one of first steps towards the self-regulation of HEIs in Mozambique.

39   Beverwijk (2005).

However, owing to disagreement among different key stakeholders (rectors, the CRM and the MESCT) concerning their respective power and influence in the sector,[40] the MESCT was dismantled in 2005 and higher education once again reverted to the MoE. A coordinating board, the National Directorate for Coordinating Higher Education (DICES), replaced the MESCT. The DICES responds directly to the MoE seeing as its national director is appointed by the minister of education.

According to Chilundo (2012), the dismantling of the MESCT was a major setback and represented a radical change in policy formulation for higher education. From an entity that was producing integrated policy and legislation to steer and coordinate higher education, higher education was relegated to a small directorate that took control of regulation in the sector. The directorate became the coordinating agency that would manage everything in the higher education sector – including legislation. However, Do Rosário (2012) argues that the dismantling of the MESCT was a consequence of its own failure to fulfil its mandate and of diverging from the recommendations of the Comiche Commission, mentioned earlier.

Most of the qualified staff in the MESCT did not move to the new directorate. Some left for international organisations, others returned to their teaching and research activities at the university and a few joined the new ministry of science and technology. The new directorate became a volatile entity, changing directors every now and then, and lacking the authority and legitimacy to deal with the higher institutions as a respected partner.

The new government that took office in 2010, following the 2009 general elections, also made significant changes in the governance structures in the education sector. A minister of education with three deputy ministers was appointed for the first time. Each of the deputy ministers was responsible for a particular portfolio, including the portfolio of higher education.

Today, higher education in Mozambique is governed through the structures established by the MoE including the DICES and a number of consultative bodies, namely the Council on Higher Education (CES), the National Council on Higher Education (CNES) and the National Council on Quality Assurance in Higher Education (CNAQ). These bodies have their legislative basis in the main higher education law, Law No. 27/2009 of 29 September, which is the primary legislative device that regulates the higher education system. Other subsidiary legislation mainly comprises decrees, norms and regulations produced by the different higher education governing bodies.[41]

The CES, CNES and CNAQ have specific functions and mandates as higher education governing and regulatory bodies which were established by decrees. The next section elaborates further on the creation and mandates of the councils.

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40   Ibid.

41   For instance, Decree No. 48/2010 of 11 November provides the regulation and norms to establish new HEIs, including the norms for licensing and issuing permits to start operating, and Decree No. 27/2011 of 25 July provides the regulations for institutional audits.

The genesis and structure of the higher education councils

The CNES, CES and the CNAQ constitute the current main councils in the governance of higher education in Mozambique.

The CNES was first established as the National Council on Higher Education, Science and Technology (CNESCT) in 2000. Following the restructuring of the former, the CNES was re-established in 2004 by Decree No. 30/2004 of 18 August. The major restructuring resulted from the dismantling of the MESCT (2000–2004), as described above.[42] The legal basis for the establishment of the CNES was Law No. 5/2003 of 21 January. The CES was established as a coordinating body and a forum in which the minister in charge of the higher education portfolio consults with representatives of all higher education institutions. The legal basis of the CES was also established by Law No. 5/2003. These two councils, the CES and CNES, were created to bring the government and all HEIs together at the national level in a collaborative effort to shape the mechanisms supporting policy implementation in the sector.[43]

The CNES is the consultative body for the Council of Ministers as well as a broader forum for overseeing the implementation and integration of planning processes between the higher education, science and technology sectors. The CNES evaluates policy implementation progress, and examines new policies and proposals before they reach the Council of Ministers for approval and law-making.[44] The CNES comprises representatives from various sections of government, the CES, research institutes and HEIs, business associations and civil society, as well as:[45]

- Up to five members of the CRM;
- Up to four faculty members and higher education students;
- Up to five representatives from research institutes and similar institutions;
- Up to three representatives from the business sector;
- Up to three representatives from civil society; and
- Up to five 5 representatives from the government.

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42 In 2005, the new government formed following the 2004 general election restructured a number of ministerial portfolios and their respective laws and regulations. Higher education and science and technology were split into two different ministries. The higher education law, Law No. 1/93, had already been reviewed in 2003 and a new law, Law No. 5/2003, was enacted. The current higher education law, Law No. 27/2009, brought some changes to Law No. 5/2003, but still maintained many aspects of Law No. 1/93. The CES, established by Law No. 5/2003, is maintained in Law No. 27/2009, but the National Council on Higher Education, Science and Technology (CNESCT), established by Law No. 5/2003, has changed back into the CNES (articles 11 and 12 of Law No. 27/2009).

43 Chilundo (2010).

44 The CNES plays a decisive role in making recommendations to the Council of Ministers with respect to the establishment of new HEIs.

45 See: Decree No. 29/2010 of 13 August.

The members of the CNES referred to above are appointed by the prime minister (on the recommendation of the minister who oversees the higher education sector) after consulting with the respective sectors. The CNES is chaired by the deputy minister of education who oversees the higher education portfolio.[46]

The CES is also a consultative board and in this capacity assists the deputy minister responsible for higher education. The CES is chaired by the deputy minister and comprises the leadership of the HEIs (both rectors and directors general). The council normally meets twice a year as well as whenever called to do so by the deputy minister responsible for higher education. Representatives of teachers and students of higher education may be invited to meetings whenever their participation is considered relevant. Some of the powers of the Council for Higher Education include (i) regularly reviewing the development, opportunities and constraints of the sector; (ii) proposing the basis for an academic credit system; and (iii) analysing issues related to academic mobility.[47]

A detailed discussion of the CNAQ's mandate is provided in section 3.

The Council of Rectors of Mozambique (CRM)

In addition to the CES and CNES, the CRM was established as a civil society entity. According to incumbent president Patrício José:

> *The Council of Rectors tries to influence the creation of new institutions of higher education. We ask for tougher rules so that higher education cannot be seen as a business that creates whatever institution it wants. It is not a business as per the usual understanding of the word. It is a business that carries enormous national responsibility – you are training a new generation of professionals, a new generation of human beings who have to undertake the duties of ruling this country, of stabilising it politically, economically and socially …[48]*

The Council was established as a pressure group to influence government policies in higher education. The director for the Council on Higher Education had this to say about the CRM:

> *It's more of an informal institution that deals with higher education, while formally we have this council [the CES]– which is formal and responds to the government and so on and so forth … the Council of Rectors also advises the ministry. Recently, we saw the prime minister, for example, seeking their advice. So they have their structure, their statutes, their meetings, the way they work. They think about and discuss higher education and then come up with proposals. When they are making a decision, they often discuss it with the formal council, the Council on Higher Education, because this council is presided over by the minister. Then*

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46 Law No. 27/2009 of 29 September.
47 Law No. 27/2009 of September, Art. 11.
48 Interview (July 2012).

they make the decision official by making concrete proposals to the government about necessary changes and improvements. The CRM even gives support in the sense that they can, for example, conduct research. They can make proposals to the government based on the research and say: we have observed that such and such is not working and so we are bringing it to your attention for consideration.[49]

Initially, the CRM was some sort of 'informal' (Chilundo, 2012) association of rectors, but was brought into higher education governance structures through the National Council on Higher Education.

The National Council [on Higher Education] is composed of six representatives from the Council of Rectors, and it's up to them to choose who will represent them. Now the Council of Rectors includes not just the rectors of universities but also directors general, representatives from employers' associations, business, civil society, students – there are all in all 21 members.[50]

The CRM plays a pivotal role in advising the government, mainly through participating in the decisions made by the CES and CNES.

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49 Interview (July 2012).
50 Interview (July 2012).

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Functions of the quality assurance bodies

Higher education accountability initiatives, beyond those of the institutions themselves, are an important feature of many higher education systems.[51] In some countries these accountability initiatives have long been institutionalised; yet in other countries they are a recent phenomenon.[52] Quality assurance systems are one of the instruments for ensuring the accountability of HEIs.[53] Increasingly, national quality assurance schemes are becoming a feature of the higher education landscape in Africa.[54] In order to promote and further strengthen academic mobility, a number of initiatives have been launched in Africa in recent years to develop common frameworks for comparable and compatible qualifications. Quality and quality assurance play a crucial role in these processes.

The majority of quality assurance agencies have been established since 2000, but not many are functional.[55] Making an exception, Kenya's Commission for Higher Education (CHE) was the first university-level accreditation agency to be established in Africa.

The mandates of the various national quality assurance systems differ, but mainly include a combination of the following:[56]

• Assessment of institutions or programmes;
• Approval of new academic programmes and courses;
• Setting minimum academic standards;
• Ranking institutions (Nigeria); and
• Annual performance monitoring.

The establishment of quality assurance mechanisms in Africa was a result of a dynamic set of factors, including the immediate concerns about the declining quality of higher education with the emergence of private HEIs and the need to regulate their activities. Most quality assurance agencies were initially only responsible for private institutions, but several of them now take responsibility for the entire higher education system.

Mozambique introduced institutional accreditation of HEIs mainly as an instrument to assure that new suppliers of higher education, especially private institutions, met minimum standards. The

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51 Wangenge-Ouma and Langa (2011).
52 Huisman and Currie (2004); Materu (2007).
53 Wangenge-Ouma and Langa (2011).
54 Materu (2007) and Hayward (2006) have mapped the various higher education quality assurance mechanisms in Africa.
55 Hayward (2006); Materu (2007).
56 Materu (2007); Wangenge-Ouma and Langa (2011).

need to accredit institutions was a direct consequence of the changes in the country's political economy (and of higher education), which led to the adoption of a neo-liberal and market-oriented economy in the 1990s, after failed attempts to build a socialist post-colonial society.[57] In this sense, institutional accreditation should be looked at as a mechanism adopted by government to issue licences (permission) for new public, but especially private, HEIs to operate in the country.[58] As mentioned in the previous section, new legislation was enacted (higher education laws Nos 1/93, 5/2003 and 27/2009) which established the regulatory framework and coordination mechanisms for the sector.

3.1 SINAQES

In the process of the implementation of the higher education legislation, Law No. 5/2003, we understood that we needed some specific regulations. They are various and one of them has to do with the quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms. It was in the wake of that process that it was decided that we should create an entity that would take care of quality assurance mechanisms. At the beginning, when we started discussions, we wanted to be completely autonomous from the ministry, and there were voices calling for the appointment of the chair of that body by the president [Head of State] so that we would enjoy more autonomy. But during the discussions some people – the majority of the people – just decided: no, we should not be at that level; we should be at the level of the prime minister, the chair could be appointed by the prime minister and, once appointed, would enjoy relative autonomy, but still would be responding to the minister of education or the minister who is supervising higher education.[59]

Quality assurance agencies, whether in Africa or globally, generally carry out quality assurance in three main domains: institutional accreditation, programme accreditation and institutional audits. In Mozambique, the National Council on Quality Assurance in Higher Education (CNAQ) was established as the implementing agency of the National System of Evaluation, Accreditation and Quality Assurance of Higher Education (SINAQES). The SINAQES was conceived as a system for integrating clear and consistent standards, procedures and mechanisms with the objective of ensuring the delivery of quality services from all actors and stakeholders.

Legal status

The need for the SINAQES – to adapt higher education to suit internal needs and to attain regional and international quality standards – was first legally established by Law No. 5/2003 of 21 January. The SINAQES was then established by Council of Ministers' Decree No. 63/2007 of 31 December. According to this decree, the SINAQES deals with the challenges posed by the increasing expansion

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57 Langa (2006, 2010); Wangenge-Ouma and Langa (2011).

58 Wangenge-Ouma and Langa (2011).

59 Interview with Arlindo Chilundo, Deputy Minister for Higher Education, MoE (July 2012).

of higher education coupled with the need for its harmonisation at national, regional and international level.

Mandate and attributes

The government regards quality assurance as an integral part of the set of steering instruments being developed for Mozambican higher education, and their successful implementation as essential for successfully concluding higher education reforms in Mozambique.[60] Effort was made by the government to establish the necessary conditions at both the level of the CNAQ and at the institutional level to enable successful quality assurance and accreditation in Mozambican higher education. The SINAQES' mandate covers the following:

- To develop and promote the principles and culture of the consistent quality of services provided by institutions of higher education;
- To identify, develop and implement standards and quality indicators;
- To inform society about the quality of teaching in HEIs;
- To assist in identifying problems in higher education and to outline mechanisms and policy proposals for their resolution; and
- To contribute to the integration of Mozambican higher education with the region and the world.

Quality assurance structure

The SINAQES comprises: the self-assessment sub-system, the external evaluation sub-system, and the accreditation sub-system.

The *self-assessment sub-system* integrates standards, mechanisms and procedures which are operated by the HEIs themselves. Self-assessment is the starting point for quality assurance in higher education and has the important function of encouraging HEIs to take on the culture of quality in the first instance. The main objectives of the self-assessment are:

- To assess the quality of the institution, courses or programmes with reference to the mission and quality standards established by law;
- To create and develop a culture of quality and self-assessment within institutions of higher education;
- To contribute to the identification of specific problems at HEIs as a first step to solving them and improving quality; and
- To provide the information and data required for external evaluation process.

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60 MINED (2012).

The *external evaluation sub-system* integrates the standards, mechanisms and procedures operated by entities outside the institutions of higher education. External evaluation checks and validates the HEIs' self-assessments and grants accreditation, focusing on institutional quality as well as on the quality of courses and programmes. The main objectives of external evaluation are:

• To contribute to the identification of specific problems within target institutions in particular, and within higher education nation-wide so as to contribute to their resolution and to improve the quality of higher education;
• To assess the quality of HEIs, their courses and programmes with reference to their missions and the pre-established standards and strategic objectives of higher education in Mozambique;
• To assess the quality of all HEIs' self-assessment processes; and
• To provide HEIs, implementing agencies and the SINAQES with criteria for the accreditation process.

Accreditation is seen as the culmination of the external evaluation process whereby the quality of HEIs and their courses and programmes are certified by the SINAQUES' implementing agency. The main objectives of the *accreditation sub-system* are:

• To formalise and make public both the quality status of an institution itself as well as of its courses and programmes as determined by external evaluation;
• To provide independent and objective bases for establishing fair competition between HEIs and their courses and programmes;
• To contribute to the identification of state or private institutions of higher learning and their courses and programmes;
• To provide information to the public on the relevant criteria for choosing a tertiary institution, course or programme.

3.2 CNAQ

Legal status, mandate, structure and resources

The CNAQ was established in 2007 by Council of Ministers' Decree No. 63/2007 of 3 December to oversee the implementation of the SINAQES. The CNAQ is established as a public institution with a legal identity, and as such has administrative and technical autonomy under public law.

The CNAQ's mandate includes the following:

• To approve the regulations for conducting assessment and accreditation and to submit them to the higher education minister for approval;
• To approve the technical standards, guidelines, instructions, procedures and mechanisms of evaluation and accreditation, after listening to the HEIs and other stakeholders in the SINAQES;
• To accredit HEIs' courses and/or programmes;

- To define and approve the SINAQES' strategies, programmes and operational plans; and
- To submit its own procedures and rules of operation to the higher education minister for approval.

On paper,[61] the CNAQ comprises a president, three directors with executive functions and five non-executive members. According to its legal statutes (Decree No. 64/2007 of 31 December), the president of the CNAQ is appointed by the prime minister, upon the proposal of the higher education minister in consultation with the CNES. The three executive directors and the five non-executive members are appointed by the higher education minister after the positions have been advertised and all applicants have been interviewed and their CVs reviewed. In addition to standard requirements, candidates must have proven experience in the management and leadership of public institutions and possess a doctoral degree.[62]

The political and legal devices for institutionalising the CNAQ also include the Order of the Prime Minister of 18 December 2008 for appointing the CNAQ president as well as Decree No. 54/2009 of 8 September, which establishes its principles and rules.

Finances, human resources and physical infrastructure

The CNAQ receives funds from three main sources, namely the state budget, the World Bank, and the Dutch higher education aid agency Nuffic through its Netherlands Initiative for Capacity Development in Higher Education (NICHE) project (Table 2 below). The budgetary funds of the partners are not held directly by the CNAQ. The DICES (*Direcção para a Coordenação do Ensino Superior* – the directorate for the coodination of higher education) in the education ministry through the Higher Education Science and Technology (HEST) project is responsible for the management of funds provided by the World Bank, while the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies at the University of Twente in the Netherlands manages the Nuffic-NICHE funds.

Of the Nuffic-NICHE funding, 26% was reserved for the direct management of the CNAQ, 20% for infrastructure and equipment, and 6% for direct institutional costs for the four-year period of July 2011 to June 2015. The overall projected funding amounts to EUR 1 354 175. To date, the government has been the CNAQ's main funder, but is likely that HEIs will become involved as well.

The provision of CNAQ staff was approved by Act (Ministerial Diploma) No. 132/2011 of 18 May. In total there are meant to be 53 staff members including the board of executive and non-executive directors, experts and different levels of support staff, functioning as the organisation's secretariat. By and large, the CNAQ recruited unqualified staff; that is, people with only general basic and higher education certificates. However, there are a few exceptions in the board, which has a number of higher education experts and reputable higher education practitioners, that is,

61 See section 4.2.
62 CNAQ statutes, Decree No. 64/2007 of 31 December.

former deans and university professors. By 2013, less than 50% of the staff had their contracts completed and legally recognised.

Table 2: Financial situation of the CNAQ

Sources	2010	2011	2012	2013
State budget	MZN 272 665	MZN 3 000 000	MZN 30 866 790	MZN 38 438 060
World Bank	–	USD 150 000	USD 350 000	USD 200 000
Nuffic-NICHE	EUR 50 000	EUR 58 800	EUR 689 716	EUR 226 391

Source: CNAQ (2013).

When the CNAQ was first established, there wasn't a secretariat yet and it was housed within the MoE building on the twentieth floor. From 2008 to about 2010, the president and five technicians, seconded mainly from the MoE and other state departments, were the only staff members. In 2012, the CNAQ moved to rented premises, following pressure from donors (who had allocated a budget for the acquisition of proper premises) as well as complaints from the MoE, which wanted its offices on the twentieth floor back. By the time the CNAQ started renting its current premises, the board had been appointed and the secretariat had expanded – with the result that the new premises proved to be inadequate.

3.3   Other role players in quality assurance

In addition to the roles played by the CNAQ and SINAQES, the following also form part of the set of institutions and bodies involved in assuring the delivery of quality services:

- The HEIs and all their actors (managers, students, teachers, researchers, the technical and administrative staff) through appropriate internal evaluation mechanisms as well as through external evaluation teams;
- Employers working within the sector, who providing and receive the relevant data on the impact of higher education graduates in company service;
- Civil society organisations by means of dialogue and the sharing of relevant data on the operation of higher education; and
- Professional boards and socio-professional organisations (e.g. medical associations, lawyers' bars), who collaborate with the SINAQES' implementing agency and participate in external evaluation and accreditation review teams.

4

Key issues

In the five years since its establishment, the CNAQ has not yet conducted even its first round of evaluations of the sector, nor does it have any functional structures. Particular problems are highlighted below.

4.1 Inadequate premises

Since its establishment in 2007 up to about 2010, the CNAQ made no significant strides with regards to its mandate. A remarkable inertia has characterised the institutionalisation process.

The absence of a proper physical infrastructure is just one example of this sluggishness. The CNAQ is currently housed in a building originally intended as a family home, which is clearly both unsuitable and inappropriate. There isn't sufficient office space, with the secretariat staff scattered between a cottage on the grounds and a small room on the twentieth floor of the MoE building; and meetings with more than 15 people have to take place in a rented conference room there too. This situation prevailed despite a substantial budget and an oversupply of empty, modern buildings in Maputo. However, since the induction of new leadership in March 2014, attempts are being made to procure proper offices in Maputo.

4.2 Powers, autonomy and accountability

Initially, the CNAQ was supposed to have a high degree of autonomy, with its president appointed by the head of state and accountable only to parliament. However, these conditions were never fulfilled:

> At the beginning when we started discussions, we wanted to be completely autonomous from the ministry, and there were voices calling for the appointment of the chair of that body by the head of state so that we would enjoy more autonomy. But the majority of the people decided, no, we should not be at that level, the chair should be appointed by the prime minister and, once appointed, should enjoy relative autonomy while reporting to the minister of education or the minister in charge of higher education.[63]

Formally, the CNAQ is directly accountable to the minister in charge of of higher education in all cases where the Act specifically requires the minister to give approval. These include the power to promulgate rules, regulations or statutes governing the exercise of various functions of the CNAQ, decisions concerning the accreditation of institutions, and the implementation of the minister's directions.[64] However, the CNAQ president has been known to flout this stipulation in certain

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63 Interview (July 2012).

64 Art. 3, CNAQ statute.

circumstances, thus undermining the harmonisation of the CNAQ's activities with those of the ministry. In any case, because the power of the minister is more procedural and political, the CNAQ's actual accountability is minimal. Given that approval is required for technical matters, it is unlikely the minister would deviate from the CNAQ's recommendations. Input from the deputy minister, who happens to have more in-depth knowledge, is often disregarded by the CNAQ.

The CNAQ is also supposed to be directly accountable to the prime minister in matters concerning higher education policy formulation and planning. Interactions to date, however, seem to have more to do with political expedience.

The CNAQ is required to maintain proper accounts and accounting records, to be audited every year. As part of the government's public financial management (PFM) reform as well as general public sector reform to promote good governance, the CNAQ is required to apply the SISTAFE[65] norms and regulations. The SISTAFE law covers five functions (i.e. public sector budgeting, accounting, fixed-asset management, treasury operations, and internal control) and sets out a vision for public financial management in line with international standards.

The CNAQ is also required to submit a comprehensive report on its operations to be presented at the CES and CNES in a manner prescribed by the minister. However, since its establishment, the reports presented at different forums, whether at the CES, CNES or the higher education national meeting (RENES),[66] are compiled and presented exclusively by the CNAQ president without the participation of the executive and non-executive directors.

Given that the CNAQ receives funding from international donors, in particular from the Dutch agency Nuffic and the World Bank, the power to occasionally withhold or reduce funding serves as the most potent inducement for the CNAQ to discharge its activities effectively and diligently. However, such power may undermine the CNAQ's operational independence.

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65 SISTAFE stands for *Sistema de Administração Financeira do Estado*, approved by Law No. 09/2002 and regulated by the Decree 23/2004.
66 *Reunião Anual do Ensino Superior* – these are annual meetings organised by the Directorate for the Coordination of Higher Education for planning and coordinating the sector.

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Interview respondents (July 2012)

Arlindo Chilundo (Deputy Minister for Higher Education, Ministry of Education)

Denise Malauene (Former Director: Directorate for the Coordination of Higher Education, Ministry of Education)

Hilario Langa (Director: Accreditation, Regulations and Statistics, CNAQ)

Patricio José (Chairperson: Council of Rectors)

Patricio Langa (Director: External Evaluations and Acting Director: Internal Evaluations, CNAQ)

Appendix: List of public and private HEIs in Mozambique (2013)

Public HEIs	Year	Head office	Branches/Delegations by province/Districts
Universities			
Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM)	1962	Maputo	Gaza, Inhambane, Zambézia
Pedagogical University (UP)	1985	Maputo	All provinces, except for Maputo-Province
University of Lúrio (Uni-Lúrio)	2006	Nampula	Cabo Delgado, Niassa
University of Zambeze (Uni-Zambeze)	2006	Sofala	Tete, Manica, Zambézia
Higher Institutes			
Higher Institute of International Relations (ISRI)	1986	Maputo	–
Higher Institute of Health Sciences (ISCISA)	2003	Maputo	Zambézia
Higher Institute of Accounting and Audit of Mozambique (ISCAM)	2005	Maputo	–
Higher Institute of Public Administration (ISAP)	2005	Maputo	Nampula, Sofala, Inhambabe, Gaza
Higher Institute of Arts & Culture (ISArC)	2008	Maputo Province – Machava	–
Higher Institute of Defence Studies (ISEDEF)	2011	Maputo Province	–
Polytechnics			
Higher Polytechnic Institute of Songo (ISPS)	2008	Songo-Tete	–
Higher Polytechnic Institute of Tete (ISPT)	2005	Tete	–
Higher Polytechnic Institute of Manica (ISPM)	2005	Manica	–
Higher Polytechnic Institute of Gaza (ISPG)	2005	Gaza	–
Higher Schools			
Higher School of Nautical Science (ESCN)	2004	Maputo	–
Higher School of Journalism (ESJ)	2008	Maputo	–

	Year	Head office	Branches/Delegations by province/Districts
Academies			
Academy of Police Sciences (ACIPOL)	1999	Maputo	Manica
Samora Machel Military Academy (AM)	2003	Nampula	–
Private HEIs			
Universities			
Catholic University of Mozambique (UCM)	1995	Sofala Province	Inhambane, Manica, Tete, Zambézia, Nampula, Niassa & Cabo-Delgado
Polytechnic University - A-politécnica	1995	Maputo	Gaza, Tete, Niassa, Nampula, & Zambézia,
Muissa Bin-Bique University (UMBB)	1998	Nampula	Inhambane, Zambézia, Cabo-Delgado, Niassa & Maputo
Jean Piaget University (UJPM)	2004	Sofala Province	–
Saint Thomas University of Mozambique (USTM)	2004	Maputo	Gaza,
Technical University of Mozambique (UDM)	2002	Maputo	–
Adventist University of Mozambique (UAM)	2011	Sofala- Province	–
Nachinguwea University (UNA)	2011	Maputo Province	–
Indico University (Ind)	2008	Maputo	–
Higher Institutes			
Higher Institute of Technological Sciences of Mozambique (ISCTEM)	1996	Maputo	–
Higher Institute of Transport and Communications (ISUTC)	1999	Maputo	–
Higher Institute of Technology and Management (ISTEG)	2008	Maputo Province	–
Higher Institute Dom Bosco Higher (ISDB)	2006	Maputo	–
Mary Mother of Africa Higher Institute (ISMMA)	2008	Maputo	–
Monitor Higher Institute (ISM)	2008	Maputo	–
Higher Institute of Technological Education (ISET)	2005	Maputo Province	–
Higher Institute of Communication and Image (ISCIM)	2008	Maputo	–

	Year	Head office	Branches/Delegations by province/Districts
Higher Institute of Training , Research and Science (ISFIC)	2005	Maputo Province	–
Higher Institute of Management, Commerce and Finance (ISGECOF)	2009	Maputo	Niassa, Tete
Higher Christian Institute (ISC)	2004	Tete	–
Higher Institute of Science and Technology Alberto Chipande (ISCTAC)	2009	Sofala	Maputo, Cabo-Delgado
Higher Institute of Science and Management (INSCIG)	2009	Nampula – Nacala-Porto	Maputo
Higher Institute of Business Management (ISGN)	2011	Manjakaze/Gaza	–
Higher Institute for the Study of Local Development (ISEDEL)	2012	Maputo Province	–
Higher Institute Mutassa (ISMU)	2012	Manica	–
Higher Institute of Education Management and Administration (ISGEA)	2013	Maputo	–
Higher Schools			
Higher School of Economics and Management (ESEG)	2004	Maputo	Tete, Cabo-Delgado, Manica, Gaza
Escola Superior, Corporativa Social (ESCS)	2013	Maputo Province	–

Compiled by Patrício Langa (last updated, November 2013).

Source: MINED (2011). Special thanks to Graciano Cumaio.