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Education in Uganda

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Foreword

A STRIKING*PHENOMENON of the last few years has been the mounting interest among citizens of the United States in the developing areas of the world—particularly perhaps the area of middle Africa. Since 1960 most of the countries in this area have gained their independence and are confronting the great problems of nation building and economic development. The entire region shows both a popular enthusiasm for education and a conviction among leaders that education is a key to economic and social development—an enthusiasm and conviction almost unsurpassed anywhere else in the world.

It is not surprising, then, that during recent years an increasing number of Africans have come to study in the United States and hundreds of Americans have traveled in the opposite direction to teach in African schools or otherwise help develop African educational systems. Administrators of American institutions having African students, teachers of comparative education and social studies, persons engaged in programs for educational assistance in Africa, and others, have reflected a demand for basic information on the educational systems of that continent. This bulletin on education in Uganda is one response to the need.

The author, Professor of International Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, spent several months in Uganda during academic year 1960-61 lecturing at the Institute of Education, Makerere College. During this period he consulted with educators, visited educational institutions, and gathered materials for the present study.

This bulletin describes various levels and types of education in Uganda with emphasis upon curriculum and course content. It is based to a large extent on selected documents concerning education published or issued by the Uganda Government or schools from 1953 through 1962. (See the appendix for recent recommendations by the Uganda Education Commission for

changes in the country's educational system.) The bulletin contains summaries of several of these documents that are not widely available in the United States, and extensive excerpts from some of them, such as course syllabuses used in the Uganda schools. This basic information and selected documentation should serve, then, to increase American understanding of education in that country.

The author and the Office of Education wish to express their appreciation to the great number of African and British teachers and other educational personnel in Uganda who supplied documents and literature for the study and who otherwise facilitated his pursuit of it during and after his stay in the country. While he was there the following persons were especially helpful: Mr. Christopher Bell, Director of Education; Mr. Frank Stevens, Chief Inspector of Education; Miss Margaret Bruckerfield, Director of Women's Education; and Mrs. Polly Bright, Examinations Secretary.

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The Land, the People, and the Government



The Land

Uganda, a country about the size of Great Britain, lies entirely inland, with its main town, Kampala, approximately 900 miles from the East African coast. To the north of Uganda lies the Sudan; to the south, Ruanda-Urundi and Tanganyika; to the east, Kenya; and to the west, the Kivu province of the Belgian Congo.

The name Uganda comes from the Swahili "U-ganda," meaning "garden country." The Ruwenzori mountain range, called by Ptolemy the "mountains of the moon," is in the western part of the country; and either wholly or partially within its boundaries are Lakes Albert, Edward, George, Kyoga, and Victoria. The average year-round temperature is 60-80 degrees Fahrenheit.

The People

Three Main Groups

Between 1948 and 1959 Uganda's population growth was 31.8 percent, or approximately 2.5 percent a year. By mid-1960, the total estimated population had reached 6,682,400, with Africans comprising over 98 percent. Among the remaining 2 percent, the Asians were estimated to have 76,200 and the Europeans 11,700. The former engage mostly in trade, while the latter (usually not permanently settled in the country, intending sometime to return home) fill administrative, professional, and technical jobs.

The Africans

Of mixed Bantu, Hamitic, and Nilotic origin, the Africans in Uganda comprise 28 tribes. The most numerous of these tribes is the Baganda.

Although Uganda has no universal language, English is the language of Government, primary school upper grades, secondary schools, and higher education. Broadcasting is done in six African vernaculars, English, and Hindustani, and newspapers are published in six African languages and in English.

The majority of Africans gain their living from agriculture, cattle raising, and fishing. Primarily an agricultural country, Uganda derives 60 percent of its domestic production from agriculture. In 1950, African farmers in this country received £9,400,000 for their products and in 1959 £25,800,000. In 1962, according to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, "Uganda's per capita gross domestic product at present is estimated as being in the neighborhood of £23, which is higher than Tanganyika's but lower than Kenya's."¹

Uganda's economic expansion has depended primarily on farmers' growing cash crops in addition to the food they grow to sustain themselves. Of their cash crops, cotton and coffee are the most important, accounting for 80 percent of the country's export earnings. Since the country's economy depends upon these earnings, the Government during World War II established marketing boards to control prices paid to growers. The Government has utilized the prices received on the international market for cotton and coffee as an assistance fund to help farmers when those prices dropped.

In addition, the Government used money from the same source to initiate public development projects. The high world-market prices for cotton and coffee during the late 1940's and the early 1950's were responsible for Uganda's prosperity during those years, when it expanded Government services, including those for education and health. Also, using funds from export taxes and marketing boards, the Government attempted to broaden the base of the country's economy by helping to finance new industries. Cement and textile factories were opened, and copper mining and refining facilities started. In 1954 this method of financing resulted in the opening of the Owen

¹ *The Economic Development of Uganda*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1962. p. 25.

Falls hydroelectric project, with transmission lines in the southern part of the country.

These recent developments in industry and mining have caused more and more Uganda Africans to become urban dwellers. Thus, the population of Kampala, Uganda's commercial center, has grown to 47,000; and that of Jinja, Mbale, and Entebbe to 30,000, 13,500, and 11,000, respectively. Nevertheless, fewer than 4 percent of the Africans, it is estimated, live in an urban environment. Traditionally, they have preferred to live in farm houses set apart from each other within the area occupied by their particular tribes. In this sense, these holdings resemble the farm houses of the United States.

Uganda's prosperity of the late 1940's and early 1950's, mentioned above, of necessity contracted when cotton and coffee prices fell. In 1962, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development reported: "But the point has now been reached when the full impact of the reduced cotton and coffee income on the level of public revenue and expenditure is being felt. The financing of public expenditures has thus become difficult again."¹

The Government

In 1862 the famous British explorers Speke and Grant reached the court of Mutesa, the *kabaka* (king) of Buganda, and reported to an Africa-conscious Britain the discovery of a highly developed African kingdom. In the years that followed, British missionaries were sent to the area. During the same last quarter of the 19th century various European countries were extending their control in Africa, and in 1890, by an Anglo-German agreement, the region encompassing Uganda was declared a British sphere of influence. By 1896 a British Protectorate had been proclaimed over Buganda and almost the entire area later known as Uganda.²

Following World War I the British established executive and legislative councils to assist the Governor of Uganda in ruling the country. Such councils have been among the most conspicuous features of British colonial policy. The former consisted of official advisers to the Governor, while the latter served as a legislature.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

² In addition to the kingdom of Buganda, the area included the kingdoms of Toro, Ankole, and Bunyoro. The British reached final agreement with Toro in 1900, Ankole in 1901, and Bunyoro in 1933.

Members of both were appointed by the Governor, and by a gradual increase in their strength, power was transferred from the Governor to the councils.⁴

With the councils concerning themselves with national problems, a system of local government was gradually extended throughout the Protectorate. Local chiefs had been the executive officers of local government, which from 1934 on became more systemized. Composed of senior officials, chiefs, and elected members, the councils became the most important organ of local government. They were accorded increasingly greater responsibility for local services such as primary education, rural public health, and agricultural extension work.

In April 1958, the Governor announced that the Government would aim to introduce direct elections for all representatives of the Legislative Council in 1961. As a first step, elections of African members for the Council were held in approximately half the Protectorate's constituencies. In order to vote a person could be qualified by meeting one of a variety of requirements: literacy, ownership or occupation of land, income or property of a certain value, or long service in certain types of employment. The *lukiko* (parliament) of the Buganda Government⁵ refused to participate in the elections as did the districts of Ankole and Bugisu.⁶

In preparation for the direct elections of 1961 the Governor announced the formation of a committee to consider constitutional advance and procedures for these elections, under the chairmanship of J. V. Wild, Administrative Secretary for Uganda. The majority of the committee members were African. The committee published a report in 1959 and the implications of that report were discussed in London by the British Secretary of State for the Colonies, representatives of the Uganda Legislative Council, and representatives from Buganda. Following their discussions, the Secretary outlined the next steps for constitutional advance: direct elections in Uganda, broadened qualifications for voting to permit nearly universal suffrage, a legislative council having a substantial elected majority, and transformation of the Executive Council into a Council of Ministers.

⁴ For a more detailed description of executive and legislative council establishment, see Lord Hailey's *An African Survey*, rev. 1956. London: Oxford University Press, 1957. pp. 284-89.

⁵ As an old African kingdom, Buganda had its own governmental system. The *kabaka* (king) is a hereditary position. Assisting him is the *lukiko* (parliament). The Buganda have always been greatly concerned over maintaining their independence as much as possible. On December 31, 1960 the *lukiko* supported a resolution in favor of immediate secession. A declaration of independence followed, but it was not recognized by the Uganda Government.

⁶ For administrative purposes Uganda is divided into four provinces (Eastern, Western, Northern, and Buganda). Within the provinces, districts serve as organs of local government.

The Governor of Uganda then announced the formation of a commission that would study the problems of the various sections of the country and would consider what type of government might be most suited to a self-governing Uganda. The Commission was established in November 1960 under the chairmanship of the Earl of Munster, former British Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies.

In March 1961 Uganda held its first general elections. Two hundred candidates ran for office and the elections gave a majority to the Democratic Party. In the postelection Government, 10 members of this party who had been members of the legislature accepted posts as ministers.

In July 1961 the Munster Commission published its report, which recommended a strong central government for Uganda; a federal relationship for Buganda; semifederal relationships for the kingdoms of Ankole, Bunyoro, and Toro; a national assembly; universal adult suffrage; and a government following the British Cabinet Conventions. For Buganda, the report recommended direct elections to the *lukiko* and a division of power between it and the National Assembly on some Buganda issues.

The Munster Commission's report formed the basis for discussions at a constitutional conference held in London. Attending the conference were ministers from Uganda; members of the Uganda legislature; representatives from the four kingdoms of Ankole, Buganda, Bunyoro, and Toro; and representatives from the districts.

This conference and subsequent discussions led to agreement on a constitution for a self-governing Uganda. Basically, the governmental pattern is similar to that found in other areas of English-speaking Africa: a Prime Minister and ministers of various departments representing the majority party, a National Assembly, and universal suffrage. The constitution guarantees fundamental rights and freedoms. Agreements were reached with the four kingdoms to safeguard their traditional institutions and guarantee certain rights in local affairs.

In April 1962 the Uganda's People's Congress won the national election and a new Government was formed. On October 9, 1962 Uganda became an independent nation.

The Country's Educational History



Early Patterns

Before the arrival of missionaries in Uganda, education was carried on privately within the various tribal groups. Among the Nilotic people it was customary for young people to attend meetings of the elders who heard discussions of disputes among the people of the community. In this way, it was felt, the youth would learn the laws and customs of the people. Youths from the royal families of the Buganda Kingdom were trained as pages in the royal courts. By this method they became acquainted with the outstanding people of the country and were brought into the operation of the Kingdom.

Koranic schools were introduced in the few areas where Islam had penetrated. But the basic education for the majority of boys and girls was learning the pattern of accepted economic, social, and political behavior from their parents and the community.

Missionary Schools

With the beginning of missionary activity, western education became an important part of the process of conversion to Christianity. Most of the missionary groups required that the individual be able to read—and in some cases, to write—before being accepted as a convert. These groups viewed reading as essential in order that the individual might read the Bible and religious literature, and many of the groups felt that reading coupled with discussion would lead to a greater awareness of the depths of religious concern. It would, they hoped, lead to the individual's having not only a better understanding of Christianity's scope but also a greater appreciation of his responsibilities as a convert.

It therefore became the pattern for missionaries to gather around them groups of natives interested in the new religion and teach these

natives simple literacy. In most cases the missionaries first had to create a written form of the local language and usually, although hardly trained as linguists, they produced working translations of the Bible.

The beginning of missionary activity in Uganda may be considered as having started with Stanley's dispatch of November 15, 1875 to the *London Daily Telegraph*, part of which read as follows: "It is the practical Christian tutor who can teach people how to become Christians, cure their diseases, construct dwellings, understand and exemplify agriculture, and turn his hand like a sailor—that is a man who is wanted."¹

The Church Missionary Society²

The reaction in England was almost immediate. An anonymous donor contributed £5,000 to the Church Missionary Society, additional donations followed, and the Society sent out its first missionaries to Africa. Stanley's emphasis upon a missionary's being a jack-of-all-trades was characteristic of this first group and has been a requirement for most missionaries from then on even up to the present. Within the first group going to Uganda under the Society, the following occupations were represented: lieutenant of the Royal Navy, trained engineer, architect, curate, skilled artisan, builder, and doctor.

The first missionaries of the Society to reach Uganda arrived in 1877. The work of Alexander MacKay of this Society was typical of that carried on by his fellow missionaries, both of this Society and of other church groups as well. He established a workshop for ironwork, carpentry, and other artisan skills quickly put to use in the building of the mission station, whose construction would not have been possible without the help of the natives he had trained.

Having with great foresight brought along a printing press, MacKay began translating the Gospels into the vernacular of the locality, or Luganda. At the same time he taught the people reading and writing, thus preparing them for the advent of his translation.

¹ Quoted by Mary Stuart in her *Land of Promise*. London: Wyman and Barr, 1968, p. 22.

² Although the Society was not officially sponsored by the Church of England, the majority of its members came from this denomination.

Still another phase of the Society's missionary activities was that connected with its efforts to teach the people how to improve their crop-growing methods.

Boarding Schools

As the missionariaies became more firmly established, the next step in educational development was to offer for a few an education more closely aligned to the European pattern. For this selected group the missionaries established boarding schools. They did so for several reasons. First, there was undoubtedly the English and continental tradition of the boarding type of school. Second, the missionaries felt that in the boarding school it would be easier to extend the influence of the missionary effort. It would be difficult to influence children if they returned at the end of the day to an environment completely different and in some ways possibly contradictory to the philosophy of the school. Third, there was, and remains, the problem of transporting children from long distances. The school could draw children from a much wider area if they did not have to return to their homes at night.

Restricted both in finance and staff, the early schools were established for the sons of prominent families. The Mill Hill Fathers were the first to open a school for the sons of the important families at Namilyango.³ Opened in 1901, the school became popular with the prominent Roman Catholic families and several of the *Kabaka's* family were educated there. The curriculum, designed to educate potential leaders, was mainly academic, with a heavy emphasis on English grammar and the reading of English books. Geography and mathematics were also studied.

Namilyango became the prototype of many other schools. The Church Missionary Society opened a boarding school, Mengo High School, for the sons of chiefs. As an attempt to stimulate the interest of parents and, at the same time reduce cost, the school was organized into a house system. The boys' parents built the houses and were responsible for maintaining the boys while at school. In 1906 the *kabaka* granted a site to establish a school at Budo, the historical area where the *kabakas* had been invested with their titular position. In honor of the *kabaka*, it was called King's School.

³ Kenneth Ingham. *The Making of Modern Uganda*. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1958. p. 123.

For girls, Gayaza was opened in 1905 by the Church Missionary Society. Like Budo and Namilyango, it was designed for the children (daughters in this case) of chiefs and outstanding people of the community.

The missions were also active at the primary school level and in the field of teacher training. The problem of content of education remained an issue of debate. Despite several financial limitations, the missions attempted to introduce practical elements in the curriculum. For example, at King's School they provided a workshop and taught courses in technical skills. The Church Missionary Society eventually turned over its work in technical fields to the Uganda Company, which was better equipped to offer training in technical subjects.

The limitations of finance forced many missions to support themselves as much as possible from local resources. The Mill Hill Missions raised the food for their schools in garden plots attached to the school. Agricultural education was considered an important item in the curriculum, and the school garden provided an opportunity for demonstration lessons.

Early 20th Century

In the early period, missionary efforts were concentrated primarily in the Buganda Kingdom of Uganda. In 1903 the Church Missionary Society reported having 22,000 children in its schools. In 1904, the Society established a Board of Education and during the same year the question of compulsory education was raised. Also during the early years of the 20th century the Church Missionary Society opened a teacher-training college at Namirembe and a midwife-training school at Mengo hospital, while the White Fathers opened a teacher-training college at Rubaga.

For technical education, the Church Missionary Society established a school at Karabaga, province of Bunyoro; and the White Fathers, one at Kisibi.

Although development outside Buganda came slowly, a high school was opened in the Eastern Province in 1911. Practically no secondary education at all was available in the area of the West Nile and Acholi until the Verona Fathers Mission became active after the end of World War II.

During the post-World War I period, the Protectorate Government was primarily concerned with establishing a stable administration, spending little time, effort, or money on what was viewed as social

services. Previously, the Government had allocated small sums to missionary groups to support education—£850, for example, to the Church Missionary Society in 1913.

Modern Education

Expansion

The history of modern education in Uganda may be considered as having started in the years following World War I. In 1925 a Department of Education was established and a Director of Education appointed. The period from World War I to World War II was marked by gradual expansion of schools, increased government subsidization to voluntary agencies operating schools, and greater Central Government control over school management.

Despite the demands of World War II, every effort was made to continue expanding education. With the close of the war, schools expanded rapidly and Government support of education increased markedly. More funds, available from the export of Uganda crops during and immediately after the war, ushered in a period of greater prosperity than Uganda had enjoyed in the past and permitted an expansion of social services. In 1917-18 the Government was allocating £1,250 for educational purposes; by 1948 the total estimated expenditure was £410,087. It was in the 1950's, however, that education was developed rapidly. Expenditures for education increased from £715,000 in 1950 to over £5 million in 1960.

As schools expanded quickly both the Government and the voluntary agencies felt increasing concern for the direction that education would take in Uganda. In March 1952, the governor appointed a committee to examine the existing system of African education in the country, consider how it could be improved and expanded, and submit detailed recommendations for its future organization and development. The chairman of the committee was Bernard de Bunsen, principal of Makerere College. The committee's report, *African Education in Uganda*,⁴ served as the basic guide line for the development

⁴Bernard de Bunsen. *African Education in Uganda*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1958.

of African education during most of the 1950's.⁵ The main recommendations of the committee included the following:

- ◆ the reorganization and expansion of the system of teacher-training . . .
- ◆ the improvement of the conditions and terms of service of teachers of all categories
- ◆ the expansion of secondary education, on which turns turns recruitment of teachers for senior primary and secondary classes, for training college staffs, and of men and women for the professions generally
- ◆ the expansion of facilities, both primary and secondary, for girls, which have so seriously lagged behind facilities for boys
- ◆ the extension of the full primary course, from six to eight; and the provision of a minimum of four years education in all grant-aided schools, since we hold that any lesser period of schooling is educationally and economically un sound
- ◆ the establishment of new primary schools.*

Integration

In 1957 the Government announced as its aim the integration of education in Uganda. Before this, education had been organized on a racial basis, with separate schools for Africans, Europeans, Asians, and Goans. Because of their religion (Roman Catholicism) and their Portuguese culture, the Goans were treated separately from the Asian community.

In the past, education in Uganda was developed by voluntary agencies, and ordinarily this meant religious bodies. Schools for Africans were started by Protestant and Roman Catholic groups. Since the great majority of Asians (with the exception of Goans) were non-Christian, they organized their own schools in which their religion could be taught. The Asian community, though, was also divided into various religions, and by 1957 it had two Hindu and two Asian Muslim school systems, as well as a school for Sikhs. In addition, Government schools opened for Asians. Schools organized by different groups received financial assistance from the Government.

* With two exceptions, the main recommendations of the de Bunsen Committee were accepted by the Government in 1958. The two recommendations not acceptable to Government were the proposal that the primary school be extended from 6 to 8 years and a related one that the secondary school be reduced from 6 to 4 years. See *Memorandum by the Protectorate Government on the Report of the African Education Committee*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1958.

* De Bunsen. *op. cit.*, p. 1-2.

Since 1957 the Government has made every effort to pursue a policy of integration. The success of the integration policy was reported by the Minister of Education in a speech to the National Assembly in 1962:

Generally speaking, our schools in the rural towns and training centres contain pupils of all races, and the numbers will inevitably increase under the new system of local control. So our urban senior secondary schools where it is common now to find children of all races in all classes of our schools; and I believe that this will continue without pressure on the school owners. I do not therefore consider that this is now a major issue—if indeed it ever has been.⁷

Future Development

In 1959 the Uganda Government published a White Paper on Education. This paper, *Education in Uganda*,⁸ reviewed the progress made since the publication of *African Education in Uganda* in 1953 and set out in broad outlines the Government's view of the problems which would confront it over the next 3 to 5 years and its proposals for dealing with them. Since it did not confine itself to African education, the 1959 Paper was broader in scope than its predecessor, and its basic purpose was to outline principles under which Uganda's future educational development would take place.

Although the Paper accepted the educational aims reported by the de Bunsen Committee, it proposed the following additional objectives:

- ◆ Raise the standard of living of all classes of the community and provide, for as many children as possible, the benefits of a reasonable standard of education.
- ◆ Produce as quickly as possible a sufficiency of well-qualified men and women able and ready to hold posts of responsibility. (The provision of a numerous professional class is an essential preliminary to self-government.)
- ◆ Train a large subprofessional class of qualified technicians, teachers, clerks, and so on; train an even larger class of craftsmen and artisans.
- ◆ Attain in time universal literacy. (A literate electorate is also of the first importance in a State aspiring to self-government.)⁹

⁷ Hon. Dr. S. J. Luyimbazi Zake, M.N.C. *Speech on the Education Estimates*, delivered in the National Assembly Kampala on July 18, 1962. Mimeographed, no date or publisher shown.

⁸ Uganda Protectorate. *Education in Uganda* (Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59). Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1959.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 4-5.

The Paper also reported:

As the Government's resources, both financial and human, are not unlimited, it is clear that the second and fourth of these objectives are, to some extent, incompatible. It will not be possible in the immediate future to provide for both universal primary or basic education and to develop more advanced institutions to a point where the output is adequate to cater for the needs of a self-governing State. This dilemma can only be solved by an acceptable compromise.¹⁰

In commenting on the pattern of education, the Government in the Sessional Paper agreed with the de Bunsen proposal to have 8 years as a basic course: 6 years of primary education followed by 2 years of junior secondary. The division of the basic course should be not after grade 6, but after grade 4, which is considered the minimum time necessary to produce permanent literacy. The basic course would be followed by a secondary school course, leading to the School Certificate (4 years) or Higher School Certificate (6 years), or to secondary modern or vocational courses. Although completion of grade 6 had been the requirement for entry to such institutions as pretechnical classes of technical schools, rural trade schools, homecraft centers for girls, and teacher-training colleges, it would be the long-term aim to raise the level of entry to all of these schools to completion of junior-secondary level. This process had already begun in the case of the teacher-training colleges.

Junior and Senior Secondary Expansion

In this same period—the late 1950's—the Government made an important decision regarding the development of education. The rapid expansion of primary schools during the 1950's made it necessary for the Government to expand the higher levels of education as well. In 1958 it decided to reduce the pace of development on the primary level in order to release funds for the expansion of junior-secondary and senior-secondary education. Reduced crop prices resulted in deficit budgets. Money for development was very limited. In fact, the Government found difficulty maintaining services already established, despite the fact that nearly 20 percent of the expenditure was being devoted to education.

The justifications for limiting the expansion of primary schools were the following:

¹⁰ Ibid.

A period of consolidation at the primary level was educationally desirable because expansion had taken place so rapidly that standards had inevitably fallen, and problems of wastage, both of places and pupils, had become serious.

If primary development continued unchecked, an acute imbalance would result as the ratio of secondary to primary places became yet more unfavorable.¹¹

By 1961 the basic pattern of education in Uganda was primary school (6 years), junior secondary school (2 years) and senior secondary school (4 years).¹²

In 1961 there were 6,086 primary schools¹³ with a predominantly African enrollment of 548,834, 93 with a predominantly Asian enrollment of 15,635, and 12 with a predominantly European enrollment of 1,224. "In the primary field, it became increasingly clear, as the analysis of the 1959 census results continued, that Uganda had achieved something better than a 1:2 *place-child ratio*, i.e. that for every two children of primary school age (6-11 years) there was a little over one school place—though not all were grant-aided."¹⁴

On the junior-secondary level there were 261 schools with a predominantly African enrollment of 21,881 and 30 with a predominantly Asian enrollment of 3,633. Despite the rapid expansion of these schools, the place-child ratio remains 1:14.

In 1961 30 aided secondary schools had a total enrollment of 5,050 boys and 1,395 girls. All of these schools provide a 4-year course leading to the Cambridge School Certificate. Although there are no precise figures on place-student ratio at the senior secondary level, the total number of places in all post-junior secondary schools, senior secondary, trade, vocational, ". . . is approximately 4,476, which corresponds to 0.9% of the relevant age group."¹⁵

The Uganda Government discussed the problem of balance in the educational system and its priority needs in a report prepared for a conference on education in East Africa held at Princeton, New Jersey late in 1960. "The primary system is already geared to provide

¹¹ Uganda Protectorate. *Education in Uganda: An Assessment of Achievements and Needs* (Paper prepared by the Ministry of Education, Uganda, for the Princeton, U.S.A., Conference on Education in East Africa: December, 1960). October 1960. p. 5. (Hereafter cited as *Paper Prepared for the Princeton Conference*.)

¹² In a few selected secondary schools (five in 1961), Higher-School-Certificate classes are held. These classes are for 3 years and prepare students for the Higher School Certificate Examination. It is necessary to pass the examination with a high score in order to be admitted to the university college.

¹³ This figure includes Government schools, aided schools (schools operated by private groups, i.e., churches, but grant-aided by the Government) and private schools that operate without Government grants or Government financial assistance.

¹⁴ Uganda. *Annual Report of the Ministry of Education*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1963. p. 4.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

20,000 secondary pupils a year. The junior-secondary system cannot cope with these numbers, because it lacks the teachers which the secondary system must provide."¹⁶ Expansion at the secondary level was thus the key to junior-secondary development. It is, the report noted, even more essential in the interests of higher education:

- ◆ The rapid development of secondary education is urgently necessary.
- ◆ The key is finance, rather than staff or pupils.
- ◆ Radical re-distribution of the finance available to the Protectorate for education can only produce modest expansion.
- ◆ Aid from other sources at the secondary level will generate the power necessary—
 - to expand junior secondary education
 - to expand senior secondary education
 - to produce the larger numbers of higher education students now essential to Uganda's well-being and progress.
- ◆ It is, therefore, at the secondary level that the greatest service can be rendered by the wealthy powers to the people of Uganda."

¹⁶ *Paper Prepared for the Princeton Conference*, op. cit., p. 8.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

Educational Administration and Organization



DURING THE TRANSITION from colonial to full parliamentary government in Uganda, two governmental organizations were concerned with the administration of education. The first was the Ministry, concerned primarily with the political aspects of the education system. The Minister was responsible for working with the National Assembly in such areas as presentation of the budget and implementation of Assembly policy on education. The second was the Department of Education, responsible for the professional aspects of education and headed by a Director. Helped by Assistant Directors, the office of the Director offered professional guidance to schools and in cooperation with the Ministry determined educational policy.

The Ministry of Education

Late in 1961 the Ministry and the Department of Education were integrated into a single organization known as the Ministry of Education. Under the new organization, the Minister of Education is considered a political office. To assist the Minister with the work of the National Assembly, there is a second political office, that of Parliamentary Secretary.

Professional civil service appointments are made for the Permanent Secretary, Chief Education Officer, and Chief Inspector. The Permanent Secretary is the chief executive officer of the Ministry and, as such, is responsible for carrying out policy. It is his responsibility to keep the Minister informed on all matters related to education. As the chief executive officer, he is also responsible for coordinating all the divisions of the Ministry of Education. All official communication between the Ministry and other Ministers, statutory boards, and the public are channeled through his office. He is responsible for

accounting for the expenditure of all funds voted to the Ministry and for briefing the Minister and other members of the Government on education matters.

The Chief Education Officer is the senior professional officer within the Ministry. He is responsible to the Minister (through the Permanent Secretary) for the coordination of professional areas in the Ministry. Although he has direct access to the Minister, he ordinarily communicates with the Minister through the Permanent Secretary. He serves as the Permanent Secretary's professional adviser and chief professional executive. It is the Chief Education Officer's responsibility to advise the Permanent Secretary on the professional and technical aspects of job appointments. In consultation with the Chief Inspector of Schools, the Chief Education Officer writes the confidential reports on professional and technical officers in the Department and is consulted by the Permanent Secretary whenever the professional staff are involved in offenses that require disciplinary action. All matters relating to educational institutions and staff are the responsibility of the Chief Education Officer. Ordinarily, he will report on such matters to the Minister through the Permanent Secretary.

The Chief Inspector is responsible for the efficient functioning of the Inspectorate and all its branches. He and his staff do not have executive or administrative functions. They are responsible, however, for giving professional advice to the Chief Education Officer on the following:

- ◆ preparation of study courses
- ◆ selection of textbooks
- ◆ manner in which examinations are conducted
- ◆ maintenance of standards in the schools
- ◆ dissemination of new teaching techniques and methods
- ◆ efficient functioning of all colleges, schools, and other educational institutions

The Chief Inspector makes confidential reports on all staff and on all matters relating to discipline, promotions, and appointments.

The central office of the Ministry has four divisions, as set forth below:

Schools and Colleges Division

Under the control of the Chief Education Officer, this division deals with all administrative matters affecting schools and colleges (the latter a term applied to secondary-level schools in Uganda). Areas covered are primary and junior secondary education, senior-secondary education, teacher-training, technical education, and other matters not specifically covered in other divisions.

Higher Education Division

This division has responsibility for all matters affecting post-school work.

Finance and Establishment Division

All financial and staff functions of the Ministry are the concerns of this division.

The Inspectorate

Dealing with professional areas assigned to the Chief Inspector of Schools, the Inspectorate is concerned with primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, and technical education; and with teacher-training, examinations, curriculum, syllabus, textbooks, teaching methods, and refresher courses. The staff includes the Adviser on Women's and Girls' Education.

Educational policy is set by the Minister of Education with advice from his professional staff. Policy is of course dependent upon the amount of funds allocated to education, and the rate of expansion of an educational level is likewise dependent upon what share of the total funds is made available to that level. Within the budget, the Ministry may determine what part of the educational ladder to expand and what priorities to establish. Through its various agencies to enforce governmental regulations, the Ministry has the responsibility to offer professional assistance and develop education throughout the country. Although religious groups manage the majority of schools, these groups must do so following guide lines promulgated by the Ministry.

In recent years a movement has occurred toward decentralizing education. Secondary schools, the Kampala Technical Institute, technical schools, teacher-training schools, and certain other direct-grant schools operate administratively under Boards of Governors. These Boards are responsible for running the school, although professional aspects are ordinarily designated to the headmaster. The foundation body responsible for the school¹ appoints a chairman and four members. The appointments are subject to approval of the Ministry which appoints four additional members. (In the case of a Government school, the Ministry would appoint nine.) These 9 invite 4 more persons to join the Board, for a total of 13. All Boards of Governors work directly with the executive Ministry officers.

Outside Buganda province (where primary and secondary schools are under the *Kabaka's* Ministry of Education) responsibility for primary education has been transferred to local district councils. The district council is generally the local education authority.

¹ The foundation bodies include Protestant and Roman Catholic religious groups, the Ismaili Provincial Council, the Moslem Education Association, Makerere College, and the *Kabaka's* Government.

Within the past several years the Government's expenditure on education has risen rapidly and by 1960-61 "... represented 24% of the Government's total expenditure for the year—a percentage not surpassed anywhere else in East and Central Africa."²

Primary-school education is financed primarily by grants from the Central Government to local authorities. These grants are based on the cost of teachers' salaries. The school buildings are financed by a combination of local voluntary effort and grants from the local education authority. Fees in primary school range from \$2.80 to \$8.40 per year.

On the junior-secondary level the Central Government pays the full cost of teachers' salaries. In addition, the school receives a capitation allowance. Both the Central Government and the local authorities provide grants to construct new buildings and expand existing ones. The final source of school revenue is student fees.

The Central Government pays the costs of salaries and buildings for senior-secondary schools, the majority of which are boarding schools. Also, the Central Government gives a boarding grant and a capitation grant. The school receives the fees paid by the students. In 1961 the average fee in a senior-secondary school was £25. Although many students pay their own fees, local education authorities provide a substantial number of scholarships.

Teacher training and technical education are financed in approximately the same way as senior secondary education.

The general regulations for the operation of schools is based on a 1959 ordinance.³ To be accepted officially, a school must be registered, and registration also determines whether or not a school is eligible for a grant-in-aid. Since the majority of schools want and need the financial assistance they can receive from Government grants, they make every effort to fulfill the requirements set forth by the *Education Ordinance*. To be registered, a school must convince the Ministry that—

- ♦ The teaching and accommodation are or will be adequate to the class it purports to serve.
- ♦ The physical health and moral welfare of the pupils will be adequately provided for.
- ♦ The school will not be managed or administered in a manner prejudicial to law and order.⁴

² Uganda. *Annual Report of the Ministry of Education*. Entebbe: Government Printer, 1962. p. 9.

³ *The Education Ordinance of 1959*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1959.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

School registration, a device to control physical conditions in private schools, does not automatically entitle the school to a grant. The Ministry reserves the right to allocate grants, and their allocation will depend on several factors, among them the availability of funds and the need for the school in the country's plan for developing education.

Under ordinary circumstances a school managed by a religious or private group applies to the Ministry for a grant-in-aid or for the continuation of a grant. Funds may be allocated if the Ministry is satisfied concerning the following points:

1. The school has been registered according to the Education Ordinance.
2. The school is necessary to meet the requirements of the area it plans to serve and is not at variance with the overall plan for developing the area's educational services.
3. The buildings satisfy local Government, township, and Public Health regulations as to lighting, sanitation, accommodations, etc.
4. Furnishings and equipment are up to standard.⁴
5. The staff includes the approved number ~~of~~ appropriately qualified teachers.⁵
6. Each class has at least 20 pupils and no teacher has more than 40 at one time.
7. Courses are taught according to approved syllabi.
8. Instruction is given on at least 180 days per year.
9. The school is managed by a board or committee whose constitution is approved by the Ministry.
10. The school has developed (added extra classes) with the approval of the Ministry.
11. The school has not denied admission to pupils solely on religious grounds.
12. The school's fees are approved by the Ministry.⁶

Schools receiving grants-in-aid are required to submit statements on the previous year's expenditure and revenue. Their accounts are audited regularly by Ministry-approved auditors.

The Voluntary Agencies

The majority of the schools in the Protectorate are managed by the voluntary agencies: the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Rubaga; the Anglican Province of Uganda, Rwanda, and Burundi; and the

⁴ Many schools have received grants without first fulfilling these requirements, but on condition that they do so within a reasonable time.

⁵ *Aid Rules, 1960.* p. 1-8.

Uganda Muslim Educational Association. Each of these agencies has its own structure for the organization, administration, and supervision of the schools under its jurisdiction. The great majority of the voluntary agency schools are managed by Protestant or Roman Catholic missionaries.

In other African territories and countries there are a great number of Protestant religious groups, but in Uganda the majority of Protestant mission schools are associated with the Anglican church.

Protestant Missions

The head of the Protestant school system is the Educational Secretary General. He is responsible to the Ministry's Chief Education Officer for the administration and supervision of grant-aided schools and colleges operated by this voluntary agency. The Educational Secretary is also responsible to the Inter-Diocesan Committee of the Anglican Church, which embraces the seven Dioceses of Uganda. Having major responsibility for school administration, the Educational Secretary General is assisted by an Educational Secretary for each province and a supervising team for each district. Ordinarily, a district has one supervisor, an assistant supervisor, and a small clerical staff for every 50 schools within its borders. The team is responsible for the administration of schools in the district. The breadth of its responsibilities may range from supervising school repairs to handling cases of discipline among teachers.

The local supervisor is responsible for local administration and local salary check handling. Primary-school Government grants are handled at the district level; and grants for senior secondary, teacher-training, and technical schools by the Boards of Governors.

Recruiting for teachers in the Protestant Mission secondary schools is done through the Overseas Appointment Bureau, a division of the Christian Education Bureau of Britain. When an opening occurs in one of these secondary schools, the Educational Secretary General in Uganda writes to that Bureau, stating the desired teacher qualifications. The Bureau arranges for candidates to be interviewed by a panel representing both the Government and the voluntary agency, and then forwards the panel's recommendations to the agency's Educational Secretary General in Uganda. He makes his choice and then submits it to the Chief Education Officer at the Uganda Ministry of Education, asking that this individual be appointed. Ordinarily, the Chief Education Officer accepts this choice.

The chosen individual is appointed to the school as "attached staff." This classification means that the individual is considered as hired by the Uganda Government but "attached" to the Protestant Mission school.

Roman Catholic Missions

Similar in organization to the Protestant Missions, the Roman Catholic Missions are headed by an Education Secretary General. He coordinates the work of eight Diocesan Education Secretaries (one for each Diocese) and the educational interests of the Bishops and serves as liaison officer with the Ministry of Education. The Diocesan Education Secretary is generally aided by one or two supervisors.

The School System



Primary School

Number

The first step on the Uganda educational ladder is the 6-year primary course. According to the 1961 Annual Report of the Ministry of Education, Uganda had 2,293 Government, local authority, and aided primary schools.¹ These schools are predominantly African, and the great majority of children attend primary schools operated by voluntary agencies (i.e., religious bodies) and financially aided by the Government. The Roman Catholic Church manages 1,139 schools, the Native Anglican Church 936, and the Uganda Muslim Educational Association 154.

In addition, there are 3,793 unaided primary schools (i.e., they receive no financial assistance from the Government). Again, the predominance of management by religious bodies is revealed in the following figures: Of the 3,793 unaided schools, 1,661 are managed by the Native Anglican Church, 1,761 by the Roman Catholic Church, and 87 by the Uganda Muslim Educational Association.

Predominantly Asian schools number 93. Of this total, 12 are Government schools and the remaining 81 are schools managed by various Asian communities. Predominantly European schools number 12—5 of them Government and 7 aided.²

Enrollment

The Ministry of Education's 1961 annual report showed 248,921 boys and 121,515 girls enrolled in the country's 2,293 Government, local authority, or aided schools.³

¹ Uganda Protectorate. *Annual Report of the Ministry of Education*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1962. (This document is hereafter cited as *Annual Report for 1961*.)

² *Ibid.*, p. 8. (These 12 schools had a 1961 enrollment of 1,224-1,063 in the Government schools and 172 in the aided schools.)

³ *Ibid.*

Uganda has no compulsory education law. Because of limited financial resources, the schools necessarily charge fees. These fees range from 20 to 60 shillings per child, per year. The emphasis on primary education during the past decade has resulted in a doubled primary-school enrollment: the rise was from 163,300 in 1950 to 346,000 in 1960.

If enrollments in unaided schools are added to those in aided schools, then one can say that 60 percent of the primary-school age group (6-11) are in schools. The geographical distribution, however, as in many other countries, is uneven. In the northern area of Karamoja only 24 percent of this age group are in school, whereas in the more highly developed area of Bunyoro the figure is 82 percent.

In addition, the overwhelming majority of primary school pupils throughout all Uganda are boys. Among the African children, for example, the 1957 enrollment had increased to 82,000, but of this number the percentage of girls was still considerably below that of boys. In Buganda the figure was 36 percent and in the Northern Province 16 percent. In most districts it is still necessary to persuade African parents to send their girls to school and keep them there for the full primary course.

Finances and Organization

The rapid school expansion has led to an increasing responsibility on the community for the cost of primary education. Up to the present, the largest contributor to school financing has been the central Government. The largest single item of costs has been teachers' salaries. Under the existing program the central Government makes grants to provincial or local authorities, and each local authority uses the money to help pay teachers' salaries. The local authority is responsible for capital costs, and fees paid by the school children are used for books, equipment, and recurrent nonsalary costs.

The needs of primary education and the limited resources available for education have forced educators to re-examine the primary school system's organization. In the past, it was not unusual for each of two or three different religious organizations to open a primary school within a short distance of the others. The result in some areas has been schools operating below capacity. On the other hand, in many areas children have to walk up to 10 miles to attend school.

The majority of the de Bunsen Committee supported the concept of single-denomination schools.⁴ They emphasized that "true education must have a religious basis."⁵ A minority of the Committee, however, urged that future policy should be to develop nondenominational schools:

We hold the view that one of the tasks of education in Uganda should be the creation of a national community. A common school to which all can go irrespective of their religious adherence would go a long way toward the achievement of this objective.

It is the task of the school to create a community out of accepted differences, an experience which is a preparation for life in the wider world of men.

The policy we recommend will make a better distribution of schools and do justice to the African child. A young child of 6-10 years of age should never be required to walk 6-8 miles to school. It is physical torture to him and yet most of our schools today serve an area of this size. What we have to do is to take the school near to the child's home so that in general he does not have to walk more than three miles each way. This objective will be impossible to achieve if every village (or group of villages) must have three or four schools, each serving a different religious group.

We have sufficient evidence that there is a widespread demand for such schools.⁶

Although each classroom is intended to serve 40 pupils, there is a great unevenness in enrollments, particularly throughout the rural areas.

It has been estimated that "there are about 90,000 so-called 'unfilled' places in existing primary schools."⁷ The reasons are many. Since education is not compulsory, it is difficult to estimate how many children will enroll each year. In addition, there is the perennial problem of repeaters—children who repeat grades because of poor academic standards. In some areas of Uganda, 50 percent of the Primary 1 pupils repeat the class. As recognized by the Government, part of the primary school problem is the fact that many of the teachers are poorly prepared and cannot handle a class of 40 six-year-olds. In an attempt to help the situation, the Government has run special classes and programs for upgrading primary teachers. But the problem remains.

"Wastage" (large numbers of school dropouts) contributes to the problem of unfilled places and constitutes a serious threat to the edu-

⁴ Bernard de Bunsen, Chairman. *African Education in Uganda*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1953. p. 5.

⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. *The Economic Development of Uganda*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1962. p. 349.

ational system. It is expensive, in terms of both money and human resources.

The problem of wastage continued throughout the 1950's and remains a problem today. The White Paper of 1959 commented on this problem:

Much attention has been given to the problem of wastage; that is the drop in numbers between P. 1 and the higher classes. In 1957, for example, there were some 80,000 pupils in P. 1, and only 25,500 in P. 6. This wastage is common throughout East and Central African schools and was once thought to be caused almost entirely by children leaving school before they had completed their course. Recent investigations, in which the East African Institute of Social Research is assisting, do however, suggest that there are two other and more significant reasons for wastage. The first is the development factor; new schools open at P. 1 and gradually build up over the years . . . The second is the practice of "repeating" . . .

Aims

The de Bunsen Committee Report set forth the aims of primary education. Briefly, they are the following:

- ♦ to develop sound standards of individual conduct and behavior
- ♦ to instill some understanding of the community and what is of value for its development, and of the contribution which the individual can make to the community in which he lives
- ♦ to develop a lively curiosity leading to a desire for knowledge not confined to the immediate environment
- ♦ to impart permanent literacy
- ♦ to impart some skill of hand, and a recognition of the value of manual work.*

A major difficulty has been to develop aims that will meet the needs of the individual and of the society for the vast majority who will not go on to secondary education. At the same time the school must prepare those who will be selected for secondary education and who will provide the middle-class technicians and serve as potential candidates for the university. The White Paper illustrated the difficulty of reconciling this problem by posing the following question: "Should,

* Uganda Protectorate. *Education in Uganda* (Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59). Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1959. p. 8. (This publication is hereafter cited as *Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59*.)

* De Bunsen. *op. cit.*, p. 33. (The aims of the de Bunsen Committee for primary and secondary education were adapted from the aims of primary education stated in *African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa*, produced on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and the Colonial Office by Charles Batey. Printer to the University. Oxford: University Press, 1953. p. 18.)

therefore, the last years of the basic course be planned as an introduction to a secondary education which will be achieved by comparatively few, or should it be planned as an end in itself for the majority who will be leaving school at the end of it."¹⁰

Moral and Character Training

The de Bunsen Committee considered that its first aim, "to develop sound standards of individual conduct and behavior," could be attained only if education was presented with a religious basis. The Committee found the following passage from *African Education* as adequately presenting its opinion in this area:

The one who holds whether by outward profession or by inward and inarticulate knowing that moral integrity, intellectual honesty, respect for persons, compassion and courage are good in themselves and that their goodness is not contingent on circumstances of time or place—one who holds these things firmly and discovers the way to express them in action will be a good neighbor, a good master or servant, a good teacher, parent or citizen, and a good leader among his people.¹¹

According to the Committee, the school has a responsibility to help children achieve a positive and firm religious belief, and for this reason the Committee recommended daily corporate worship in all schools. The Committee also felt that religious teaching must be of the highest possible standard, and that to help achieve this high standard, a more suitable syllabus (or syllabi) should be produced. The Committee emphasized that teaching methods in themselves would not necessarily produce sound standards of behavior in individual conduct; that actually, the attitude of the child toward life would depend largely on that of his teacher. For this reason, it is the responsibility of the teacher-training colleges to provide such an atmosphere that future teachers will acquire a sense of responsibility in this particular area. The Committee felt that teachers, throughout their training, should be judged as much on their behavior as on their academic attainments and teaching ability. For this reason, the Committee felt that this development should have the cooperation not only of the churches and colleges, but also of the teachers' associations.

Although the White Paper of 1959 accepted the overall recommendations of the de Bunsen Report, it did not emphasize the religious

¹⁰ *Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59*, op. cit., p. 5.

¹¹ De Bunsen, op. cit., p. 33.

foundation for education. The first aim of the de Bunsen Report, "to develop sound standards of individual conduct and behavior," is also the first aim of the White Paper, which, however, states it simply, without any elaboration that would associate the aim with religion.

Language Instruction

The preface to the primary school syllabus emphasizes that children need a good foundation in their own vernacular. The philosophy of training children first in their own vernacular (or a selected vernacular) has been the approach used throughout British-related Africa for decades.¹² In the past, educators there used the word "language," but today they feel that the word "vernacular" describes more accurately the activities conducted in the early years of the primary school.

The de Bunsen Committee recommended that the vernacular be the *medium* of instruction for the first four years. Exceptions would be made in urban areas where the multiplicity of vernaculars would make it impossible to select any single one. In such cases, English could be the medium of instruction. The Committee was impressed with the great demand for English on the part of parents and pupils throughout the Protectorate, and it suggested that English might be introduced as a *subject* in the second grade.¹³ By the time the pupil reached the fifth grade, he could, in the opinion of the Committee, be taught one or two subjects in English.

In order to make it possible to publish books and materials, it was necessary to limit the number of vernacular languages taught in the schools. In the opinion of the Committee, the vernaculars should be limited to Luganda, Lugbara, Lunyoro, and Teso. The Committee also hoped that limiting the number of languages would aid in the assignment of student teachers and teachers, both of whom often have to teach outside their own tribal area.

The Committee recognized the particular problem of the Muslim child, who has to learn not only his vernacular and English, but also Arabic. It recommended that the Koran schools teach Arabic. These schools would be considered a preparatory type and would be attached to the primary schools.

¹² This approach is in direct opposition to the French approach which emphasized the teaching of the French language from the first grade.

¹³ The Committee suggested this might be done when staff and material become available.

The White Paper of 1959 stated that in grades 1 through 4 the medium of instruction would be the vernacular, with English introduced as a class subject; and that the medium would change to English in the next four grades. It suggested that English could be introduced for a few periods in grades 1 and 2 if teachers were available. The shortage of teachers qualified to teach English has been the main block in carrying through this recommendation. The White Paper observed that, in the urban areas, experiments have been made, introducing English from the first grade; but warned that if English is introduced from the first grade, a specially trained teacher is required.

As yet, the introduction of English in the primary schools is not uniform. Many schools introduce written English in the fifth grade. The basic problem has been to find adequately trained teachers who can successfully teach English as a second language. As indicated above, primary school enrollment doubled during the 1950's. Unfortunately, however, it was not always possible to find enough trained or experienced teachers to keep pace with this rapid expansion.

In addition, the teaching of English as a second language is still a relatively new field. The Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language held at Makerere in January 1961 reported some of the problems involved.¹⁴ Among the factors determining the age at which English teaching should be introduced, the Conference recommended a consideration of four areas. In the area of *administration* it is important to consider "(1) the length of the school course provided and the age of entry, (2) the quality of the teachers (with special reference to their proficiency in English teaching), (3) the size of the classes, (4) the number and character of the textbooks available."¹⁵ In the field of *linguistics*, consideration should be given to "the existence of a language employable as a medium of instruction and its relation to the employment of English as a second language."¹⁶ From the *psychological viewpoint*, it may be desirable to emphasize the child's own language in the early years before introducing English. Finally, the Conference urged attention to *social and cultural issues*: "(1) the extent to which English is used in different areas, (2) the multilingual character of some societies, (3) social (and political), (4) the attitude of the community to English."¹⁷

Although some areas in Uganda may show resistance to learning English, the general impression one receives is that parents and pupils do want English. There appears little doubt that "the attitude of the community to English," indicated as one of the factors by the Con-

¹⁴ See *Report of the Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1961.

¹⁵, ¹⁶, ¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

ference, is clearly favorable. In addition to providing a basic tool for additional study, a command of English offers more lucrative employment possibilities. The major stumbling block to increased study of the language has been the short supply of adequately trained teachers.

Agricultural Education

Approximately 90 percent of the population is engaged in agriculture, and from every indication the overwhelming majority will be so engaged for the foreseeable future. For over 40 years (since the first Phelps-Stokes Report), the problem of introducing an effective agricultural education program in the primary schools has been discussed. Most educators have stressed the need for effective agricultural education on the primary level because of wastage and the fact that few children continue beyond this level. It has been the general feeling that if agricultural education is to be taught at all, it should be incorporated in the primary curriculum. Unfortunately, its introduction there in the past was not always successful. Again, as in the teaching of English, the problem is to find qualified teachers who can stimulate pupil interest in this area and develop a meaningful curriculum. Too often agricultural education throughout Africa has been taught by teachers who were not as well acquainted with basic problems in the area as were the school children's parents.

The de Bunsen Committee recognized the importance of agricultural education and offered a number of suggestions that served during the past decade as guide lines for its development. The Committee pointed out that most country children are familiar with the growing of common food crops before they go to school. Agricultural education should be concerned with understanding the management of living things rather than with the dull routine of cultivation. What is done in the school garden and what is done in the classroom should be directly correlated. The Committee recognized that some of the boarding schools must have farms in order to help feed their pupils. At the same time, it is necessary in other cases to have what is referred to as "slashing" in order to keep the school grounds, particularly the playing fields, in order. The Committee recommended that food growing be accepted for what it is and not be given the title of agricultural education. It recommended that every rural school have a garden, but one not so large as to impose a physical burden on the children. The purpose of the garden should be to help them learn

how to grow plants; and in this connection, flowers can be as necessary and as instructive as vegetables. To encourage the school garden, the Committee stressed the value of interschool competition, which, the Committee hoped, could arouse the same amount of enthusiasm as football competition. It pointed out that schools could develop young farmers' clubs, which might give a more positive aspect to agriculture in the school.

The White Paper of 1959 brought out the following points:

- ◆ A need exists for good agricultural education in the primary schools.
- ◆ Uganda is an agricultural country and the great proportion of its inhabitants are farmers and must continue to be farmers.
- ◆ If, as a result of the educational system, youths leave the farms, then that system will have failed to provide for the needs of the environment.
- ◆ As a result of consultations with the Agricultural Department there was agreement that the size of school gardens should be limited.
- ◆ Smaller gardens hopefully would eliminate the drudgery that often accompanied the large ones.
- ◆ School gardens should be "living blackboards" demonstrating in a practical way the theoretical, classroom teaching of nature and soil and crop husbandry.

Curriculum

The preface to *Syllabuses for Primary Schools*¹² stated that the manual had been divided into two sections: the first for grades 1 and 2 and the second for grades 3, 4, 5, and 6, with different teaching techniques applied to each of the two sections. The previous manual, written and issued when Uganda children were starting grade 1 at an older age than now, did not make such a distinction in teaching techniques. The new manual also pointed out the importance of individual and group work and stated that the Government would organize refresher courses for teachers throughout the Protectorate.

The minimum daily class time in primary school is 4 hours for grades 1 and 2 and 5 hours for grades 3 through 6—and additionally, for all these grades, time for a break and for attendance taking. Many schools, however, hold grades-1-and-2 children at school for as long as they hold children in grades 3 through 6. In such cases, the Minis-

¹² Uganda Protectorate. *Syllabuses for Primary Schools*. Kampala: Uganda Bookshop for the Education Department, no date.

try of Education recommends a daily 20-minute rest period for children in grades 1 and 2.

The following weekly allocations of class time are recommended for grades 1 and 2:¹⁹

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Minutes per week</i> ¹	
	<i>Grade 1</i>	<i>Grade 2</i>
Activities.....	120	120
Health education.....	120	120
Nature study.....	60	60
Numbers (arithmetic).....	150	150
Physical education.....	150	150
Religion.....	150	150
Singing.....	30	30

¹ Total time available in each grade is 1,200 minutes.

The Ministry recommends that no class period exceed 30 minutes except perhaps that for activities and that extra time, if available, be added to arithmetic, language, and singing.

Although it is generally recognized that the timetable for young children should be elastic, the Ministry believes that it can be varied only by well-trained teachers. Such teachers may find it more appropriate to give less time for singing and more for religion or dramatization. Variations will depend upon class interest and performance.

For grades 3 through 6 the following tabulation shows the minimum amount of time allocated weekly to each subject:²⁰

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Minutes per week</i> ¹			
	<i>Grade 3</i>	<i>Grade 4</i>	<i>Grade 5</i>	<i>Grade 6</i>
Arithmetic.....	150	150	200	200
Arts and crafts.....	60	60	120	120
English.....	150	150	200	200
Geography.....	60	60	80	80
Health education.....	120	120	120	120
History.....	(²)	(²)	80	80
Language ³	390	390	160	160
Nature study and agriculture.....	120	120	120	120
Needlework (girls) ⁴	60	60	120	120
Physical education.....	150	150	160	160
Religion.....	150	150	160	160
Singing.....	30	30	40	40

¹ Total time available in grades 3 and 4 is 1,800 minutes; and 1,600 minutes in grades 5 and 6.

² Subject not given.

³ Comprises oral expression, reading, writing, and written expression.

⁴ Handiwork for boys.

¹⁹ Ibid, preface (no pagination).

²⁰ Ibid, preface (no pagination).

These weekly totals are based on daily 30-minute periods in grades 3 and 4, and 40-minute periods in grades 5 and 6. Where appropriate—as in agriculture, arts and crafts, and health education—double periods may be provided.

Mathematics

The following tabulation gives the subject matter covered in mathematics ("numbers" in grades 1 and 2; ²¹ "arithmetic" in grades 3-6): ²²

Grade 1

Term 1

Numbers 1-9

The beginning of addition

Term 2

Numbers 10 and 0

Addition using numbers up to 10

Take-away sums using numbers up to 10

Term 3

To teach mixed + and - to 20

Begin multiplication

Begin shopping games

Grade 2

Term 1

Addition of numbers: 2-digit numbers to a maximum total of 99

Subtraction of numbers: 2-digit numbers, maximum top of 99

Simple 2-item bills (mental)

Addition of money: shillings and cents to a total of 19 shs., 90 cts.

3 items, giving cents in multiples of 10 only

Term 2

Short multiplication of numbers: 2 digits only within known tables

Simple bills involving subtraction (mental)

Short division of numbers: 2 digits only within known tables

Subtraction of money, with a maximum of 29 shs., 90 cts. in top line

Term 3

Short multiplication of money within known tables

Linear measurement: practical work

Bills (written): 2 items only

Addition of numbers: 3-digit numbers to a maximum answer of 999, giving up to 4 items

Grade 3

Term 1

Subtraction of numbers: 3-digit number with 999 as the maximum figure on the top line

²¹ Recommended apparatus for "Numbers": abacus, clay numbers and balls, cardboard money, fannelgraph, and flash cards. *Ibid.* p. 9-10.

²² *Ibid.* p. 43-45.

Short multiplication of numbers, using all tables and going up to 3 digits in the top line and 999 in the answer

Short division of numbers, using all tables and going up to 3 digits in the dividend

Addition of money, introducing 5 cents, then 1 cent, going up to 4 items, with answer not to be more than 99.99 shs.

Term 2

Short division of money, using all tables, the dividend not to exceed 99.99 shs.

Linear measurement: simple 4 rules in yard, feet, and then yard, feet, inches, having yard in answer only

Fractions: practical work introducing $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, and $\frac{5}{8}$; simple addition and subtraction

Long multiplication of numbers, 2 digits only in both lines

Term 3

Capacity: 4 rules in dekes, gallons, and pints

Weight: addition and subtraction—pounds and ounces

Simple bills that can be done mentally

Telling the time in the vernacular

Fractions: introduction of $\frac{1}{4}$ and simple fractional parts

Grade 4

Term 1

Addition of numbers, going up to 5 items, with a maximum of 5 digits in the answer

Subtraction of numbers, with a maximum of 5 digits on top line

Short multiplication: maximum of 4 digits on top line

Long multiplication by 2 digits, going up to 3 digits on top line

Short division, going up to 3 digits in dividend

Long division, with 4 digits in dividend

Addition of money, up to 5 items, answer not to exceed 99.999 shs.

Introduction to profit and loss

Term 2

Fractions: introduction of $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, and $\frac{1}{12}$; addition and subtraction; improper and proper fractions, addition of 3 items

Short multiplication of money, top line not to exceed 999 in the shilling column

Long multiplication of money, 2-digit multipliers and top line not to exceed 99 in shilling column

Short division of money, dividend not to exceed 999.99 shillings

Long division of money, with 2-digit division and dividend not to exceed 999.99 shillings

Term 3

Linear measurement: short and long multiplication of yards, feet, inches

Short and long division of yd., ft., in. capacity; introduction of quarts in the 4 rules, with dekes, gallons, and pints

Grade 5

Term 1

Money: 4 rules in pounds, shillings

Profit and loss

Linear measurement: short and long multiplication, with miles and chains; short and long division with miles and chains.

Dividing one measure into another

Capacity : long multiplication and long division

Term 2

Weight : 4 rules, introducing ton, hundredweight, with pounds and ounces ; also long multiplication and long division ; division of weight by weight

Fractions : multiplication and division and addition and subtraction of more than 2 fractions

Decimals : addition and subtraction

Term 3

Decimals : multiplication and division.

Unitary method

Area

Time

Grade 6

Term 1

Money : pounds and shillings, increasing in difficulty

Profit and loss

Percentage : changing fractions into percentage figures and percentages into fractions ; common percentages and their equivalent fractions ; application to problems

Percentage profit and loss

Term 2

Discount

Interest

Decimals : extension of class 5 work to 4 places of decimals ; decimal equivalents of vulgar fractions

Proportion

Term 3

Review of topics covered in terms 1 and 2

History

As a separate subject, history starts in grade 5. In that grade and in grade 6 it is a study of Western civilization. With past difficulties in mind and using *Landmark of World History*²³ and *The Making of the Modern World*²⁴ as the basis for the course in grades 5 and 6, respectively, the Department of Education developed a syllabus.

Grade 5.—Suggesting that some topics may be covered in a single lesson while others may require several lessons, the syllabus recommends 19 topics and gives chapter references to the basic text, cited above. The 19 topics are the following:

1. Man the Hunter (How he lived ; the discovery of fire)
2. How Men Became Farmers (Their lives ; setting Nature to work)

²³ Charles S. S. Higham. London : Longmans, Green, 1935. 152 p.

²⁴ J. M. Burton and J. L. Sharpe. Pietermaritzburg, South Africa : Shuter and Shooter, 1953. 142 p.

3. The Discovery of Iron (What it is and what it has meant to Man)
4. The Discovery of Writing (From pictures to letters)
5. Egypt and Its Civilization (Men begin to live in cities)
6. The River Cities of Iraq
7. How Men Learnt to Trade by Sea
8. The People of the Plains (The spread of the Aryans)
9. The Empire of the Persians
10. The Greeks. (City States. Olympic games. The dawn of science. Greece and Persia. Great Greek stories)
11. The Story of Alexander the Great (Greek civilization spreads)
12. The Rise of Rome (Its foundation. Roman legends and heroes)
13. Christianity (The birth of Jesus and the founding of the Christian faith. Its spread to Rome)
14. The Roman Peace (Roman road builders. The spread of Christianity and civilization)
15. The Story of Constantine the Great. (Fall of the Roman Empire. Christianity remains)
16. Islam. (The Arabs and Africa)
17. The Story of Mahomet
18. The Arabs and the Slave Trade
19. The Middle Ages (Friars and monasteries. St. Francis).²

Grade 6.—The 18 topics recommended for grade 6 are the following:

1. The Renaissance (Rebirth of Greek culture. Science)
2. The Invention of Printing
3. The Story of Galileo
4. The Reformation and Counter Reformation
5. The Voyages of Exploration (Round Africa. Across the Atlantic. In the Pacific)
6. The Colonization of America
7. Jenner's Discovery of Vaccination
8. Louis Pasteur and the Advance of Medical Science
9. Ronald Ross and the Prevention of Malaria
10. William Wilberforce and the Abolition of Slavery
11. Florence Nightingale and Nursing
12. Arkwright and How Men Were Replaced by Machines
13. George Stephenson and the Story of Railways
14. Edison and a New Source of Power: Electricity
15. The Brothers Wright and How Aeroplanes Began
16. Marconi and the Invention of Wireless
17. The British Commonwealth of Nations
18. Uganda: How It is Governed. The Duties of Its Citizens.²

The history syllabus above reveals a problem which Uganda and many other recently independent countries are facing. It is apparent that a great deal of the history curriculum is concerned with Europe and little with Africa. On the one hand, Uganda educators feel that they must provide background material which students going on to

² Ibid, p. 52.

² Ibid, p. 53.

secondary and higher education will need at these levels. Especially students who expect to go to Europe or the United States for higher education will need a basic foundation in Western civilization. On the other hand, the history and culture of Africa have been neglected, as the syllabus makes so apparent. Since the country's independence, the Uganda Ministry of Education has been striving to introduce more African studies into the curriculum, but unfortunately the amount of printed material is very small, and the problem is thus compounded.

Junior Secondary School

Purpose and Organization

The junior secondary school represents grades 7 and 8 on the educational ladder.²⁷ The 1961 annual report stated that 17,183 boys and 4,802 girls were enrolled in 261 aided schools that were predominantly African and a total of 3,633 pupils in 30 predominantly Asian schools.²⁷

The management of the junior secondary schools, like that of primary schools, is overwhelmingly under the control of the voluntary agencies. Of the 261 African schools, 120 are managed by the Roman Catholic Church and 97 by the Native Anglican Church. The Government operates 8 schools and the local authorities 17. Of the 30 predominantly Asian schools, 7 are operated by the Government and 23 by Asian societies.²⁸

The junior secondary school serves two purposes. For many students it represents terminal education, and for a few it is preparation for the senior secondary school. This dual function has caused concern, since it appears that emphasis has been placed on academic preparation of these few for the higher school rather than on a well-rounded education for the far greater number who will not go on to that school.

The de Bunsen Committee recommended that the Government strive to provide the African schools with a basic 8-year course. It felt that the curriculum for grades 7 and 8 was too bookish and suggested a more practical and realistic approach to education on this level. To help achieve this objective the Committee recommended introducing

²⁷ A few junior secondary schools have added a third year to the traditional two in order to provide a more adequate terminal education.

²⁸ Annual Report for 1961. op. cit., p. 14.

social studies which would incorporate much of the content of civics, geography, and history. In order to encourage practical work and recognition of the value of manual labor, the Committee advised that a "practical" room be constructed at each school.

The Committee was firm in opposing two separate courses on the junior secondary level—practical and theoretical. Instead, it encouraged a variety of secondary courses—academic, agricultural, and technical. It hoped that before pupils reached this level, they would know which type of secondary course suited them best.²⁹

The Sessional Paper reported that a 2-year domestic science course had been opened in 16 homecraft centers for girls not suited for academic junior secondary courses.

The 1959 White Paper agreed with the de Bunsen Committee recommendation of a basic 8-year course. It would consist of 6 years primary and 2 years junior secondary. The Paper suggested, however, that the 8-year pattern be divided into two parts. Part I would cover primary grades 1-4, with the medium of instruction ordinarily in the vernacular. Primary grades 5 and 6 and junior secondary grades 1 and 2 would constitute the second part.³⁰ To achieve this goal, it would be necessary as quickly as possible to add junior secondary classes to existing primary schools that had six grades.³¹ By adding the junior-secondary grades to the 6-grade primary school, it would be possible for a pupil to continue from primary grade 5 through junior secondary grade 2 in the same school. Although future development will undoubtedly move in this direction, at present the majority of junior secondary schools are in separate institutions.

The importance of the junior secondary school has been stressed by the majority of educators concerned with education in Uganda. Eight years of education become a springboard for senior-secondary education, and, in addition they are required for entrance to the primary teacher-training course. The expansion of senior secondary education and extension of primary-school teacher training therefore depend on the number of students completing the junior-secondary course. The magnitude of the problem was reported by the Ministry of Education:

²⁹ De Bunsen. *op. cit.*, p. 39.

³⁰ Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59. *op. cit.*, p. 6.

³¹ The stipulation of a 6-grade primary school was made to differentiate among the many primary schools having only three or four grades. The 1959 Annual Report indicated that there were 5,495 aided and unaided African primary schools and 115 aided and unaided Asian primary schools. The White Paper pointed out that only 900 had six grades.

Progress has been far slower in providing the junior-secondary places for the last two years of the basic course . . . there are now junior secondary places for only 8% of the 12-13 age group; or 28% of those who complete the six years primary course. At this level of education, expansion is limited primarily by *lack of teachers* . . .²²

It is not possible to give a detailed breakdown of weekly class allocations for the junior secondary schools, since some are boarding schools, which have more time available. The Ministry of Education, however, expects schools to follow its time allocations for all subjects, including those for which there is generally no examination. Since the main purpose of the junior secondary school is to provide a sound general education, preparing pupils for examinations at the end of the two years is considered subsidiary to giving them a well-rounded education.

The following weekly allocations of class periods are recommended:²³

Subject	Periods per week	
	Grade 1	Grade 2
Total	40	40
Arts and crafts	2	2
English	10	10
General science	3	3
Geography	2	2
History	2	2
Home economics and needlework ¹	5	5
Mathematics	3	3
Physical education	3	3
Religion	3	3
Singing	1	1
Vernacular	2	2

¹ The boys may choose two of these three subjects: civics, rural science, and woodwork, totaling 5 periods a week.

² The division of periods in home economics, 3 and needlework, 2.

Although 40-minute periods are recommended for some subjects, double periods are suggested for art, geography, needlework, and woodwork in the first grade of the junior secondary school. The Ministry of Education also recommends that 15 minutes a day in each grade be allowed for prayer and assembly, 5 for attendance taking, 15 for morning recess, and 5 for afternoon recess.

²² Uganda. *Education in Uganda: An Assessment of Achievements and Needs* (Paper prepared by the Ministry of Education, Uganda, for the Princeton, U.S.A., Conference on Education in East Africa: December, 1960) October 1960.

²³ Uganda Protectorate. *Syllabuses for Junior Secondary Schools*. Kampala: Uganda Bookshop for the Education Department, no date. Preface, no pagination.

Curriculum

MATHEMATICS

The Ministry of Education emphasizes the fact that since algebra and geometry are introduced in the junior secondary school, that school must lay a good, high-standard foundation in arithmetical processes, particularly during the first year. Since mathematics textbooks are in English (the second language for the majority of Uganda students), teachers are reminded that they must take great care that the students fully understand both explanations and processes.

For junior secondary school mathematics, which is a continuation of primary school mathematics, the Ministry recommends the following syllabus: ²²

Grade 1

Term 1 ²³ARITHMETIC ²⁴

- Drill examples on addition and subtraction and problem examples
- Multiplication of numbers
- Multiplication and short division
- Long division
- Drill examples on addition and subtraction of units and problem examples
- Reduction of compound units to simple units and vice-versa
- Multiplying compound units by numbers less than 13
- Dividing compound units by numbers less than 13 and mixed problems on them
- Multiplying compound units by numbers greater than 13
- Dividing compound units by numbers greater than 13
- Addition and subtraction of easy fractions
- Addition and subtraction of easy fractions involving mixed numbers
- Multiplication of a fraction by (a) a whole number, (b) a fraction
- Division of a fraction by a whole number
- Division of a fraction by a fraction
- Drill and problem examples on combined fractions
- Expressing one unit as a fraction of another unit
- Addition and subtraction of decimals and conversion of a decimal to a vulgar fraction
- Multiplication of decimals by powers of 10 and by numbers less than 13
- Division of decimals by powers of 10 and by numbers less than 13
- Long division of a decimal by a whole number and the conversion of vulgar fractions to decimals
- Problems on decimals
- Multiplying a decimal by a decimal
- Rough estimates and more multiplying of decimals
- Division of a decimal by a decimal
- Rough estimates and division of decimals

²² Ibid, pp. 23-28.

²³ No algebra this term.

²⁴ Of the 7 weekly periods this term for mathematics, 5 should be devoted to arithmetic.

GEOMETRY

Using a ruler to measure in inches (tenths), cm. and mm.
 Using a ruler to *draw* in inches and cm.
 Using a set square to draw perpendicular lines
 Drawing squares and rectangles
 Area of a rectangle (simple examples)
 Using a protractor to measure angles and to draw angles
 Properties of adjacent angles on a straight line and of vertically opposite angles—by measurement
 Compass patterns
 Drawing triangles, given 3 sides

*Term 2*ARITHMETIC⁷⁷

Prime numbers
 Prime numbers, factors, tests of divisibility and L.C.M.
 Drill examples on addition and subtraction of fractions involving L.C.M. and problems
 More difficult examples of multiplication and division of fractions
 Long division of decimals and correction to 2 places

GEOMETRY⁷⁸

Drawing triangles with base and 2 base angles
 Drawing triangles with 2 sides and included angle; mixed examples on construction of triangles
 Area of a triangle (simple examples)
 Idea of scale diagrams
 Scale diagrams for triangles as above
 Finding areas from scale diagrams
 Angle sum of triangles and exterior angle property by measurement
 Isosceles triangle properties by measurement
 Equilateral triangle properties by measurement

ALGEBRA⁷⁹

The use of letters for numbers
 Collection of like terms
 Converting from one unit to another, using letters
 Equations (Type $t+2=8$)
 (Type $t-2=8$)
 (Type $2t=16$)
 (Type $\frac{1}{2}t=4$)
 Mixed examples and problems
 Substitution in formulae and making formulae
 Meaning of brackets

*Term 3*ARITHMETIC⁸⁰

Direct unitary method
 Inverse unitary method

- ⁷⁷ Approximately 3 periods per week.
⁷⁸ Approximately 2 periods per week.
⁷⁹ Approximately 2 periods per week.
⁸⁰ 3 periods per week.

Mixed, direct and inverse

Metric system of length ; converting from one metric length to another

Conversion from metric units to miles, yards, feet, inches

Metric units of weight ; converting from one metric weight to another

Conversion from metric to English units of weight ; mixed examples

GEOMETRY ⁴¹

Ruler and compass construction for drawing the perpendicular bisector of a line

Drawing a perpendicular from a point outside the line

Drawing a perpendicular from a point in the line

Drawing rectangles and squares, using ruler and compasses

Perimeter and area of rectangles and squares, using metric units

Areas of border, walls, E.F.L. shapes

ALGEBRA ⁴²

The idea of a graph

Reading of a column graph

Drawing a column graph

Joining up points

The line graph

Grade 2*Term 1***ARITHMETIC ⁴³**

Averages

Revision of multiplication of compound units

The idea of the "method of practice"

Compound practice

Miscellaneous examples, using any convenient method

Volume of rectangular block

Revision of simple proportion

Compound proportion

GEOMETRY ⁴⁴

Drawing parallel lines

Corresponding, alternate, interior and supplementary angles by measurement

Drawing parallelograms and measuring sides and angles

Diagonal properties by measurement

Rhombus properties by measurement

Angle sum of polygon by measurement

Drawing of regular polygons

ALGEBRA ⁴⁵

Equations involving brackets

Equations involving brackets and fractions

Powers

Addition and subtraction of terms involving powers

⁴¹ ⁴² Two periods per week.

⁴³ Approximately 3 periods per week.

⁴⁴ ⁴⁵ Approximately 2 periods per week.

Formulae involving powers
 Multiplying terms involving powers
 Dividing terms involving powers

*Term 2***ARITHMETIC**⁴⁶

Revision of prime factors
 Square roots by prime factors
 Circumference of a circle
 Area of a circle
 Volume of a cylinder
 Volume of a cylinder, using English and metric units
 Idea of percentage; expressing % as a fraction
 Finding % of a quantity
 Percentage increase and decrease
 Profit and loss; given C.P. and % profit, find S.P.
 Profit and loss; given C.P. and S.P., find % profit
 Profit and loss; given S.P. and %, find C.P.

GEOMETRY⁴⁷

Finding the centre of a circle
 Drawing the circumscribing circle to a triangle
 Angle in a semi-circle—by measurement
 Bisecting angles, drawing special angles, e.g. 60, 30, 15, 45 and 75 degrees, using ruler and compass
 Drawing quadrilaterals from given data

ALGEBRA⁴⁸

Simplification of fractions
 Graphs, smooth curves
 Simple travel graphs
 Ready reckoner graphs
 Directed numbers, addition and subtraction

*Term 3***ARITHMETIC**

Idea of interest; simple interest
 Post Office saving and business

GEOMETRY

3,4,5 triangle; 12,13,5 and other right-angled triangles
 Theorem of Pythagoras by practical methods
 Simple numerical examples

ALGEBRA

Using directed numbers in brackets
 Equations involving directed numbers

⁴⁶ Approximately 3 periods per week, though the work this term definitely requires much more time than on geometry and algebra.

⁴⁷ Approximately 2 periods per week.

HISTORY

The history syllabus is purposefully not in chronological order since some historical periods are easier to teach than others to pupils who may have language difficulties. The Ministry of Education recommends the following:*

Grade 1*How the Map of the World Was Made (1½ terms)*

1. The story goes back 600 or 700 years when most people in the world knew only about their own land or those lands nearby. Some knew only about their own village or district. How people were self-supporting in their villages at that time.
2. People in Europe—even well educated ones—knew very little geography. Why sailors were afraid to travel very far. Other parts of the world, (India, Arabs, China) much more advanced in this respect. They had things that the Europeans needed.
3. How Marco Polo travelled to China and the story he told on his return.
4. Henry the Navigator
5. The sea route to India—Diaz and Da Gama
6. Columbus and the Spanish explorers in the New World
7. Magellan and the first voyage round the world
8. How the rest of the map was filled in (to be treated geographically)
 - a. America
 - b. The North of Russia
 - c. The South of Asia and Australasia
 - d. The Poles

Filling in the Map of Africa (1 term)

1. Although the coast of Africa was known for a long time the interior was completely unknown to Europeans. Reasons why this knowledge was difficult to get
2. The movements of the Arabs
3. Early connection with West Africa—especially Park, Lander and Clapperton
4. Early history of South Africa—Van Riebeck at the Cape—coming of the British—the Great Trek
5. The source of the Nile; early attempts to find it
6. Central and East Africa
 - a. Livingstone and Stanley
 - b. Other important figures, especially Burton and Speke

*Why the British Stayed in Africa and Began To Take Part in Government (½ term)***

1. To trade and protect the tribes with whom they traded—use the Gold Coast as an example

* Ibid, p. 48-51.

** It is essential in this section that the main issue should not be lost sight of in a mass of detail. For this reason a single example should be used in each case, although it should be stressed that often one or more reasons apply to other territories.

2. To suppress the slave trade
 - a. How the slave trade started in East Africa and in West Africa.
 - b. Why it was difficult to stop.
 - c. How it was stopped in West Africa. How the British stayed in Sierra Leone and Lagos.
 - d. How it was stopped in East Africa. Why the British stayed in Zanzibar.
3. Because the place itself was of importance—use Capetown as an example.
4. To protect Missionaries and help them do their work—example, Nyassaland
5. To settle in Africa. Later development mostly in cool lands with nomadic populations
6. Why did the Europeans come to Uganda
7. Present geographical boundaries in Africa. Show how these are the result of other European countries coming to Africa for much the same reason as the British.

Grade 2

Early Civilizations (1 term)

1. **THE EGYPTIANS**: Who were they and where did they live?—The first great builders, the Pyramids. The invention of writing. Steps forward in religion, a Sun God, Heaven and Hell.
2. **THE GREEKS**: Who were they and where did they live?—Schools and learning; some of the branches they started. Sports—Olympic Games—Democracy; the Government of Athens; beautiful things—sculptures, buildings, literature.
3. **THE ROMANS**: Who were they and where did they live?—Organization of Government; the power of Caesar—the Civil Service—the Army, its organization; the importance of peace in the Empire—Law—The end of the Roman Empire.
4. Brief reference should also be made to the existence of early civilizations in India, China, and Mesopotamia.

The Church of Christ Keeps Learning Alive^a (½ term)

1. The Church of Christ in the Roman Empire: The life of Christ—The spread of Christianity after His death—The Roman Empire becomes Christian
2. How the Christian Church kept learning alive in the Middle Ages—Monks and Monasteries—Rebirth in Education
3. How the Christian church split into two great parties at the end of the Middle Ages

The Renaissance (½ term)

1. Revival of scientific learning and medicine—A new approach to evidence. Invention of printing
2. Revival of Art, Architecture, etc.
3. Great figures of the Renaissance—Leonardo da Vinci—Copernicus—Harvey—Link with Henry the Navigator

^a Muslim schools should study the birth and spread of Islam.

The Invention of Machines and Their Effect on Mankind (1 term)

1. How inventions are helpful to explorers
2. Why inventions began first in England
3. Early inventions in the cloth industry
4. The problem of finding power to turn the machines
 - a. The steam engine
 - b. Coal and iron
5. Improvements in transport
 - a. Roads
 - b. Canals
 - c. Railways
 - d. Steamships
6. The growth of large towns and improvement in agriculture
7. Advances in medicine—Florence Nightingale, Pasteur, Lister, Ross, Mme. Curie.
8. Modern Inventions—motor cars, aircraft, telephone, radio
9. Effect of these inventions on Uganda today

Senior Secondary Schools

Number and Enrollment

Four years in length,²² the senior secondary school follows the junior secondary school. During the 1950's senior secondary education in Uganda increased 400 percent.

Predominantly African student body.—In 1961, there were 24 Government, local authority, and aided schools with a predominantly African student body and a total enrollment of 3,532 boys and 576 girls. The Roman Catholic Church manages nine of these schools, the Native Anglican Church four, and the Uganda Muslim Educational Association one.

In addition, five unaided schools also with a predominantly African student body enrolled a total of 326 students. Three of these schools are managed by the Roman Catholic Church and one by the Native Anglican Church.

Predominantly Asian student body.—The six Government schools and one aided school in which Asian students are the majority had a total enrollment in 1961 of 1,747 boys and 844 girls.

²² A few offer an additional 2-year course leading to the Higher School Certificate.

Boarding Schools

The overwhelming majority of Uganda's senior secondary schools are boarding schools, either for boys or for girls, exclusively. Historically, such schools have become necessary because of the population's wide dispersal throughout the country. At an annual meeting, headmasters and headmistresses select their students from applicants throughout Uganda who in all probability have applied to several schools, indicating a preference. The formal basis for an applicant's being selected is the score he has received in a general examination at the end of his junior secondary schooling and his character references.

With students coming from distances too great to be traveled daily, the schools must either be boarding schools or else must find accommodations for their students in the town. But accommodations are often either unavailable or undesirable.⁵³ In spite of the drawbacks inherent in the necessity for students to go far from home in order to attend senior secondary school—in other words, boarding school—many Uganda educators believe that such a school fulfills a desirable function. It provides not only formal academic work, but a way of life. By living in the same environment, students and teachers can be in close contact. All Uganda boarding schools stress extracurricular activities, which include games on the playing field, dramatic clubs, and small discussion groups. Thus, these schools consider it their function not only to provide students with formal classes but also to introduce them to a wide variety of experiences that would be difficult to provide in a day school.

Boarding school fees usually range from \$49 to \$63⁵⁴ a year, covering tuition, board, and room. Average enrollment is 162 and pupil-teacher ratio 16:1. One school, however, has 360 students and eight schools each have only a little over a hundred.

This average enrollment of 162 in the boarding schools is not, in the opinion of the International Bank, economical. In its opinion, to be economical and provide the type of education needed, these schools should be expanded to accommodate 420 students each.⁵⁵ If expanded to this degree they could conservatively accommodate about 2,800 students more than the present enrollment.⁵⁶

⁵³ For the problem of students living without school boarding facilities, see *Report of the World Situation*. New York: United Nations, 1957. pp. 163-64.

⁵⁴ An \$84 fee is charged by one day school, Kitante Hill Secondary School, created purposely to integrate African, Asian, and European students.

⁵⁵ International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. *op. cit.*, p. 360.

⁵⁶ The Bank estimated the capital costs for such an expansion as £1,200,000.

Curriculum and Syllabi

The 1959 White Paper reported that the senior secondary school curriculum and syllabi are to a great extent tied to the task of preparing students to take the examination for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate.⁵⁷ The student's score on this examination will determine, along with his character references, the possibility of his continuing to the Higher School Certificate classes, and, it is hoped, eventually to the university. For those students who do not go on to higher education, the examination score is important when they apply for employment in Government or industry. Although senior secondary schools have the responsibility of preparing students for taking the Certificate examination, they have no standard syllabi which they must follow. Each school, on the contrary, is free to develop its own scheme of work to prepare its students. As a result, the class pattern and the curriculum organization vary from school to school.

Typical senior secondary curriculum

[Classes from 40 to 50 minutes]

1st and 2d years (Forms I and II) ¹	3d year (Form III) ²		4th year (Form IV)
	Arts course	Science course	
Biology English Fine arts General science Geography History Literature Mathematics Religion ("Bible knowledge")	Biology English Geography Mathematics History Literature	Biology English Geography Mathematics Chemistry Physics	Student continues his subjects ³

¹ Also French, if qualified instructor is available.

² Fine arts and sculpture offered as options in both years and both courses.

³ For what the headmaster accepts as a legitimate reason, a student may drop any one subject except English.

Certain details of the biology, English, and history syllabi are presented below.

⁵⁷ An examination prepared in England. For details on this subject, see references on p. 62, 63, and 64 of the present bulletin.

Biology.—Like the other syllabi in senior secondary, those for biology are geared to preparing students for the School Certificate examination. Typically, the biology syllabi cover the following aspects of the subject:

<i>Form I</i>	<i>Form II</i>	<i>Form III</i>	<i>Form IV</i>
External features of a named plant	Plant structure and physiology	Plant and animal respiration	Morphology
Cells	Ecology as a terrestrial habitat	Plant and animal reproduction	Plant and animal irritability
Protoplasm	Anatomy and physiology of a mammal	Vegetative reproduction of plants and storage organs	Amoeba, hydra
Tissues and organs		Review of internal structure of stems and roots	Mould fungus
Plant morphology			Insects
Functions of the stem			Plant and animal cell structure
Functions of leaves			
Animal morphology			
Living and non-living things			
Differences			
Characteristics of life			
Sensitivity and locomotion			
Soils			

English.—In most senior secondary schools the syllabus combines grammar, literature, and spoken English. All four forms use basic grammar and composition books.

In Form I, popular readers include *Nicholas Nickleby*, *Some Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*, and *The Talisman*. Most schools encourage students to read as extensively as possible, and often select one book a term for extensive study. Composition emphasizes "disciplined writing"—short passages with emphasis on correctness.

Form II continues basic work in composition and grammar. Readers include *The Scarlet Pimpernel*, *The Trojan War*, and *Wuthering Heights*, as well as a simplified Shakespeare play such as *As You Like It* or *The Merchant of Venice*. Language classes often emphasize analysis, clauses, and synthesis.

Form III places greater emphasis on literature, still uses basic composition and grammar books extensively, and in language classes gives work in clauses, direct and indirect speech, and punctuation. Most literature classes include one Shakespeare play, one classical novel, one book of selected poetry, and one modern play. Literature books include *Great Expectations*, *Pride and Prejudice*, and *A Tale of Two Cities*. Among the plays selected by various schools are *Henry V*, *Julius Caesar*, *Macbeth*, and *Twelfth Night*.

Form IV selects materials determined largely by the School Certificate Syllabus. It consists largely of constant practice in essay writing, precis, and language questions.

History.—Many schools begin the history syllabus with Uganda. Included are tribal histories, early European interests in East Africa, the missionaries' arrival, the British Imperial East Africa Company, and famous names of Uganda such as Mwangi, Sir Gerald Portal, and Sir Harry Johnson.

Towards the end of Form I, the subject often shifts to ancient and medieval history. Egypt, Greece, and Rome are studied, as well as the Dark Ages, the Renaissance, and the early Church.

In Form II, many schools cover 15th and 16th century European explorations and discoveries, the founding of European colonies, and the history of the colonies from the 15th to the 18th century.

Form III covers very general work on British history from the 16th to the 20th century, the industrial and agricultural revolutions of the 18th and 19th centuries, social and economic 19th century reforms, history of the Dominions, the British Constitution today, and the commonwealth and colonial Governments today.

In Form IV, East African history is studied and there is a general review for the School Certificate examination.

Planned Improvements

English.—Efforts are being made to improve English teaching. One stimulus has been a comment of the Sessional Paper: "The English language paper in the school examination [the English language part of this examination] is the most difficult hurdle which local candidates have to face."

Science.—The Sessional Paper also indicated that school facilities are being improved. Until 1959, most students took the general science paper in the School Certificate examination. Since general science is inadequate for students who wish to take university science courses, most schools now offer physics, with biology and chemistry as separate subjects; and are giving attention to chemistry and physics as separate subjects for science specialists.

According to the Paper, all efforts to introduce practical agriculture on the secondary level have been a failure. A special syllabus in agricultural biology has been introduced at Ntare School, Mbarara. The Cambridge Syndicate and Makerere College have accepted the

paper on agricultural biology as an alternative to the one on regular biology.

Higher School Certificate Classes

If a student successfully completes the 4 years of senior secondary and scores high on the examination for the Cambridge School Certificate, he may be eligible for the 2-year Higher School Certificate course. Popularly called "sixth form" in Uganda, this course is equated with the British sixth-form pattern. For some students the course may be considered terminal, but for the vast majority it is preparatory for the university. At course end, students take the Higher School Certificate examination. Successful completion of the course and a good score on the examination are the requirements for university entrance.

In the past, students were coached at Makerere College for the Preliminary Examination of the University of London. Found to be too costly, this procedure has been dropped. The staff were spending too much time on the coaching, the pupils were often immature and not able to cope with the freedom of college life, and the space they occupied was needed for regular Makerere College students.

Higher Education

Makerere College,⁸⁸ the apex of the Uganda educational system, was founded in 1922 as a technical school. In 1938 it was reorganized as an interterritorial institution to serve the higher education needs of East Africa and to become in due course the "University of East Africa." In 1949, the University of London admitted Makerere into a "special relationship,"⁸⁹ whereby the University would award "external" degrees to students studying locally at Makerere.

Beginning in 1952, the East African countries of Kenya and Tanganyika, in addition to Uganda, made financial contributions to

⁸⁸ For a description of Makerere in 1960, see *Education for Africans in Tanganyika* (Bulletin 1960, No. 19--OE-14039), by Betty George. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960. 97 p.

⁸⁹ Under this scheme, a new higher educational institution could offer its students the opportunity to gain such a degree immediately, provided the institution met certain standards of curriculum, examinations, facilities, and staff required by the University of London. Makerere was but one of a number of colleges in British-related Africa that took advantage of the "special relationship."

Makerere, which have paid practically all its recurrent expenses. Before Uganda's independence the British Government through the Colonial Development and Welfare funds made substantial grants towards Makerere's capital costs, and today it assists the University of East Africa financially.

In 1961 the three East African countries banded together to form the Provisional Council of the University of East Africa, and in June 1963 the three colleges in these countries (Kenya's Royal College of Nairobi, Tanganyika's University College of Dar-Es-Salaam, and Uganda's Makerere College) formed the long-envisioned University of East Africa. Since this latter date, the special relationship between the University of London and each of these African colleges for an "external" degree no longer exists. Instead, the new University of East Africa awards the degree. According to estimates, the number of degrees which it will have awarded during its first 4 years as a university (1961-65) will be around 455.⁶⁰

By the end of 1961, 539 Uganda higher education students were on Government scholarships in other countries. Government funds for these scholarships increased from £72,000 in 1960-61 to £302,000 in 1961-62. Besides the 539 Government scholarship students in various countries, over 500 privately financed students were studying during 1961 at colleges and universities in Great Britain and the United States.

⁶⁰ Guy Hunter. *Education for a Developing Region: A Study in East Africa*. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1963. p. 41.

The Examination System



AN INTEGRAL PART OF Uganda's educational system, examinations are given at crucial levels. They serve two important functions. First, they select the best academic students when places on the next advanced level—for example, the junior secondary—are limited. Although primary education has expanded rapidly, junior secondary and senior secondary places are limited. Second, they are a technique for maintaining agreed-upon standards in the schools. Not only in Uganda, but also in many other countries, educators have been concerned that standards could drop if the educational system expanded too rapidly.

Formal examinations are given at the end of primary, junior secondary, and senior secondary school; and at the end of the Higher School Certificate classes.

Primary Leaving Examination

Given at the end of grade 6, the primary leaving examination is an internal one, written, administered, and graded by the schools themselves. It serves as a basis for selecting pupils to attend junior secondary school.

Junior Secondary Leaving Examination

Coming at the end of junior secondary 2 (8th grade), the Junior Secondary Leaving Examination is prepared and graded by the Ministry of Education. It consists of the following subjects: English I ("general paper"), English II (composition and comprehension), geography,¹ history,² and mathematics.³

¹ Geography included for the first time in the 1961 examinations.

² History is now being introduced in the examinations on an experimental basis.

³ At schools with recognised home economics courses, girls may take an arithmetic examination and a home economics examination, the latter consisting of a theory paper and a practical examination.

TABLE 1.—Number of pupils taking the Junior Secondary Leaving Examination, number awarded the Junior Secondary Leaving Certificate, and number failing 1960

Province	Number taking the examination	Number awarded the certificate, by grade of certificate			Number failing	
		Total	Grade I	Grade II		Grade III
SUMMARY						
Grand total	7,940	7,009	1,124	2,570	2,405	641
Total, school sponsorship	6,415	6,040	979	2,267	2,799	375
Total, no school sponsorship	1,525	1,069	145	303	606	266
SCHOOL SPONSORSHIP						
Total	6,415	6,040	979	2,267	2,799	
Buganda	2,252	2,054	245	709	1,100	194
Eastern	1,777	1,679	309	634	736	94
Northern	1,246	1,209	225	493	481	37
Western	1,140	1,098	190	426	482	42
NO SCHOOL SPONSORSHIP ("PRIVATE CANDIDATES")						
Total, All Uganda	1,525	1,069	145	303	606	666
Seminaries, etc.	154	150	57	55	38	4
Other "private"	1,371	909	88	253	568	462

SOURCE OF DATA: Mimeographed Statement by E. Bright, Examination Secretary for the Director of Education. Kampala: Ministry of Education, no date.

According to the geographical area in which the school is located, the pupils' examination papers are sent for grading to one of four centers: Buganda, Fort Portal, Gulu, or Mbale. Representatives from the Ministry of Education do the correcting. Later, subject-matter representatives from each center meet in Kampala to decide what the passing mark will be for grade-I, grade-II, and grade-III Junior Secondary Leaving certificates. For example, on the basis of the English papers, English specialists might decide for that subject on a 70-percent minimum for a grade-I certificate and on a 50-percent minimum for a grade-II certificate. Also, after having read the mathematics papers, the specialists in that subject might decide on 45 percent and 34 percent for grade-I and grade-II certificates, respectively. Specialists in each subject area decide yearly what the minimum shall be.

If a pupil passes at the grade-I level, he receives a grade-I certificate. The same relationship exists at the grade-II level. Grade-I and -II certificates are formally considered the Protectorate Junior Secondary Leaving Certificate. The grade-III certificate is for pupils who are slightly above failure. The level of the certificate is

important not only for admission to higher educational opportunities but also for entrance to Government service.

The headmasters of senior secondary schools examine the marks which applicants for entrance to these schools have received in English, geography, and mathematics. Simply having a grade-I certificate does not mean that the applicant is automatically accepted. It may be that he has a grade-II certificate because, although he earned a very high grade in mathematics, he did not earn a grade-I pass in English.*

Once accepted for a senior secondary school, the pupil is ordinarily assured of 4 years of education. His next major examination comes at the end of that period (12th grade). Pupils asked to leave during the period are usually discipline, rather than academic, problems.

Senior Secondary Leaving Examination

At the end of the senior secondary school, students take an examination for the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate. This examination is prepared by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, whose members are a vice-chancellor (or his deputy), who serves as chairman; 12 other resident members of the University; 3 principals of schools in England; and 3 representatives of associations of Local Education Authorities in England.

Four Advisory Committees were set up in 1955 to continue the work of the former Advisory Committee on Overseas Examinations. These four committees deal, respectively, with the following four areas: India and Pakistan, the Caribbean area, Malaya, East and Central Africa.

The area committees meet in Cambridge or in the areas concerned and advise the Syndicate, the Awarding Committee, and the Subject Committees on the examination in their areas.

Subject areas are covered by 18 subject committees and subcommittees. Their members include members of the Syndicate, representatives of the examiners, and school and university teachers of the subject concerned. Approximately 60 percent of the subject committees are school teachers, and these committees consult with the four Advisory Committees on Overseas Examinations.

The Syndicate holds an annual conference in England and to it all areas are invited to send representatives.

*See appendix for part of a typical Senior Secondary Entrance and Junior Secondary Leaving Examination in English.

TABLE 2.—Number of pupils taking the Senior Secondary Learning Examination and number and percent awarded the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, by year: 1954-60

[— indicates that source did not give any figures]

Year ¹	Number taking the examination			Number awarded the certificate (number passing)			Percent awarded the certificate (percent passing) ²
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	
AFRICAN SCHOOLS							
1954.....	270	245	25	277	256	21	80
1955.....	383	355	28	296	30	30	84
1956.....	517	478	39	356	333	23	77
1957.....	605	615	50	491	456	35	69
1958.....	716	679	37	557	525	32	74
1959.....	725	664	61	546	471	55	77
1960.....	851	775	76	649	595	54	75
ASIAN SCHOOLS							
1954.....	166	132	34	128	101	27	77
1955.....	147	108	39	97	69	28	66
1956.....	225	177	48	130	109	21	58
1957.....	352	262	70	159	110	49	48
1958.....	300	213	87	212	157	55	71
1959.....	433	272	161	228	151	77	53
1960.....	524	330	204	294	200	94	56
NO SCHOOL SPONSORSHIP ("PRIVATE CANDIDATES")							
1954.....	101	—	—	30	—	—	30
1955.....	165	—	—	47	—	—	28
1956.....	223	—	—	38	—	—	17
1957.....	324	—	—	47	—	—	15
1958.....	211	—	—	51	—	—	24
1959.....	251	—	—	49	—	—	20
1960.....	298	—	—	79	—	—	27

¹ 1953 data, with no breakdown by sex, were given in the source for only the African schools 207 took the examination and 166 (80 percent) were awarded the certificate

² Figures are rounded to the nearest whole percent.

SOURCE OF DATA: Mimeographed statement by E. Bright, Examination Secretary for the Director of Education, Kampala, Ministry of Education, no date

TABLE 3.—Number of pupils taking the Senior Secondary Leaving Examination, number awarded the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, number awarded the General Certificate of Education, and number failing: 1960

School or college	Total number taking the examination	Number awarded the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, by grade of certificate			Number awarded the General Certificate of Education	Number failing ¹	
		Total	Grade I	Grade II			Grade III
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
SUMMARY							
Grand total	1,673	1,022	203	469	250	263	298
Total, all African schools	851	649	166	317	166	126	76
Total, all Asian schools	524	294	31	134	129	107	130
Total, no school sponsorship	298	79	6	18	55	30	100
AFRICAN SCHOOLS FOR BOYS							
Total	775	695	153	289	163	112	68
Buzoga College (Mwiru)	56	35	6	16	13	13	8
Butobera School	23	10	3	6	1	13	0
Kings College (Budo)	41	30	13	14	3	6	5
Makerere College School	20	12	6	4	2	2	6
Nabumali High School	46	37	8	15	14	5	4
Namulyango College	65	55	10	36	9	9	1
Ntare School	61	54	17	26	11	4	3
Nyakusura School	54	49	22	21	6	0	5
St. Aloysius College (Nyapen)	45	25	4	14	7	16	4
St. Henry's College (Kitouvu)	38	35	3	16	16	3	0
St. Leo's College (Fort Portal)	39	27	3	16	8	10	2
St. Mary's College (Kisubi)	66	57	20	27	10	7	2
Sir Samuel Baker School (Gulu)	(1)	37	15	12	10	2	(1)
Teso College	64	46	5	19	22	3	15
Tororo College	52	38	6	25	7	5	9
Hugema Missionary College	28	16	4	11	1	4	4
Hukasa Seminary	13	8	1	4	3	2	3
Kisubi Seminary	3	5	3	1	1	0	0
Kisubi Seminary	16	11	2	3	6	2	3
Nyenga Seminary	12	8	2	3	3	2	2
AFRICAN SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS							
Total	76	54	13	28	13	14	9
Budo	9	5	1	0	4	2	2
Gayaza	23	19	9	9	1	3	1
Makerere College School	6	2	0	2	0	2	2
Nabbingo	14	9	0	6	3	4	1
Nabumali	5	3	1	0	2	2	0
Namagunga	16	15	2	10	3	1	0
Hugema Missionary College	3	1	0	1	0	0	2
ASIAN SCHOOLS FOR BOYS							
Total	320	200	21	83	8	63	57
Government Secondary Schools							
Aga Khan School (Kampala)	3	3	1	2	0	0	0
Jinja	79	47	22	23	22	15	17
Kololo	73	48	3	28	17	14	11
Masaka	15	9	2	1	6	1	5
Mbale	54	39	8	15	16	9	6
Old Kampala	46	45	5	20	20	23	18
Soroti	10	9	0	4	5	1	0

See foot notes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Number of pupils taking the Senior Secondary Leaving Examination, number awarded the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, number awarded the General Certificate of Education, and number failing: 1960—Con.

School or college	Total number taking the examination	Number awarded the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, by grade of certificate			Number awarded the General Certificate of Education	Number failing ¹	
		Total	Grade I	Grade II			Grade III
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ASIAN SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS							
Total	204	94	10	41	43	44	66
Aga Kahn School (Kampala).....	9	8	3	3	2	1	0
Government Secondary Schools							
Jinja.....	42	24	1	11	12	9	9
Kololo.....	71	24	3	12	9	18	29
Masaka.....	(²) 3	3	1	0	2	0	(²)
Mbale.....	27	17	1	8	8	5	5
Old Kampala.....	47	14	1	5	8	11	22
Soroti.....	4	4	0	2	2	0	0
NO SCHOOL SPONSORSHIP ("PRIVATE CANDIDATES")							
Total, all Uganda	208	79	6	18	56	30	189

¹ Calculated from figures in the original source.

² Source figures slightly discrepant. ³ Not possible to calculate.

SOURCE OF DATA: Mimeographed statement by E. Bright, Examination Secretary for the Director of Education. Kampala: Ministry of Education, no date.

Examination Subjects

Subjects for the Senior Secondary Leaving Examination are grouped as follows:

I. English language^{*}

II. *General*: English literature, history, geography, religion ("Bible knowledge")

III. *Languages*: Latin, Greek, French, German, Spanish, others as approved

IV. *Mathematics*: Mathematics, additional mathematics

V. *Sciences*: General science, general science (second subject), agricultural science, physics, chemistry, biology, physics with chemistry, botany

VI. *Arts and crafts*: Art, music, woodwork, metalwork, needlework and dressmaking, cooking, general housecraft

* Compulsory.

VII. *Technical and commercial*: Engineering science, surveying, geometrical and building drawing, commercial studies, commerce, principles of accounts, health science.*

Candidates for the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate must take six, seven, or eight subjects. These subjects must include English language and others chosen from at least three of the groups II through VII.

Conditions for Certificate Award

In addition to satisfying all basic requirements for the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, the candidate must:

Reach a satisfactory general standard as judged by [his] performance in [his] best six subjects.

Pass at least six subjects, including English language, with credit in at least one.

Pass in five subjects, including English language, with credits in at least two.⁷

The following tabulation illustrates the marking system:

Grade and letter	<i>Standard for University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate</i>	<i>Standard for General Certificate of Education</i>
1P.....	} Very good.....	} Ordinary level pass.
2P.....		
3P.....	} Pass with credit.....	
4P.....		
5P.....		
6P.....		
7.....	} Pass.....	} Fail.
8.....		
9.....	Fail.....	

The type of certificate that a student receives is based on the aggregate of the highest six subject grades. The highest is "1" and the lowest "9". A low aggregate therefore indicates a high score, and a high aggregate a low score. Successful candidates received a First-, Second-, or Third-Division Certificate.

*University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate. *Joint Examination for the School Certificate and General Certificate of Education (Overseas Centres Only) Regulations 1963*. Cambridge: University Press, 1961. p. 6.

⁷ *Ibid.*

The criteria for these three types of certificate are the following:

First-Division Certificate

The student must pass in six or more subjects, which must be from at least three of groups II through VII; pass with credit in at least five of these subjects, including the English language; reach a high general standard as judged by [his] performance in [his] best six subjects.⁹

Second-Division Certificate

The student must pass in six or more subjects, which must include the English language and must be from at least three of groups II through VII; pass with credit in at least four of these subjects; reach a certain general standard as judged by [his] performance in [his] best six subjects.⁹

Third-Division Certificate

Certificates of this level are granted to the remainder of the candidates who meet the requirements.

The General Certificate of Education is awarded to students who earn three "credits," but whose total examination record does not entitle them to a University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate. Ordinarily, Makerere College accepted only applicants who held a First-Division Certificate when it was offering courses leading to the Preliminary Examination of the University of London.

To advise the Syndicate on the School Certificate examinations, the Cambridge School Certificate Local Committee has been organized in Uganda.¹⁰ This committee includes the Examinations Secretary, responsible for the administration of the examinations; a representative for the Minister of Education; a representative for the Inspectorate; three representatives from Makerere College's Faculties of Arts, Education, and Science; and chairmen of panels for the various subject areas covered in the examinations.

The subject-area panels receive the examination questions and through the Committee pass on their recommendations to the Syndicate. The 1960 panel recommendations included the following:

Domestic Science

The needlework examination was lengthy, but the questions were straightforward and covered most of the syllabus. Some of the panel felt that in cookery more emphasis might have been laid on teaching dietetics, food hygiene, and nutrition, since these areas are important in Uganda.

English Language and Literature

Although the panel was greatly satisfied with the examination questions in English language and literature, it criticized the range and questioned the local relevance of topics in the composition examination.

⁹ Ibid. p. 7.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ At its March 17, 1961 meeting the Committee agreed that its name should be "The Cambridge Examinations Uganda Committee."

Geography

The criticisms were directed against the absence of a linear scale on the map extract and the vague wording of some of the questions, as well as the general plan of the geography syllabus, which the panel was reviewing along with its appraisal of the examination.

History

All examination questions were satisfactory and the panel expressed appreciation to the Syndicate for the attention given to the panel's complaints and suggestions of the past few years.

Languages Other Than English

Most of the language examinations had an over-English approach, essay subjects were still given in English, and there was a great deal of translation but still no comprehension.

Religion ("Bible Knowledge")

Although the panel's general opinion was that the questions were fair, the panel pointed out that the candidates using the Douay and Knox versions were given the answer to the first question in the quotation, while those using the Revised version were not.

Science

The practical examination in chemistry was too long.

Higher School Certificate Examination

Candidates for the Higher School Certificate are expected to have taken a 2-year advanced course beyond the level of the course for the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate. The examination is limited to those candidates who already have that certificate or who have passed with "credit" in at least three General Certificate of Education courses.

Every candidate must write a General Paper ordinarily requiring two-and-a-half hours of writing. His performance on this paper measures his knowledge and understanding of common English usage and his "ability to re-express in continuous form material supplied in the paper."¹¹ In addition, he must take examinations in subjects totaling six, seven, or eight units. These subjects must include at least two principal ones,¹² each of which counts for two units. To make up the required number of units, the candidate may answer

¹¹ University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate. *Higher School Certificate Regulations for the Examination 1962*. Cambridge: University Press, 1960. p. 11.

¹² The following are principal subjects: Applied mathematics, art, biology, botany, chemistry, economics and public affairs, English, French, geography, geology, Greek, history, Latin, mathematics, metalwork, music, physics, physics with chemistry, pure mathematics, religion, Spanish, woodwork, and zoology.

questions on subsidiary subjects,¹³ at the rate of one unit for each such subject. Or, he may use part of a principal subject as a subsidiary one.

In the words of the pertinent regulations, a candidate for the Higher School Certificate must—

Reach a certain standard on the General Paper, on [his] best two principal subjects, and on either a third principal subject or two subsidiary subjects.

Pass in the General Paper and in subjects totaling at least five units, including two principal subjects.¹⁴

East African vs. American Secondary Education

It is always difficult to compare the educational systems of two countries. Each system is the result of a long tradition. It is virtually impossible to compare them if course titles are used without explanation. Thus, the American reader, finding that biology or chemistry is introduced in the first year of the African secondary school, often assumes that the course is identical with one of the same name in the United States. Actually, the content is not identical and the Uganda method, for example, is to spread science courses over 4 years rather than concentrate them in 1 or 2 years as in the United States.

The content of courses in Uganda secondary schools is determined by the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate examination, which the candidate for that certificate takes at the end of his fourth year. He is examined in six to eight subjects.

In science, most secondary schools prepare their students to take the examination in physics-with-chemistry and biology.¹⁵ To prepare for it, students study all three subjects two or three periods¹⁶ per week for 4 years.

The time which a Uganda secondary school student spends in science classes exceeds that spent by the majority of American high school students. In addition, the typical Uganda student receives instruction in both biological and physical sciences, as indicated above; whereas it is possible for an American high school student to ignore either chemistry or physics.

¹³ Subsidiary subjects are ancient history, biology, botany, English, geology, Greek, Latin, mathematics, music, and Spanish.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹⁵ Other subjects included in the science area and for which the student may take examinations are agricultural science, botany, and general science.

¹⁶ The average class period is 40 minutes.

The American student, however, enters high school with a broader background in biology, chemistry, and physics than does the East African student. Undoubtedly, part of the reason for the latter's narrower background is the difficulty encountered in East Africa of staffing primary and middle schools with adequately qualified teachers. In Uganda, too, there are insufficient funds to permit the Government to equip primary schools with science books and materials. Finally, there is the important fact that the American child is surrounded in his daily living with the products of a technological society.

Although the American student may study biology, chemistry, or physics for only a year each, he is almost certain to receive instruction in all of the topics required for the University of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate examination, although his teachers and textbooks will treat these topics differently and assign them more or less relative importance. Owing to the nature of that examination, Uganda secondary schools emphasize the learning of facts. American secondary schools, on the other hand, give greater emphasis to the significance and application of facts and their interrelationships.

In addition, the examination does not include topics that have become common in American secondary schools, such as atomic structure in chemistry and electronics in physics. Laboratory work in Uganda secondary schools is also directed towards preparing the student for this examination and is often simply a verification of textbook statements.

The three tables appearing on pages 56, 58, and 59-60, respectively, show certain results of the junior and senior secondary leaving examinations during the past several years.

Tables 1 and 3 (p. 56 and 59-60) illustrate the fact that students from Government and Government-supported schools have relatively few failures. The greatest number occurs in the private schools. Table 1 also brings out the relative activity of the provinces. Buganda, for example, had twice as many entries as the Western Province and nearly twice as many as the Northern Province. A total of 14 percent of the students received a Grade I Certificate, 32 percent a Grade II, and 43 percent a Grade III.

Table 2 (p. 58) summarizes the results of the senior secondary leaving examination in each of 7 recent years. It shows the marked increase in the number of candidates who have taken this examination. For the predominantly African schools the increase has been over 400 percent, and for the predominantly Asian, slightly over 300 percent. The number of students passing, however, has decreased slightly for the African and 28 percent for the Asian. The most unsuccessful candidates were the "private" students—i.e., those not under the sponsorship of any school.

Teachers and Teacher Education



Overview¹

Primary Level

Finding enough teachers has been a persistent problem in Uganda's educational development. Their scarcity at the primary level, for example, has been considered the major reason for the schools' inability to provide pupils with adequate instruction in English.

The 26 primary teacher-training colleges are not being used to capacity. The rapid expansion of primary education during the 1950's resulted in the establishment of numerous training colleges for teachers at this level. This expansion understandably made it imperative for the Government to expand education at the levels above. In order, then, to provide funds for expanding junior and senior secondary education, the Government in 1958 decided to reduce drastically the rate of primary education.

In view of the Government's policy, the number of students to be admitted to the primary teacher-training colleges was reduced in order to decrease the number of "development teachers"² from 600-700 per year to 200. This restriction had the effect also of lowering the number of new primary "places" (i.e., enrollments) from 24,000 per year to 8,000.

Junior Secondary Level

Four colleges prepare teachers for the junior secondary level, with Central Government Training College having the majority of them. The average enrollment there—100—is limited not by existing facilities

¹ See appendix for a list of Muslim, Protestant, Roman Catholic, and Government training colleges for primary-grade, primary-grade domestic science, and junior secondary school teachers.

² Teachers over and above those needed for replacement.

ties, but by the number of School Certificate holders³ who want to become teachers. This situation has been described by the Ministry of Education in the following words:

An annual output of about 90—allowing for wastage in training—is wholly insufficient to expand the bottleneck of Junior Secondary education, and although other means of producing teachers for Junior Secondary Schools are energetically pursued—upgrading of Primary Teachers, use of selected Primary Teachers in the lower Junior Secondary forms and so on—the essential expansion of Junior Secondary places will not be achieved until the number of School Certificate holders is dramatically increased, thus providing the human material for the Training Colleges.⁴

Since the present teacher-training colleges are operating at approximately maximum capacity, they will have to expand extensively if they are to produce enough teachers to meet the expected need. The Ministry of Education envisions an expansion program as follows:

If it is assumed that places in Junior Secondary Schools should be sufficient for 50% of the appropriate generation, then on the basis of 40 per class, the number of additional teachers needed after the expansion undertaken during 1960-63 from Government resources would be some 2,550; or five additional colleges, assuming a student strength of 500 per college, each at a capital cost of £200,000, and an annual recurrent cost of £80,000: a total bill of £ one million capital . . . This, of course, would be a crash programme in the true sense: for once the number of Junior Secondary places in the schools rose to 50%, the number of new Junior Secondary teachers annually required would be very small; and the colleges would, therefore, in the main, have to be turned over to other purposes—probably Senior Secondary Schools . . . The staff for this expansion of teacher training could not be found from within Uganda. Nor would it be easy in present circumstances to recruit them in sufficient numbers from the United Kingdom or the Commonwealth. At this level, therefore, all three difficulties are joined—lack of students (until secondary education is greatly expanded), lack of staff, and lack of finance.⁵

Senior Secondary Level

Traditionally, the Institute of Education at Makerere has been responsible for producing senior secondary school teachers not only for Uganda but for all of East Africa. Under ideal circumstances,

³ Those who have successfully completed the 4 years of senior secondary.

⁴ Uganda Protectorate. *Education in Uganda: An Assessment of Achievements and Needs* (Paper prepared by the Ministry of Education, Uganda, for the Princeton, U.S.A. Conference on Education in East Africa in December 1960). October 1960. p. 9.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

they should be graduates of the University and have spent an additional year securing a teacher diploma. Practically, it has not been possible to produce enough graduates from the Institute to meet senior secondary needs. In 1960 there were only seven local university graduates taking the 1-year postgraduate teaching course. The Faculty of Education at Makerere could handle many more students than now enroll for the postgraduate teaching diploma. The main difficulty appears to be the few university graduates who are interested in teaching and who consequently enroll in the course. The university graduate has many opportunities which in terms of status and financial reward offer greater rewards than teaching in the senior secondary schools. The result is that Uganda Secondary education has depended heavily on expatriate teachers. "In 1959 . . . there were 125 expatriates compared with 38 African graduates."⁶ From every indication (few university graduates entering education), an appreciable number of expatriates will be needed for some years to come.

For these reasons, then—the lack of locally trained senior secondary teachers and the Government's desire to expand that level of education—the Teachers-for-East-Africa Project was organized. Under this plan, the Agency for International Development of the United States Government supplied funds for recruiting and training 150 American teachers and for transporting them to East Africa. Teachers College, Columbia University, undertook the actual recruiting, and working cooperatively with Makerere College arranged the training program. After completing their training, the 150 teachers were assigned to senior secondary schools in East Africa as employees of the East African Governments. Their basic salaries are being paid by those Governments, and their return transportation will be paid by those Governments, the United Kingdom, and the Agency for International Development. In the beginning, 34 teachers were assigned to Uganda. For East Africa as a whole, 120 more teachers were sent during the summer and fall of 1962 and another 120 during the fall and summer of 1963. For 1964 the same number have been requested.

The Agency for International Development, Teachers College of Columbia University, and Makerere College in Uganda have all continued their particular roles.

⁶ *Ibid.*

Teacher-Training Colleges

Primary Teachers

Uganda's primary-school teachers are prepared at training colleges established for the purpose. The de Bunsen Committee had emphasized that teacher-training is the key to Uganda's educational development and in its report recommended that the country's 41 training centers be reduced to 22 of adequate size and equipment. It also recommended that training of vernacular teachers⁷ be discontinued and the annual teacher output increased from approximately 500 to 1,000.

By 1956 that goal of 1,000 had practically been achieved. Nine new training colleges had been built and extensions made to selected colleges. Commenting on this expansion, the White Paper of 1959 had this to say:

It is somewhat disappointing and ironical that the Government's financial circumstances may now prevent the local authorities from making full use of the facilities which have been so efficiently and quickly provided. The financial situation coupled with the increased need and demand for secondary education is, however, such as to limit the Government funds available for grants to local authorities to further the development of primary education. Since it is essential to plan the teacher-training program well ahead, in view of the recurrent implications as trained teachers emerge from the colleges, the intake into many of the training colleges will now have to be reduced unless those local authorities who are responsible for primary education are willing and able to make good the shortfall from their own resources. . . . With these provisos, however, the training colleges will only be able in the immediate future to accept students required for normal replacement; for the replacement of teachers who, for reasons of age, etc., may be asked to retire on pension; and for such limited development as may be possible.⁸

In 1961, Uganda had 26 recognized training colleges for primary-grade teachers, 25 of them operated (with Government support) by Protestant and Roman Catholic missions. One college to train teachers for Muslim schools is operated by the Government with counsel from the Muslim Education Association at Kibuli. (For a list of these colleges, those that train primary-grade domestic science teachers, and those that train junior secondary school teachers, see appendix.)

Although the de Bunsen report recognized that completion of secondary school would be a desirable minimum requirement for admis-

⁷ As the name implies, "vernacular" teachers are those who are responsible for the first years in primary schools. Traditionally, these teachers have been the most poorly prepared. Very often they did not speak English. In recommending their abolition the Committee was in effect urging better preparation of primary teachers.

⁸ Uganda Protectorate. Education in Uganda (Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59). Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1959. p. 11.

sion to primary teacher-training, it nevertheless acknowledged that applying such standards would be impossible. The Committee agreed that a suitable program would be a 4-year course (2 years of general education, 2 years of professional training) after the student had finished 8 years of education.

At present, to be admitted to a primary teacher-training college, the student must have completed 8 years of education and received the Junior Secondary Examination Certificate—grade I or grade II. Ordinarily, grade-III certificate holders⁹ are not accepted. The student makes formal application to the college he wants to attend. In addition to wanting to know the grade of the applicant's certificate, the principal of the college usually wishes to interview this applicant. By the time of the interview, the principal often has in hand reports on the applicant from former teachers or headmasters. On the basis of the interview reports, and examination certificate score, the principal selects an applicant who in his opinion will make a good teacher.

Again, the new curriculum shows the effect of the de Bunsen Committee's recommendations: close collaboration should exist between officers of the Education Department (now Ministry of Education); the curriculum should be more practical; more attention should be given to speech training, the vernacular, and rural studies; the student should be encouraged to acquire dexterity in some craft.

The college courses are ordinarily of 4 years' duration and are closely allied to the official primary school syllabus. The following subjects constitute the basis of the curriculum:

Arithmetic	Health education	Religion ("Bible knowledge")
Arts and crafts	Nature study and gardening	Singing
English	Needlework ¹⁰	Vernacular language
Geography	Physical education	
History		

The 4-year training period provides both academic and professional study. The primarily academic first year is aimed at broadening the student's background knowledge. During the second year the student starts tutorial group work in child observation. He studies methodology in both the first and second years. If staff are available, a great deal of time is devoted during the second year to infant methods and during this year also the student may begin troupe-teaching practice in the demonstration school. At the end of this second year he may start practice teaching outside the college.

⁹ Grade-I and Grade-II certificates are awarded to students who score highest in the examination. A student who receives a grade-III certificate has barely passed.

¹⁰ Handiwork for boys.

During the third year, many colleges provide two periods of practice teaching of 2 weeks each, and in the fourth year two periods of 3 weeks. In addition, students may do some teaching in the demonstration school. Every student is expected to have a total of 12 weeks' supervised teaching practice in the college demonstration school and neighboring practicing schools. During the student's final year, the headquarters officer responsible for teacher-training and the district education officer of the particular area visit the colleges to evaluate student grades. These visits ordinarily come at a time when students are doing practice teaching, so that an evaluation of each one's teaching ability can be made. The student's files containing reports of the examinations he has taken at the college and reports of his lessons are made available to the inspecting officer. His inspection is not considered a final examination, but rather an evaluation of the training program, suggesting ways the program can be improved and, if necessary, adjusting college grades.

The White Paper has emphasized that in order to reduce wastage, the training colleges must pay more attention to training teachers for the lower classes of primary schools.

Each primary teacher-training college accommodates 160-180 students. The de Bunsen Committee had recommended that each college have 100-200 students. The size of the staff varies from college to college. For what is considered a full complement (180 students), the Ministry of Education recommends a staff of 11-14 senior members and 7 junior members.

The costs to the students vary from college to college, but the average appears to be between \$42 and \$50 for books, uniforms, etc. Each mission college receives \$77 per student per year. The Government bears the salary costs and gives each college support for new buildings.

Junior Secondary Teachers

When the de Bunsen Committee made its report, development on the junior secondary level was very limited. In 1952 only 18 students completed their training as junior secondary teachers. By 1960 the Central Government College, Kyambogo, was producing approximately 90 teachers. As an important step in the educational ladder, the junior secondary teacher-training colleges have been developed as rapidly as revenue could be appropriately allocated and suitable candidates found. There is every indication that this development will continue. In addition to training new teachers, the Education

Department has been successful in producing new junior secondary teachers through "upgrading courses." Primary teachers who have been successful in upgrading courses are promoted to positions in junior secondary schools.

From the viewpoint of the Government, one of the main functions of the "upgrading" courses is that they serve as a promotion outlet for primary and vernacular teachers. For those who do not become junior secondary teachers, the courses provide additional training, status, and salary.

Students admitted to the junior secondary teacher-training colleges have completed 12 years of education—6 primary, 2 junior secondary, 4 senior secondary—and have received the Cambridge School Certificate or General Certificate of Education.

The 2-year course is closely allied with the junior secondary school syllabus.

One junior secondary school teacher-training college offers the following curriculum:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Number of hours per week</i>
Total	23
Education (Principles of) ¹	2
English as a foreign language	4
Mathematics	4
Physical education (ordinary level) ¹	2
Religion ("Bible knowledge")	1
Visual aids and blackboard work	2
<i>Electives:</i>	
Art, civics, or music	4
Geography, general science, or history	4

¹ Supervised teaching practice takes place during a minimum of 11 weeks in the professional studies period. This experience is in addition to demonstrations and criticism lessons throughout the course.

² At the advanced level, four hours per week.

Towards the end of their practice teaching, students are observed by senior officers of the Ministry of Education. If these officers and the college authorities consider a student incompetent in teaching, he is not allowed to pass. Failure in practice teaching is final judgment and the student is not permitted to try again.

Although some variations may occur from college to college, the syllabus outlined below is indicative of the course work covered in a junior secondary teacher-training college:

Art

Drawing and painting—design—crafts.

Civics

The aim of the course is to give students a knowledge of the subject, encourage them to keep abreast of rapidly changing conditions, help them to organize their knowledge into classroom lessons for junior secondary school students. Among the topics covered are the central Government, the budget, local Government (U.K. and Uganda), East African High Commission, work of the various Government departments, semigovernment institutions, responsibility of the individual, Empire and Commonwealth.

Domestic Science Training

Two domestic science training colleges (at Kyambogo and Nsube) provide a 3-year training course for girls who have passed their Junior Secondary Leaving examination. Students are trained to work in primary, junior, secondary, and homecraft centers. After successfully completing their course, they are paid at primary teacher rates.

The Royal College of Nairobi, Kenya, offers advanced work in domestic science. Requirements for entrance include a senior secondary education and a good score on the Cambridge School Certificate examination.

Education (Principles of)

Factors in education—aims of African education—education and environment, the subject to be taught (five essentials, tool subjects, world of values and ideas, world of people, living world around us, creative activities), the learning process, education in Uganda, school organization.

English as a Foreign Language

Reasons for teaching English in Africa—modern methods of teaching English—selection of material (vocabulary, sentence patterns, inflection)—use of textbooks—compositions—reading—preparation of lessons.

Geography

Methods (aim of geography teaching, construction of lessons, story telling, visits, visual aids, reference material)—background to syllabus (map work, local geography, land-use studies, weather and climate, earth as a planet, environments outside Africa, trade and industry).

History

Background lectures (*first year*: world exploration, African exploration, why the British stayed in Africa and took part in the Government; *second year*: background to Western civilization)—methods lectures (i.e., reasons for teaching history, drama in history teaching, selection and use of textbooks)—discussion and practical work.

Mathematics

Primary school arithmetic—the change to English as a medium of instruction—principles of arithmetic teaching at postprimary level—teaching new work—geometry—algebra—topics for preparation and practice (arithmetic, geometry, algebra)—background mathematics (arithmetic, commercial algebra)—graphs—geometry—mechanical drawing.

Music

Western music (rudiments of music, sight singing, playing the records, music appreciation), African music (research work for tribal music, discussion on African music)—study of teaching methods.

Physical Education—Advanced Course

Officiating—coaching—administration—principles of physical education—history of physical education—anatomy and psychology—health education—practical teaching.

Physical Education—Basic Course

Emphasis on students' practical performance—knowledge of main athletic events—individual, pair, and group activities—lectures on preparation and layout of a P.E. Lesson—practical teaching with demonstration school boys—lectures on athletic meetings, organization and judging, football refereeing, care of equipment, school teams and competition—junior secondary physical education syllabus—supervised practical teaching of P.E.

Science

Science method—practical work (laboratory techniques)—background topics (organization of projects, study of plants, insects, human body, machines, heat).

Speech Training

At present the work is largely experimental. Extensive use is made of a tape recorder with both individual students and groups.

Visual Aids and Blackboard Work

Blackboard writing and drawing—large-size maps—lettering—operation of film strip projectors. (For this course tutors are responsible for demonstrating the use of visual aids in their respective subjects.)

Throughout the training period for junior secondary teachers, particular attention is paid to English and mathematics. Although they receive general training in the normal subjects for their teaching level, they often have an opportunity for some specialist training also. One college gives specialization courses in group-A subjects (geography, history, science) and as an alternative in group-B subjects (art, civics, music).

Senior Secondary Level

The Faculty of Education, Makerere College, trains students for teaching at the senior secondary level.¹¹ In the past, students not having a B.A. or a B.S. degree could take a 2-year course consisting of the following:

Lectures and tutorials in Educational psychology with practical work

Lectures in the principles of education (including history and philosophy of education in the second year)

¹¹ Also a number are trained overseas. "Probably some 100 teachers will return between 1961 and 1965." International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. *The Economic Development of Uganda*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1962. p. 358.

Practice teaching and observation of demonstration lessons¹⁸

Making visual aids for teaching, a practical course enabling teachers to go out equipped with charts and models and to know how to make them

Physical education lectures, practical lessons, and demonstration lessons in elementary gymnastics, athletics, games, and methods of teaching them

A weekly tutorial in education

A weekly seminar in one academic subject selected by the student¹⁹

Three methods courses selected from the following: *biology, English, geography, history, mathematics, physics-with-chemistry*; one methods course selected from the following: *art, crafts, physical education, religion* ("Bible knowledge").²⁰

This 2-year course at Makerere College is being phased out and emphasis is now being given to a 1-year course for holders of the B.A. or B.S. degree.

The 1-year course emphasizes educational theory and practice. Students have educational psychology, principles of education, methods suited to their degree subjects, tutorials, physical education, demonstration practice lessons, and a student teaching period. The academic year is divided into three terms, of which one is used for student teaching.

The Uganda Teachers Association

Teachers' organizations in Uganda have become increasingly important in recent years, and professionally trained teachers are playing a more important role than formerly in determining educational policy and procedure.

The oldest and most influential teachers' organization in Uganda is the Uganda Teachers Association. Founded in 1944, this association was then called the Uganda Africa Teachers Association, and in 1959 it dropped the word "Africa" from its name. Composed of teachers from all denominations, the association originally drew its members from a number of schools in and around Kampala. Later it started branches mainly on a district basis throughout all parts of the country. In May 1961 it had 30 branches and approximately 5,000 members.

¹⁸ This activity is a regular part of the student's first year schedule, which also includes continuous practice teaching at schools in and around Kampala. Thus the tutors are able to give close supervision of the student's first practical teaching experience. The second year schedule includes a long practice teaching period in a senior secondary school.

¹⁹ This seminar is intended to deepen the student's knowledge and interest and to further his intellectual development.

²⁰ Makerere University College. *Calendar 1961-62*. Nairobi: English Press, 1961. p. 127-28.

Membership is now open to all teachers in Uganda, irrespective of academic attainments, religion, or race. During its early existence, the association was concerned primarily with salary improvement for teachers of all grades and conditions of service. In recent years, however, its activities have become more diversified. Many of its recent conferences have devoted a great deal of time to lectures and discussions on such matters as teaching methods and curriculum. The present association's constitution, reflecting many of the objectives of the early association, aims to—

Promote and maintain the interest of the teaching profession and to safeguard the interest and welfare of its members. Render the teaching profession attractive to the rising generation of Uganda.

Find ways and means of improving the standard of teaching. To enable members to receive fair treatment in whatever part of Uganda they may be and at whatever institution they may be working.

Build, erect, construct, and maintain a suitable building wherein the Association's functions, social, educational, or pertaining to sports, can be held, organized, or inaugurated. Hold debates, lectures, talks, and elocution competitions with a view to promote and advance the educational or, cultural and literary faculties of the members.

Make representation to the Government in order to invoke its aid for safeguarding and promoting the moral, social, and economic life of its members.¹²

The Association has three classes of members and a corresponding schedule of membership fees:

<i>Membership Class</i>	<i>Fees</i>
Patron (for life).....	150 shillings.
Life.....	75 shillings.
Ordinary.....	5 shillings per year in advance.

A managing committee (consisting of the association's president, vice-president, joint secretaries, joint treasurers; and 13 other members) has the responsibility of—

Discussing finance and making recommendations to a general meeting of the Association

Arranging lectures, debates, and other functions of whatever kind

Meeting and discussing any other business concerning the members' welfare and taking suitable action

Holding meetings as necessary for proper execution of the committee's duties.

¹² Uganda Teachers Association. *The Constitution of the Uganda Teachers Association*. Mimeograph statement, no date.

Technical and Agricultural Education



Technical Education

During the past decade Uganda has had a rapid expansion in technical education. This expansion has been beset by many problems of "poorly qualified pupils, ill-defined relationships to the country's manpower requirements, and a proliferation of schools with uneconomically small enrollments."¹

The 1959 White Paper made certain comments on technical education, among them the following:

Technical training for full professional training or degrees will remain the responsibility of the Royal Technical College in Nairobi.

The African Development Fund, which had supplied the money for expanding technical education, was exhausted.

Technical trade work had been mostly transferred to technical schools from the Kampala Technical Institute, which offered advanced technical and vocational training.

Although the division among the various levels of technical education is not always clear, in general this education ascends in difficulty from rural trade schools through technical schools to the Kampala Technical Institute.

Rural Trade Schools

These schools offer a 3-year postprimary training in village crafts and small-holdings cultivation. In the former area, with emphasis on practicality, students build furniture and simple houses. In the latter area the emphasis is on how to cultivate small holdings and how to raise poultry and cattle efficiently.

It has been difficult to devise a syllabus for these rural trade schools that would be realistic in terms of the limited finances of rural areas.

¹ International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. *The Economic Development of Uganda*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1962. p. 364.

Also it has been difficult to ensure that students completing the course could start up in business, either individually or in groups, in their home areas. The rural trade schools have tried to encourage trained craftsmen to stay there rather than migrate to urban areas, where they must compete with technical school graduates.

Technical Schools

After their 8-year basic schooling, students may enter technical schools, of which Uganda has 12, either grant-aided or Government-run. These schools offer both a 2-year and a 4-year course. At the end of the former, students continue training under a 2-year apprenticeship;² and at the end of the latter, they enter employment directly. Both courses aim to turn out craftsmen.

In December 1960 the Uganda Ministry of Education reported at a Princeton, New Jersey Conference on Education in East Africa³ that Uganda's basic technical school problems were the following:

Technical education was overcapitalized in the 1950's, when pupils were few and generally of poor caliber.

In certain trades (e.g., building) there was overproduction, with underproduction in others (e.g., fitter/machinists).

Courses should be reduced in number and concentrated.

Schools should offer 2-year and 3-year courses, the latter for an interim period until industry can accept full responsibility for craft training.

The apprenticeship system needs overhauling.

Special measures are needed to combat the present serious shortage of better-than-average craftsmen and supervisors.⁴

² The great pressure for providing craftsmen has led to increased interest in expanding the apprenticeship system, evening classes for workers, and day released-time courses (p. 19-20 of the Paper Prepared for the Princeton Conference). The proponents of apprenticeship point to other countries whose conditions are similar to those in Uganda and where such a system has proved successful. These proponents say that on-the-job training and employer-run "vestibule" schools are helpful techniques for increasing the number of trained personnel. But so far Uganda has used the apprenticeship system only to a small degree, having in 1959 only 267 apprentices under training by 20 employers. Ordinarily, full training by employers requires 5 years. Since it is doubtful that industry could provide the full number of trained employees needed during the next few years, "the trade and technical schools," according to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, "will have an important supplementary role to play." (*The Economic Development of Uganda*, op. cit., p. 366.)

³ Attended by educators from East Africa, Britain, and the United States.

⁴ Uganda Protectorate. *Education in Uganda: An Assessment of Achievements and Needs* (Paper Prepared by the Ministry of Education, Uganda, for the Princeton Conference, U.S.A. Conference on Education in East Africa: December 1960), 1960, p. 19-20. (Hereafter, this document is cited as *Paper Prepared for the Princeton Conference*.)

Kampala Technical Institute

At the apex of Uganda's technical education system, Kampala Technical Institute⁵ prepares middle-grade technicians and supervisory and commercial personnel.⁶

It offers courses in such areas as building trades, electrical installation, foundry and pattern making, mechanics, motor vehicle mechanics, and commercial subjects. According to the Government's 1958-59 Sessional Paper No. 2, the Institute's task is to provide courses—

leading to the intermediate and final certificate of the City and Guilds⁷ at postschool certificate level for technicians, leading to theoretical and practical examinations

at postschool certificate level in secretarial and accountancy subjects

leading to the G.C.E. "O" level, with technical or commercial options
part-time evening courses for Kampala and district.⁸

The Agency for International Development of the United States has assisted in financing and staffing the technical teacher-training course for the engineering trades.

A persistent problem at Kampala Technical Institute has been the recruiting of properly prepared students and trained teachers. The few students in secondary education and the fact that technical education is not popular among those who could qualify have contributed to the recruitment problem. In addition, there is the problem of school fees and pocket money. A student who holds a School Certificate can find employment. To enter Kampala Technical Institute means not only paying fees but losing income during the training period. In considering this problem, the Mission sent to Uganda by the International Bank commented, "We believe this deterrent can be offset by the combined offer of assured employment after the successful completion of the Kampala Technical Institute course, together with the offer of bursaries to cover fees and pocket money during it."⁹

⁵ The Institute is composed of the School of Building and Civil Engineering; School of Mechanical, Electrical, and Automobile Engineering; School of Commerce and Art; Science and Mathematics Section; Women's Studies Section; Technical Training Section.

⁶ In 1960 the Institute had 400 boarding students.

⁷ These certificates are awarded to technicians who pass City and Guild Examinations prepared in England to test their particular skills. The Cambridge Certificate Examinations test students' academic abilities.

⁸ Uganda Protectorate. *Education in Uganda* (Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1958-59). Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1959. p. 12.

⁹ International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. *op. cit.*, p. 268.

Government Schools for Civil Service Training

The Government, Uganda's largest employer, has established training schools to fill the middle ranks of its Civil Service. Admission to the schools ordinarily requires a Cambridge School Certificate.¹⁰ Of 2 years or more in length, courses in these schools are shown below:

<i>Course</i>	<i>Duration (years)</i>	<i>Students admitted in 1980</i>
Agricultural certificate.....	3	(¹)
Agricultural diploma.....	5	120
Dispensers.....	3	10 ^a
Estate management.....	2	1
Forestry.....	3	20
Forestry (Advanced).....	2	4
Geological survey.....	2	6
Health inspectors.....	3	60
Laboratory assistants.....	3	10
Radiography assistants.....	3	10

¹ Source did not provide any figure.

The number enrolled in the various courses is conditioned by the number of employees the Civil Service can afford. Little would be gained by expanding the enrollment, since there is little hope for employment by private business, except for graduates of the agricultural courses.

It would be difficult to increase the enrollment should the Civil Service expand, as long as so few students hold the Cambridge School Certificate required for admission.

Agricultural Education

The importance of agriculture in Uganda's economy has led to extensive interest in agricultural education. Both the de Bunsen Committee and the White Paper stressed the importance of agriculture in the primary school. In addition to the work carried out by the Ministry of Education, broad schemes for agricultural training have been carried out by the Department of Agriculture. It is somewhat difficult, however, to identify what the Department does specifically in research, operational procedure, or education, as these activities are generally thought of. An obvious overlapping blurs their

¹⁰ At present, admission without a Cambridge School Certificate is not uncommon owing to the scarcity of persons holding this certificate.

distinction. Exhibitions, soil conservation, distribution of cocoa seedlings, with planting instructions, to selected African farmers—all these activities have educational overtones. In some cases, such as that of an exhibition of oxen as draught animals, the educational objective is apparent. The Department of Agriculture's work is, however, necessarily a part of what might be considered adult education and community development.

A committee under the direction of the Permanent Secretary to the Ministry of Natural Resources in 1956 envisioned Uganda's agricultural education as developing on five levels:

1. Makerere College, with a degree course in agriculture and veterinary science
2. Two Main Farm Institutes, eventually awarding diplomas in agriculture and veterinary science
3. District Farm Institutes giving shorter training courses than the Main Institutes (lasting probably not more than 1 year), chiefly for practicing farmers
4. Short training courses at these District Farm Institutes and also at other centers convenient for chiefs, farmers, school teachers, prison wardens, etc.
5. Specialist training in agriculture and veterinary science at the Department of Agriculture."

Although farmers could profitably utilize all of the training indicated at these five levels, "their choice will be determined by their educational qualifications, financial resources, and the type of training required."¹²

The Main Farm Institutes

The 1956 committee mentioned above established policy directives for two main farm institutes—one at Bukalasa and one at Arapai. It stressed that these directives should be considered broad guidelines with a wide degree of discretion left for those responsible for operating the institutes. Specific recommendations of the committee concerning selection of students, major aims, and curriculum follow below.

Selection of Students

At first, the admission standard for the main farm institutes would be the Junior Secondary Leaving Certificate; but later, when the

¹² Uganda Protectorate. *Main Farm Institutes at Bukalasa and Arapai*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1956.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

2-year course was extended to 3 years, the standard would be raised to the Cambridge School Certificate. Such a 3-year course would lead to a diploma comparable to the National Diploma of Agriculture in the United Kingdom. Finally, a 5-year Post-School Certificate Diploma course could be added as students with higher qualifications entered the institutes.

Prospective candidates for the main farm institutes should be screened by a local selection board in each district of the country. Such a board would include senior members of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Veterinary Services and Animal Industry, district education officers, and a representative of the African local government. Then all local boards would submit the names and qualifications of their candidates to a central panel or board. This central board would include the directors of the two Government departments involved (or their representatives) and the principals of the two main institutes. In making the final selection, the central board would have the responsibility to evaluate the needs of each district and at the same time maintain equal admission standards for all candidates.

Major Aims

The Committee voiced five major aims for the main farm institutes. These institutes should:

1. Enable farmers to obtain a knowledge of sound farm practice and management.
2. Produce, for the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Veterinary Services and Animal Industry, field staff who have not only a good agricultural background but also the ability to give advice to farmers.
3. Provide the teaching staff for the District Farm Institutes.
4. Provide a common basic training for the staff of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Veterinary Services and Animal Industry so that these departments may achieve maximum cooperation.
5. Prepare teachers of agriculture to such a level that they can teach up to the Cambridge School Certificate standard and at the teacher-training colleges.

Curriculum

Length.—The main farm institutes should establish a 2-year course common to all students and not permitting specialization. Students planning to enter Government service would then be assigned to either the Department of Agriculture or the Department of Veterinary Services and Animal Industry.

Overall recommendations.—The committee urged that the following points be considered :

The language of instruction should be English.

Applied English, arithmetic, and general knowledge should be taught throughout.

Students should be given some training in instructional methods and should have teaching practice throughout training.

Practice in labor management should be included.

Methods of analyzing farm costs should be made familiar to the student.

Farming economics should include marketing.

The practical implications of including fish farming should be considered, and this subject should be included as soon as practicable.

Instruction in silviculture and the provision of farm woodlots should be included in the syllabus.¹³

Practicality.—The main institutes' courses should have a practical basis, but at the same time enough theory to enable students to understand the fundamental reasons for agricultural practices. Since a large number of the students after graduation would be spending a great deal of their time instructing people, the curriculum should make students familiar with teaching techniques. For this reason, lectures should be avoided and students encouraged to take an active part in classroom procedures.

Broadly speaking, the syllabus should be worked out in four phases :

1. Structure of soils, plants, and animals (1 term)
2. Development and function of soils, plants, and animals (1 term)
3. Soil science, crop husbandry, animal husbandry, farm management, and farm economics (3 terms)
4. Diseases or pests of plants and animals, deficiencies in soils and the cure, control, and prevention of these deficiencies (1 term).

Practical work would include demonstration in the laboratory or on the farm, actual work on the farm, and field training. For the latter, parties of about 20 students each should visit particular geographical areas for specific instruction. The visits would be for approximately a week under an Institute staff member's supervision and where possible would include some specific task, such as taking a livestock census, in which the students themselves could participate.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

Developments Since 1956

The 1956 committee recommendations have served as guidelines in developing the two main institutes at Bukalasa and Arapai, which were established in that order. The Department of Agriculture's 1959 report indicated that both these institutions had been successful.¹⁴ Of the first group of students at the former institution—59 in number—25 were selected after completing their courses to join the Department of Agriculture. Another 23 were chosen for the third-year course in specialist agricultural training and 11 for the third-year course as assistants at the Veterinary Training Institute.

Both Bukalasa and Arapai were planning (at the time of the Princeton Conference, December 1960) to introduce a 5-year Post-School Certificate Diploma course that would lead to an East African Diploma of Agriculture.

Another change being planned at that time concerned admission requirements:

... entry to the Three-Year Course will be raised to School Certificate level. These Farm Colleges, as they are becoming, have facilities more than sufficient for the number of students likely to be available unless or until the number of School-Certificate holders is greatly increased.¹⁵

District Farm Institutes

At the close of 1959 the first District Farm Institute was ready in the Northern Province and three more were nearing completion in Uganda's other three provinces.

Farm Schools

Boys who plan to make farming a career may take a 2-year post-primary course at Farm Schools. Eight of these schools were operating in 1959, and of the eight, six were located in the Northern Province.

¹⁴ Uganda Protectorate Annual Report of the Department of Agriculture, 1959. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1960. p. 15.

¹⁵ Paper Prepared for the Princeton Conference, op. cit., p. 16.

Community Development



AT THE REQUEST OF the Governor, the Uganda Government in 1952 established a Department of Community Development. The African Development Fund then made available a total of £500,000 for the years 1953-57 (£100,000 per year), and the new department began to develop a comprehensive program.

The program's primary objective was described as being one "to secure the support and active participation of the people in programs for their social and economic betterment."¹ Such an objective meant that the new Department of Community Development would work closely with other departments and with the provincial administrations.

Under the program, then, classes were opened for women to teach them baby care, sewing, simple first aid, and other useful domestic skills. Although many examples ensued of outstanding success with the classes, the difficulty of finding adequate staff proved to be a persistent problem and hence curtailed the program.

Rural training centers were established in six communities to provide training for local chiefs and other leaders and for the general population in such areas as agriculture and health.

Campaigns were conducted to encourage tree planting, demonstrate the advantages of disinfecting live stock, and show how to use new agricultural equipment.

Village projects resulted in the building of bridges, community halls, dams, and schools, and the creating of better and larger water supplies.

Among the literacy classes, those in Buganda Province showed the greatest success. There during 1956-57, a total of 4,000 adults passed the final literacy test. Throughout the country as a whole a radio English-teaching program was started on an experimental basis. Press, radio, and two thousand posters all combined to conduct a publicity campaign to prepare the people for the opportunity that awaited them to learn English. As a result the five thousand copies of mimeo-

¹ Uganda Protectorate. *A Review of Community Development Policy* (Seasonal Paper No. 2 of 1957-58). Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1957. p. 1.

graphed lesson booklets prepared for sale at seven cents a copy sold out within a month. Teachers already proficient in English volunteered to serve as leaders of groups listening to the broadcasts. The success of the experimental program led to the production of another one on a more advanced level.

At Nsamizi a training center was established to conduct courses for prospective community-development workers, including employees of cooperating Government departments and voluntary agency staff members who would participate in the projects. The Nsamizi Center also gave specific courses in adult education for Government employees and community leaders. One of these courses, for non-English-speaking native chiefs, was on organization of local government.

Evaluation of the First Five Years

Although certain solid accomplishments of the Community Development Program's first five years were most amply evident, a concern was felt over the tendency of some project leaders to place too much emphasis on building up many projects rather than on encouraging the self-help and cooperation that should result from the projects among their intended beneficiaries. In some cases, it appeared, a community-development leader had far more enthusiasm for a project than did the people it was intended to serve.

A Government White Paper² was published, reviewing the program's 5-year activities, laying down general policies for its future activities, and making certain specific recommendations.

The new policies stressed that community development should do the following:

Spread among the people the vision of a new and better kind of life and stimulate them to take an active part in schemes for their own betterment over the widest possible field so that they are enabled to derive the fullest advantage from improving material conditions.

Encourage the people to take a pride in their country and its achievements so that they will want to make the maximum contribution to its economic development.

(In this, the attitude to community development in Uganda may be expected to differ very little from that in other countries of the Commonwealth which have recently become self-governing or which are approaching self-government. In these countries a great impetus has been given to community development and considerable enthusiasm engendered at all levels of society, so that in the shortest possible time the people may

² Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1957-58, identified in footnote 1.

by an expression of their own will and by their own efforts achieve so great an improvement in their way of life that they cease to rank among the underdeveloped countries of the world.)

Help the rural population to meet the problem of adjustment in changing social conditions.

(During the last half-century, life in the rural areas has become increasingly dull as opportunities for following traditional pastimes and pursuits have diminished. Community development should enable the people to discover new ways of spending their leisure time through a newly awakened interest in music, drama, and sport, so that they are enabled to live a richer, fuller, and more enjoyable life.)

Stimulate the people to take an intelligent and active interest in their own local affairs and in the institutions through which they are governed.

(The awakening of a live and informed public opinion in the rural areas will act as one of the surest safeguards of the people against exploitation by the unscrupulous and will offer the surest promise for the development of the democratic way of life.)²

The Government stressed the fact that if community development is successful, it ought to lead to a "divine discontent." Specifically, such a discontent would manifest itself in a more balanced way of life in rural areas and a greater local interest in solving local problems. The Community Development Program should assist local groups in solving their problems.

The White Paper's main recommendations were the following:

Rural training projects and mass education should be emphasized.

(To stimulate this aspect of the program, a rural training center will be established in every district.)

Greater attention should be paid to community development among women.

(The home plays an important part in improving the way of life.)

Some provision will have to be made for financing local community schemes.

(After 1967, the £500,000 capital grant from the African Development Fund will have been virtually exhausted.)

The people themselves must play a greater part in initiating and carrying out local schemes.

Personnel Training for the Program

The Community Development Program has conducted and is still conducting a vigorous personnel-training program. Descriptions of the main training center and local rural training centers follow.

² *Ibid.* p. 1-2.

The Nsamizi Training Center

The country's leading training center, located at Nsamizi, offers residential courses in a wide variety of subjects. Most of the trainees there fall into one of three categories: Central Government staff, local authority staff, and voluntary workers.

Central Government staff.—Professional training at the Assistant Officer level or below is given for periods lasting up to a year. A 15-week course gives a broad background. (See appendix for the syllabus of the 1960 Assistant Administrative Officers' course.) Shorter courses give background on citizenship to such civil servants as forest learners, police corporals, community development assistants, medical assistants, and assistant health visitors.

Local authority staff.—Courses at Nsamizi for local-level staff are a public administration course for senior officials and a law course for local authority magistrates.

Voluntary workers.—Leaders of rural clubs for women and adult literacy workers, among various types of voluntary workers, are trained at Nsamizi. The club-leader training covers primarily home economics, child welfare, hygiene, and welfare schemes—all courses conducted in the vernacular. The trainees ordinarily represent women's associations such as the Mothers' Union, the Catholic Action organization, and the Salvation Army.

The Nsamizi Training Center cooperates also with the Red Cross in affording training for workers in its special areas of competence. A similar cooperative program is carried out with the Y.W.C.A.

Rural Training Centers

The Government's Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1957-58 recommended that a series of local rural training centers—at least one in each district—be established and linked with the center at Nsamizi. This leading center would offer advice and guidance to emerging local centers.

According to the Government's plans, the local rural centers provided practical demonstrations of rural life improvement in better housing, sanitation, water supply, agricultural methods, and animal husbandry; as well as practical courses in all these aspects.

In addition, the rural centers served as forums for discussion of local affairs and gave lectures on citizenship.

In 1960, six rural centers were already in existence, five more were opened, and two were nearing completion.⁴

The following tabulation of the West Nile District's training-center program in effect from July 1955 to June 1960 is typical of the programs offered by training centers in other districts:

<i>Course title</i>	<i>Number of courses</i>	<i>Total length in weeks</i>
A.L.G. police.....	1	4
Community Development assistants (men's training).....	1	2
Community Development assistants (women's Red Cross).....	1	2
Cooperative leader.....	1	2
Cooperative treasurer.....	1	2
District councillor.....	3	5
Ox ploughing.....	1	2
St. John's ambulance first aid.....	2	3
Technical instruction.....	1	2
Trader.....	1	2
Women's club leader.....	4	12

Adult Education

To expand adult educational activities, the Government in its Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1957-58 recommended that the Department of Community Development train more voluntary leaders than previously, since the cost of professional leaders throughout the country would be prohibitive. The Program might also use to a greater extent than formerly selected part-time workers, paying them a nominal salary.

Adult Literacy

The Government recommended more intensive literacy campaigns than formerly and also a program of continuation literacy. In furtherance of these ends, more literature would have to be made avail-

⁴ Uganda Protectorate. *Annual Report of the Ministry of Social Development*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, 1960.

able, and to achieve a greater supply of reading materials local literature committees have been established in many districts. Using the facilities of the East African Literature Bureau, these committees have provided their localities with literature in the vernacular, thus making a valuable contribution to the literacy campaign. As the Sessional Paper stated, "The need . . . is for increased activity in the production of literature for mass education, which may be regarded as the spearhead of community development."⁵

The Teso pilot program.—The Ministry of Social Development has been carrying on an adult literacy program for a number of years in most districts. From December 1959 to April 1960 it sponsored a full-scale literacy campaign in the Teso district as a pilot program.

First, a literacy primer was produced, and this primer, in addition to two simple follow-up readers, exercise books, pencil, and eraser constituted a "literacy kit," which, selling for 31 cents, was vended throughout the district from a mobile bookshop.

After recruiting volunteer teachers, Community Development staff members trained them in methods of teaching illiterate adults. A total of 1,181 adults pursued the literacy course in 129 classes. Eventually, the 129 dropped to 80, primarily because of a decline in the number of volunteer teachers. At the end of the course, 806 persons took a literacy test and of this number 542 won certificates of passing.

On the basis of the Teso experience, similar literacy programs are being developed for other districts.

Vernacular Literature and Libraries

In order to produce more literature in the vernacular, six literature committees are functioning in six major language groups. The East African Literature Bureau, the British Council, the Kampala municipality, and various voluntary organizations maintain library services. Small district libraries operate at various district headquarters such as Arua, Fort Portal, Gulu, and Soroti.

East African Literature Bureau

Established in 1948 as a result of investigations in 1945-47 by the East African Governors Conference, the East African Literature

⁵ Sessional Paper No. 2. op. cit., p. 14.

Bureau is administered by the East Africa High Commission. Broadly stated, the Bureau's purpose is to meet and encourage the demands of Africans for books and encourage African authorship.

More specifically, the Bureau's functions are spelled out in the following statement from its 1959-60 annual report:

It studies problems of production and distribution of general literature, school textbooks, books for adults on agriculture and technical subjects, and magazines.

Gives assistance to African and European authors, acting in the several capacities of critic, literary agent, editor, financier and publisher.

Provides static libraries, book-box libraries, and a postal library service.*

Locations.—Headquartered in Kenya at Nairobi, the Bureau has branches in Tanganyika (with Zanzibar under its jurisdiction) and Uganda.

Libraries.—In Uganda the Bureau has been cooperating with the Ministry of Social Development to set up and administer several libraries outside Kampala—at Gulu, Hoima, Jinja, and Soroti. It has also helped set up libraries at Bukalasa Farm Institute, Gayaza High School, Nsamizi Training Center, and St. Mary's College in Kisubi.

Book-box library service.—Over 24,000 books have been issued under the book-box library service, which operates to supply a box filled with shelves containing 150 to 200 books. The Uganda branch of the Bureau charges 100 shillings per year for the service but pays the freight charges. After 12 months a book box is automatically replaced by another one, but before the expiration of this period it may be replaced by mutual consent. In June 1960, 71 book boxes were operating.

Postal library service.—An entrance fee of 10 shillings, together with a returnable deposit of 10 shillings, entitles a subscriber to receive one or two books at a time, postage free, with a 2-month limit. The subscriber makes his choices from a catalog with which he is provided when he joins the service.

The following is a compilation by subject class of the books which the Uganda Library Service issued from July 1959 to June 1960:[†]

* East Africa High Commission. *East African Literature Bureau, Annual Report, 1959-60*. Nairobi: The Commission, 1960. p. v.

† *Ibid.*, p. 9.

Subject class	Number of books issued	Percent ¹ of total books issued
Total	7, 491	100
Fiction, stories, and novels	1, 862	25
Fine arts, painting, amusements, photography, etc	126	2
General works, encyclopedias, general knowledge books, etc	88	1
History, geography, and biography	1, 238	16
Language study (almost entirely English)	795	11
Literature: poetry, plays, belles-lettres, etc	347	5
Philosophy, psychology, morals, ethics, etc	370	5
Pure science, mathematics, physics, chemistry, etc	681	9
Religion (all aspects, but mostly Christian)	161	2
Social studies, political science, economics, edu- cation, law and government, etc	833	11
Useful arts, medicine, engineering, agriculture, trades, manufactures, etc	974	13
Vernacular (i.e., books in East African lan- guages)	16	0. 2

¹ All percents have been rounded except the last one

Cinema Services

The Community Development Program circulates motion pictures and film strips to schools, colleges, rural training centers, and other outlets. During 1959-60 the total number circulated was 1,422. Among the motion pictures which the Program acquired during the same period were *Glasgow Green to Bendico* (carpet making), *Derek Ibbotson* (athletic training), and *This Model Age* (model making). Among the film-strip acquisitions were *The Opening of the Lukiko* (a record of the quarterly session opening of the Buganda parliament), *The Proudest Badge* (a description of the work of the Red Cross), *Throughout Uganda*, and *Uganda Welcomes the Queen Mother*.

A particularly interesting aspect of the Program's cinema services concerns the use of cinema vans traveling throughout five areas of the country and operating out of Fort Portal, Gulu, Lira, Mbale, and Mbarara. In preparation for the 1961 elections, these vans carried silent motion pictures especially made to instruct the population in registration and voting procedures and tape-recorded commentary that would be linked up to a community's public address system.

Adult Education Advisory Council

Under the chairmanship of the Commissioner for Community Development, the Adult Education Advisory Council coordinates the adult education activities taking place throughout the country. These activities, as already seen, encompass those stimulated or conducted by the Department of Community Development and various voluntary agencies. In addition, they include courses offered by Makerere College and the Ministry of Education.

Besides the Commissioner for Community Development, the Council's members are the Chief Education Officer, the Senior Tutor of Makerere's Extra-Mural Studies Department, the British Council Representative in Uganda, the Uganda Branch Officer of the East African Literature Bureau, and a representative each from the Roman Catholic Missions, the Protestant Missions, the Uganda Muslim Community, and the Uganda Legislative Council.

Appendix

**Senior Secondary Entrance and Junior Secondary
Leaving Examination (J.S. II) English: 1959**

Part 1. Time: 2 hours

Answer all the questions. You may answer them in any order. Draw a margin of about one inch on both the left and right hand sides of every sheet of paper you use.

1. Write down ONE word to fill each blank in the following passage.
Number each word as in the passage, like this:—

(1) the
(2)..... (and so on).

Do not copy out the passage.

A rat ran over (1).....body of a sleeping lion. Waking up, the lion caught hold (2).....it, and was about to eat it, when the rat begged (3).....mercy. It promised to repay the lion (4).....its life were spared. The lion laughed and (5).....it go. Not long (6).....the lion (7).....captured by hunters and tied (8).....a rope to (9).....tree. (10).....rat heard his groans, ran to the spot (11).....freed him (12).....biting through the rope.

"You laughed (13).....me the (14).....day," it said, "because you did not expect (15).....to repay your kindness. Now you see that even a rat (16).....be grateful."

2. Copy out the following sentences, putting in the right form of the verb given in brackets, and *underlining* it. You will lose marks if you do not underline the verb.

Example: She (to pay) the money and went home.

Answer: She *paid* the money and went home.

- (a) I think your friend (to return) by now. He must be in his house.
(b) The pupils (to teach) geography by Mr. Brown last year.
(c) When the sun shines brightly, the stars (not to appear).
(d) Your English has improved since I (to start) to teach you last term.
(e) Uncle Peter (to make) money ever since leaving school, and he is getting richer every day.
(f) What makes trees (to grow)?
(g) My friend (to go) to Australia last year, if he had had the time.
(h) The headmaster (to write) a letter and had only finished the first paragraph, when he was interrupted by a knock at the door.
(i) If the robbers (to attack) us, we shall lose all our money.
(j) At present the food (to cook) by the women and they will not have finished until nine o'clock.

3. After each of the following sentences some words or expressions are given in brackets. Write down the ONE word or the ONE expression that completes the meaning best.

Example: (a) At dawn the boys started out on their journey. They set off at the of the day. (middle; beginning; end).

Answer: (a) beginning.

- (a) John did not often come to school. He came (frequently; seldom; generally; early).
- (b) The storm broke unexpectedly. It broke (gradually; usually; suddenly; late).
- (c) The children were afraid of thunder. They were of it. (feared; terrible; alarmed; frightened).
- (d) All the men of the village were there the women. (but no; except; but none of; as well).
- (e) I do not think there is living in that house now. (someone; no one; anyone; somebody; ever one).
- (f) I cannot lift that bag, for it is very heavy. It is for me to lift. (heavy enough; so heavy; too heavy; very heavy; weighing very much).
- (g) John is studying hard he may win a scholarship. (such that; in order; so that; while).
- (h) Matthew plays football I do. (whereas; better than; and so too; nevertheless).
- (i) It is certain that there will be a good coffee harvest this year. (no at all; somewhat; not enough; not at all).
- (j) The rainy season has come early this year,? (is it; so it has; hasn't it; isn't it).

Part 2. Time: 1 hour

Draw a margin of about one inch on both the left and right-hand sides of your paper.

Write a composition of about 200 words on ONE of the following subjects:

1. Write about a day you once spent at the home of a relative.
2. Write about how you once became ill, say what happened to you and how you got better again.
3. Write about the work of any ONE of the following: a shopkeeper; a housewife; a farmer; a fisherman.
4. Write about what you noticed at the market last time you were there.

Training colleges for primary-grade, primary-grade domestic science, and junior secondary school teachers: 1961

I. For Training Primary-Grade Teachers (4-Year Course)

COEDUCATION				
Muslim	Protestant	Roman Catholic	Muslim	Roman Catholic
Kibuli	Arua Boroboro Iganga Kabwangaasi	None	Mbarara Ngara Nyakasura	
None	Ndeffe	Bukedea Gulu Kinyamasika		Nkokonjeru N'kosi Nyondo
None	Lotome Namutamba	Busubisi Butiti Ibanda Kangole		Ladonga Ngetta Ngara Nyondo 1

FEMALE

MALE

1 A Roman Catholic training college for male primary grade teachers at Gaba is a 2-year institution.

Training colleges for primary-grade, primary-grade domestic science, and junior secondary school teachers: 1961—Continued

II. For Training Primary-Grade Domestic Science Teachers (3-Year Course)

FEMALE			
<i>Government</i>	<i>Protestant</i>	<i>Roman Catholic</i>	
Kyambogo Nsube	None	None	

III. For Training Junior Secondary School Teachers (3-Year Course)

COEDUCATIONAL			
<i>Government</i>	<i>Protestant</i>	<i>Roman Catholic</i>	
Kyambogo Shimoni	None	None	
FEMALE			
None	Buluba	Namungu	

Syllabus for the 15-week Assistant Administrative Officers' Course at the Nsamizi Training Center: 1960¹

[Figures indicate number of class periods a week]

Introductory and General

Opening visit by Administrative Secretary	—
Introduction to Nsamizi Training Center and Introduction to Course	—
The Geography of Uganda	—
The People of Uganda	—
The History of Uganda (2)	—
Religion in Uganda (2)	—
The Changing Social Structure of Uganda	—
The Changing Culture of Uganda	—
The Changing Economy of Uganda	—
The Position of Women	12
	—
Current Affairs: Attendance at weekly lectures	15

Total: 27

The Economy of Uganda

<i>The General Economy:</i>	—
Characteristics of Uganda's Economy	—
Aspects of Uganda's Economic History (2)	—
Uganda's Money and Banking System (2)	—
Wages	—
Industrialisation	—
Uganda's Economic Relations with its neighbors	—
Recent Agricultural Developments in Kenya and their Relevance to Uganda	—
Public Finance	—
Prospects for the Economy of Uganda	11

Specific Aspects:

Agricultural Progress and Economic Development	—
Land Tenure and Economic Development (Discussion)	—
Private Enterprise	—
The Entry of Africans into Commerce	—
The Cooperative Movement	—
The U.D.C. and Industrial Development	—
The Uganda Electricity Board	—
Cotton Manufacture (Filmstrip)	8

¹ Mimeographed statement. Nsamizi: Department of Community Development, no date. 6 p.

Visits:

Owen Falls Power Station	
Nyansa Textiles	
Agricultural Stations, Kawanda and Namalere	
Veterinary Research Station and Farm	
Marketing Boards and Coffee Factory (equivalent periods)	11

Total:	30
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The Central Government*General and Constitutional:*

The Elements of Government	
Forms of Government	
Popular Representation	
The Development of Government in Britain	
The British Constitution (2)	
Unitary and Federal Government	
Modern Political Theories	
The Theory and Practice of Communism	
Nationalism	
International Relations	
International Organisations	
Political Problems of Underdeveloped Countries	
Political Parties—U.K.	14

The Central Government of Uganda:

The Legislature	
Executive Council and the Duties of a Minister	
Ministries and Departments: the Duties of a Permanent Secretary	
The East Africa High Commission	
Political Parties in Uganda	
Elections	
Political Progress and Constitutional Development	
The Civil Service	
The Public Service Commission	
Staff Consultation	10

Visits:

Legislative Council (equivalent periods)	2
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Total:	26
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Local Government and African Administrations and Urban Authorities in Uganda*General:*

Central and Local Government Relationships: Division of Services, Financial, General Control	
The Local Government System in U.K.	
Conventions of Local Government in U.K.	8

Uganda:

The Development of African Administrations in Uganda

The Position of Buganda

The African Administrations:

The Buganda Agreements and Constitution

The African Local Government Ordinance

The District Councils Ordinance (6) (detailed study of)

The Position of Chiefs

The Lower Councils

District or Province

Urban Authorities

Kampala Municipal Council:

General Visits (3)

Council Meetings (1)

Committee Meetings (1)

20

Total: 23

Law

Legal Principles and Background:

General Legal Principles (6)

The Protectorate Court System (2)

The Law of Evidence (10 including Test)

Criminal Law and the Penal Code (4)

Criminal Procedure and the Criminal Procedure Code (9)

31

The Native Courts:

Legislation concerning Native Courts } (14)

Native Court Procedure, Records, etc. }

Ordinances enforceable by Native Courts (7)

21

Miscellaneous:

Case files and Records (2)

Using the Laws (5)

Laws of Particular Importance in the Work of the
Provincial Administration (8)

15

Visits:

E.A. Court of Appeal

Magistrate's Court (equivalent periods)

The Law Examination for Administrative Officers

4

1

Total: 72

The Approach to Administrative Problems

The Organisation and Planning of Work (2)

Practical Discussions (2)

Ministry of Natural Resources. Practical Exercise (4) (including preparation periods)	Total: 8
Office Organization and Official Correspondence	
Office Organization and Layout	
Staff Handling	
The Circulation of Correspondence	
Memorandum, Report and Minute Writing	4
<i>Practicals:</i>	
Drafting	
Replies to Circulars, etc. } (3)	
Visit (1)	4
	Total: 8
Councils and Committees	
Chairmanship (2)	
Council Procedure (2)	
Records and Correspondence	
Standing Orders	
Committee Records and Procedure	
Officials and Councillors	8
<i>Practical Exercises:</i>	
Mock Council and Committees	11
	Total: 19
Finance	
<i>Central Government and General:</i>	
The Central Government Financial System (2)	
Central Government Revenue	
Central Government Expenditure	
Practical Accounting and Bookkeeping (2)	
Stores and Storekeeping (2)	
Audit.....	9
<i>African Administrations:</i>	
Central/Local Government Financial Relationships	
Finances of the Transferred Services	
Estimates (2)	
Taxes (2)	
Financial Instructions	
County and Sub-County Finances.....	8
<i>Practicals:</i>	
Drafting, Estimates, etc.....	8
	Total: 21

Relations With the Public

The Uganda Information Service
 Government and the Press
 Public Relations in Industry
 The Man Behind the Counter—Discussion
 Master or Servant?—Discussion

Visits:

Information Department
 United States Information Center
 United Kingdom Information Office (3)

Total: 8

Law and Order

The Maintenance of Law and Order in Uganda
 The Provincial Administration and Law and Order
 The Chief and the Maintenance of Law and Order
 The Protectorate Police
 The Treatment of Offenders
 The Protectorate Prisons
 African Administration Prisons
 The Probation Service..... 8

Visits:

Police Institutions in Kampala (3)
 Kitalya Prisons (3)

(equivalent periods) 6

Total: 14

The Work of Government Departments

Labor
 Cooperative Development
 Trade Development
 Lands and Surveys (2 including visit)
 Agriculture
 Veterinary
 Tsetse Control
 Game and National Parks (Visit)
 Forestry
 Water Development
 Geological Survey
 Education:
 Policy and Functions of the Department
 Work of the D.E.O. and L.E.A.
 The place of the Voluntary Agencies
 Medical: Health and the Medical Services (8)
 African Housing
 Town Planning

Community Development:

General
 C.D. and the Administration
 Public Works
 Social Welfare

Total: 24**The Provincial Administration**

The D.C. and the District Council
 The A.D.C. and the Chief
 The Administration and other Departments, and the District Team
 Licenses and Licensing, and Urban Affairs
 The Supervision of Labor
 Maps, Map-Reading, and Sketch Mapping Practical (4)
 Government and the Peasant Community

Total: 10**Practicals and Exercises, etc.²**

Weekly Essay Period 15
 Miscellaneous Discussions/Seminars, etc. 10
 Occupation Prestige Survey 10
 Rural Training Center Plan 2

Minor Practical Exercises:

8

For other practical work and discussion, see specific subjects.

Additional work to be done as private study outside lecture hours

Total: 45² Approximate figures.

The 1963 Recommendations of the Uganda Education Commission: A Summary¹

SUMMARY OF MAIN COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter II. The Structure of Education

Primary education should begin at 6+ and extend for seven years; all junior secondary schools to be incorporated in the seven-year system.

At the end of Primary VII selection should take place for four types of secondary school within a reorganised secondary system, viz.: (a) High Schools; (b) Technical Schools; (c) Farm Schools; (d) General Secondary Schools with a vocational bias.

Chapter III. Primary Education

Comments are made on the proposals of the International Bank to increase enrolments in primary schools.

The task before the nation is not just to provide more primary schools but to provide better primary education.

Primary education should be more child-centred.

The quality of primary education could be quickly improved if schools were supplied with adequate teaching materials and facilities for storing.

Permanent literacy is not being achieved by a high proportion of primary schoolchildren.

There is great need for suitable reading material in the vernaculars. Children should be taught in their own vernacular in the early years except where several languages are spoken in one class or where reading material is deficient. Special attention should be paid to oral and written work in the vernacular.

On educational grounds the number of vernaculars used as teaching media should be limited.

In urban schools, or in schools where a vernacular language cannot be used, English should be the medium of instruction from Primary I. Otherwise English should be the medium of instruction in Primary V and eventually in Primary IV. Some teaching of English should begin in Primary I.

Syllabus revision should proceed with the utmost expedition and involve drastic changes.

Agriculture is not a suitable subject for primary schools.

In the first four years of primary education terminal and annual examinations should be abolished.

¹ The text given here is the Commission's summary, quoted in full. *Education in Uganda: The Report of the Uganda Education Commission—1963*. Entebbe: The Government Printer, no date. p. 88-92.

There is urgent need for revision of the primary school leaving examination. Fees should be as uniform as possible throughout the school.

Arrangements for small Asian schools in small towns should receive special attention.

In-service courses for teachers should be conducted in order to enlarge the background of their teaching.

Nursery schools cannot be provided out of public funds.

Some form of aid to schools caring for handicapped children is recommended.

Chapter IV. Secondary Education

The urgent need for expansion of secondary education is emphasised.

There should be four types of post-primary schools, viz: High Schools, Secondary Schools, Technical Schools and Farm Schools.

The proposed new Secondary Schools should have four types of bias, viz.: Agricultural, Technical, Commercial and Home Economics, and provide for a three-year course.

An increase in the pupil-teacher ratio in High Schools is reluctantly recommended.

Secondary schools should aim at an enrollment of 420 pupils.

The importance of preserving quality in secondary education is emphasised. Principles for the revision of curricula and syllabuses are outlined.

A Language Institute should be established at Makerere.

Suggestions are made for text-book revision.

An East African Examinations Council should eventually be established.

Standards of entry to Makerere University College should be revised on the basis of a degree course terminating four years after School Certificate.

No further development of Sixth Forms should take place; the Government should consider the founding of one or more Junior Colleges to absorb future expansion at this level.

The granting of overseas scholarships should be made on stringently selective standards, none being offered for courses immediately available in East Africa. The standing Selection Committee of the Central Government should be responsible for the selection of all students. Scholarship holders should be obliged to return to the type of employment for which training overseas was intended to equip them.

Students of technology and specialist teachers in Art, Music, Economics, Speech and Drama should have their share of overseas scholarships.

Special consideration should be given to students of proved capacity for higher studies who might return to serve higher education in Uganda.

The award and financing of overseas scholarships should be confined to the Central Government, local scholarships only being awarded by the local governments.

Educational development demands perspective planning. A Planning Commission should be established.

A Manpower Board on which the Ministry of Education is represented should be established.

Proper deployment of manpower involves vocational guidance.

The Ministry of Education, in co-operation with the Ministry of Labour, should set up a small department to correlate and distribute information concerning careers for school-leavers.

Research on aptitude and intelligence testing and on vocational guidance relevant to the needs of Ugandan schools, is important and should continue.

Chapter V. Agricultural Education

The problems of agricultural education are not primarily educational, but are bound up with economic and social problems over which the Ministry of Education has no control.

All agricultural training institutions should be intimately related to each other and to the actual farming situation in their neighbourhood.

Successful agricultural education depends largely on visible evidence of successful farming.

The two Agricultural Colleges at Bukalasa and Arapai should have their own Boards of Governors. A permanent teaching staff conscious of the need to relate teaching to research and actual farming conditions should be established at these two colleges.

The potentialities of the farm institutes cannot be exaggerated; they deserve the highest degree of permanent staffing.

Former Farm Schools should be closed and replaced by the proposed four inter-denominational Farm Schools and by the new Secondary Schools.

If adequate professional teaching staff can be established either at Bukalasa or Arapai, prospective teachers of Agriculture for the Farm Schools and new Secondary Schools should be trained there. Otherwise they should be trained at Kyambogo.

The agricultural situation demands radical measures for settling young people on the land.

A Standing Committee for Agricultural Education should be established to integrate all services relevant to agricultural progress, including schemes of land settlement.

Co-operative schemes for young farmers should be planned involving assistance with loan capital, equipment and advice.

Leavers from Farm Schools and the new Secondary Schools who have served two years satisfactory apprenticeship with a "progressive farmer" should be given special consideration in the issue of loan capital.

Legislation should be initiated to facilitate change to systems of land tenure that encourage productive land use.

Chapter VI. Technical Education

The training of technologists should take place at the Royal College at Nairobi and overseas.

Recommendations are made concerning the organization of technicians courses and adult evening classes at the Kampala Technical Institute.

The establishment of Technical Schools providing four-year courses for craftsmen leading to the City and Guilds First Craft Certificate is welcomed.

Success in the First Craft Certificate should be accepted in lieu of the present trade test.

All the existing trade schools should be closed or transformed into the new type of secondary school with a vocational bias.

Apprenticeship schemes on the European model are not suitable for Uganda.

Secondary schools should offer elementary courses in commercial studies; provision for more advanced courses should remain the responsibility of the Kampala Technical Institute.

Chapter VII. Training and Supply of Teachers

Training Colleges should be filled to capacity.

Throughout their training students in Training Colleges suffer from an inadequate educational background.

Entry standards to Training Colleges should gradually be raised to School Certificate level; but with the present standard of entry the four-year course should continue.

The raising of the teaching quality of Training Colleges is a high priority. Improvements in staffing, curriculum, buildings and equipment are urgent. Recommendations are made for the training and recruitment of Ugandan staff and Principals, staff-student ratio and employment of non-academic staff.

A standard course for Training Colleges should be devised and insisted upon by the Inspectorate. At least half of this course should be devoted to the further education of the student.

The community life of Training Colleges should encourage growth into maturity, leadership and responsibility.

Governmental co-operation with the Voluntary Agencies is essential for progress in teacher training.

The 31 existing Training Colleges should be reduced by closure and amalgamation to approximately 18 on the general principle that colleges should have a minimum of 200 and a maximum of 300 students.

Present systems of "up-grading" impoverish the lower classes of primary schools.

Two types of improvement courses for teachers are recommended.

There is special need for courses in Infant Method and in the teaching of language, both English and the vernacular.

The Nakawa Language Centre should be retained and its services extended.

The need for graduates, especially African graduates, in the high schools, is desperate.

There is pressing need for a Diploma Course to prepare teachers for the lower forms of High Schools. This should be centred at Kyambogo.

Teacher recruitment for the Kampala Technical Institute must rely on overseas sources.

For the training of teaching technicians and craftsmen we suggest a one-year course jointly operated by Kyambogo Training College and the Kampala Technical Institute.

Suggestions are made for training teachers in Home Economics.

An expanded Institute of Education roughly approximating the English model should be organised to cater for the special needs of Uganda.

Chapter VIII. Responsibility and Control

The responsibility for education in Uganda clearly belongs to the central and local governments.

The present relationship between the local Education Committees and the Ministry of Education is satisfactory; but the Central Government has insufficient control over detailed developments of planning.

A majority of the Commission believe there is still a place for denominational schools in Uganda, but that the growth of inter-denominational schools should be encouraged. Three members believe that the local or central governments should have full control of all schools.

The development of primary education should be the responsibility of the local governments who should control the establishment of all new schools.

With the exception of Buganda future expansion of post-primary education should be the responsibility of the Central Government.

Education Secretaries-General have an important part to play in the development of education.

Management committees are essential to the efficient running of primary schools. Duties and composition of management committees are discussed.

The inspection of schools should ultimately be the joint responsibility of the local and central governments.

The principle should be established that primary teachers are employed by the Local Education Authority, and teachers in post-primary institutions by their Boards of Governors.

Further recommendations are made affecting teachers' service.

There is inadequate provision for senior level posts in the professional division of the Ministry.

The Examinations Section of the Ministry should be reorganised and the staff increased.

There should be at least one Inspector in each district responsible to the Chief Inspector of Schools.

The present block grant system gives the Ministry of Education insufficient control of educational standards in schools.

The Ministry of Education should be given more specific powers to withhold grants from schools.

There is a place for well-regulated private schools in Uganda but they should be required to conform to prescribed standards.

The Central Government should institute a system of "recognised" private schools, within the present system of registration. Schools failing to reach required standards should be closed.

Chapter IX. Special Problems in Educationally Underdeveloped Areas

Government grants dependent on the percentage of local revenue devoted to education are necessary, but when local finances are unable to meet the local needs 100% grant should be made.

Inducements to improve the enrolment of girls in Kigezi and Ankole should be devised.

Inducements should be devised to attract teachers to Sebei.

The office of the District Education Officer, Sebei, should be transferred from Mbale to Kapchorwa.

Social customs and the need for security hinder educational progress in Karamoja.

Proposals are made to improve school enrolment in Karamoja.

One of the Teacher Training Colleges in Karamoja should be expanded and the other converted into a Secondary School or High School.

For the developments proposed Karamoja should receive a 100% grant.

Chapter X. The Education of Women and Girls

There are social attitudes in Uganda that seriously hinder progress in girls' education.

Recommendations are made concerning staffing and accommodation in mixed schools.

Increased provision for girls' High Schools should be made in each region.

The curriculum of all girls' schools should be in accord with the demands of home-making and a career.

A senior woman officer in the Ministry of Education should be appointed.

Chapter XI. The Arts in Education

If Uganda is to develop a culture of its own the arts and crafts should be an essential part of the curriculum in all schools and training colleges.

An advisory committee on arts and crafts in education should be established by the Minister.

An organiser of art and craft education should be appointed to the Inspectorate.

Arts and Crafts, Music, Drama, Speech Training and folk dancing should receive attention in Training Colleges.

Courses in these activities should be instituted for serving teachers and tutors, associating the Makerere School of Fine Art, the Institute of Education and the Nakawa Centre.

Chapter XII. Adult Education

Adult education should be regarded as part of the total educational effort of the nation.

A National Advisory Council for Adult Education should be established to co-ordinate all agencies engaged in adult education; and also corresponding committees at district level.

Proposals are made for the conduct of literacy campaigns.

There is need for more evening classes for young adults preparing for various qualifications.

The Extramural Department of Makerere might institute more advanced classes in sociology, economics, African history and English leading to a Certificate in Adult Studies.

Chapter XIII. Physical Conditions, Health, and Nutrition

Bad school buildings and staff housing seriously hinder good education.

Local authorities should be empowered to insist on standardised plans for new school buildings.

In order to improve standards of teachers' housing, every effort should be made to follow the suggestions of section 49 of the Report of the Uganda Teachers' Salary Commission (1961).

The health and feeding of schoolchildren require urgent attention. No single reform would more benefit children's education than the provision of school meals in day-schools.

School meals should be made compulsory.

Hostel accommodation and school meals should be provided for urban day secondary schools.

Chapter XIV. Audio-Visual Aids

Inspectors and head teachers should encourage the use of visual aids in schools.

The use of school broadcasts should continue and be extended to include English lessons for primary schools.

An Audio-Visual Aids Centre should be set up to collect and demonstrate, appraise and design these aids and to assist teachers to design them.

Chapter XV. Priorities in Planning

Expansion and improvement of teacher training facilities and high school education are first and equal priorities.

In primary education the emphasis should be placed not on quantitative expansion but on quality, eliminating wastage and raising the standard of teaching.

The proposed change to a seven-year system of primary schooling should be completed by 1968 and therefore involves immediate and drastic changes of syllabuses.

The Government's plans to raise the standards of agricultural and technical education are endorsed.

The reorganisation of the present shapeless system of secondary education on the lines of our proposals is urgent but will take many years to accomplish.

There is pressing need for the expansion of girls' education in all parts of the schools system.

Adult education should be regarded as an important part of national provision for education.