

The Commonwealth Casebook
for Administrators in
Post-Secondary Education



Commonwealth Secretariat

The Commonwealth Casebook for Administrators in Post-Secondary Education

Compiled and edited by
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COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

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PREFACE

The Commonwealth Casebook for Administrators in Post-Secondary Education is the third publication to be produced jointly by the Commonwealth Secretariat and the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration. The first - the Commonwealth Directory of Qualifications and Courses in Educational Administration, originally published in 1974 and now in its third edition - is a reference guide to those institutions in the Commonwealth that offer educational administration as a course of study. The second - The Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators (1982) - contains a comprehensive consideration of the theoretical and methodological issues underlying the case-study approach, together with a number of extended and mini-cases covering various areas of school management. It may be considered as a companion volume to the present one in which there are nine case studies focusing on post-secondary levels of education, mostly in universities and colleges though also in relation to the particular problems arising out of nomadism.

The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration is a non-governmental organisation with over 3,500 members. Its major aims are to foster high standards in the practice and study of educational administration and the preparation of educational administrators; to hold Commonwealth-wide and regional conferences on various aspects of educational administration; to facilitate the dissemination of information about research and practice in educational administration; to facilitate the exchange between member countries of teachers, students and practitioners of educational administration; and to encourage the establishment in Commonwealth countries of national associations of those concerned with the improvement of educational administration. It gives priority to providing practical assistance to educational administrators in the less developed countries of the Commonwealth. Further information may be obtained from the Executive Director, Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia.

The Commonwealth Secretariat's work in education is not confined to educational administration, but extends into other sectors in response to the recommendations made by Commonwealth Ministers of Education at their triennial conferences. Details of these educational activities and related publications may be obtained from the Director, Education Programme, Human Resource Development Group, Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London SW1Y 5HX.

FOREWORD

One of the interesting events in the second half of this century has been the development of the concept of the "Third World". It seems to have come without any previous clear identification of First or Second Worlds, the boundaries of which remain both undifferentiated and unchallenged. While the Third World has in part been self-identifying, like the other two, its boundaries are ill-defined and, probably more than the others, the range of its social, economic, geographic and philosophic orientations considerably larger. Oil-rich nations jostle with some of the most poverty stricken on earth; nations with populations so small as to be able to maintain no more than one or two high schools and no higher education institutions whatsoever, are thrown together with nations of many millions and with long traditions of higher learning. It therefore seems invidious to prepare a book directed at such a diffuse clientele. Nevertheless an attempt will be made to isolate some common elements and to ensure that the materials presented are appropriate in a wide range of situations in Third World countries.

There are some similarities among the countries, though the first of these is shared by the other world groups as well. This is that though there are significant differences, the higher education institutions of the nations have an international function as a two-way communication channel between a nation and the rest of the world; the link for exchanging knowledge, technologies and skills between them. There is therefore much in common among the universities of the world and indeed of colleges as well. Hence, many of the issues addressed in case studies here are of this general kind even though they have been prepared, with one exception, by Third World administrators.

There appears to be one major identifying characteristic separating Third World higher education institutions from those in the rest of the world. This relates to political philosophies expressed by many Third World nations and which is reflected in the literature about Third World higher education institutions emanating from UNESCO, the International Institute for Educational Planning and other United Nations agencies. While the institutions of the older world are undoubtedly products of a technological society, most of what they do is regarded as inappropriate by the newer nations who, along with their nationhood, want to have institutions reflecting their own particular values. While this in itself might imply that the universities and colleges of a nation will reflect particular attitudes and values of that nation, there does appear a cluster of common characteristics relating to manpower planning, community service and relationships with government. Hence, it has been possible to prepare cases which reflect this orientation, particularly in relation to admissions, personnel, research and community service policies, though even with these cases the material would not be lost if it were used in training administrators in other nations. If the Third World orientation has made one important impact on the Western world, it has been that of causing its universities and colleges to look hard at their own values and objectives.

Case studies as a method of staff development should also have particular appeal in this Third World context since they provide that much sought nexus of practice and theory. Their effective utilisation as a training tool produces conceptual and analytic skills; skills which are much required by our administrators in a world where educational institutions are under constant scrutiny, both as institutions in the forefront of national development and as a symbol of the aspirations of new nations. Today's colleges and universities are in themselves complex institutions and they operate in an environment which is full of conflicting and competing demands on the educational organisation. They are seen as expensive, though a thorough cost-benefit analysis would probably deny this in view of the multiplicity of national services they provide. They are seen as institutions often not in harmony with the society they serve and this is usually so. Universities which remain unchallenged by their community are probably falling short of what is expected of them since their task is to be at the forefront of new developments, not their handmaiden. Universities have a function of not just walking side by side with community and government but of being in front in a leadership position. It is not easy to convince taxpayers of this. It requires considerable skills on the part of the institution leaders to maintain the balance between serving the wants of society and serving its needs. Hence, analytical and conceptual ability, clarity in communication and debate, a wisdom based on understanding complex issues are attributes required of such leaders. While too much can be expected of the case study approach, of the non-formal training methods available to the busy administrator they do have considerable advantage over other methods in achieving the result. Much depends on the skills of the study group leader in bringing the case to life and in creating the situation where effective analysis can take place.

Part I of this book is set out largely as a guide to the case study group leader. It provides background information on the case study approach, refers to types of cases and methods of classroom implementation.

Part II presents a number of cases, all of which have been drawn from real situations faced by administrators. Most have been written by students from many countries proceeding to postgraduate studies at the Centre for Administrative and Higher Education Studies at the University of New England, Armidale, Australia. Most have already been tested in classroom simulations, particularly as exercises in analysing policy and decision-making processes in higher education. It is therefore considered that the cases will have wide application, given the caveat stated earlier of the great diversity in Third World nations. Comments from the users of this book would be much appreciated.

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PART 1

THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. INTRODUCTION

The Case Study in Retrospect

It is usual to associate case studies with the training of lawyers, businessmen and doctors, with Harvard University being regarded as the pioneer of the technique. Yet case studies, though carefully researched and written as teaching tools, represent but slices of life, a photograph of a particular event fixed in time and space, so that it can lend itself to analysis. While the term is of recent origin, certainly the method is centuries old. All civilisations have their case law: stories passed down from generation to generation, adults to children, priests and religious leaders to followers, in story and drama, in initiation ceremonies. As H T B Harris has indicated in the companion volume, The Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators, "One has only to recall the Panchatantra, the Buddhist Jatakas, Homer, the fables of Aesop, the parables of Christ, the legends of the Australian aborigines, and the folk memories of peoples with a long oral tradition"...(1) to realise the pervasiveness of the case study approach. All, whether taken from real life, though sometimes disguised, or imaginary tales, have as their purpose an educative function; that being to exemplify principles and to influence behaviour. Their common strength is the act of involvement of the participants. The moral or message is deduced by the class member rather than being told to them by the teacher. Such has always been espoused by educators as appropriate professional practice; that it has not been adopted more readily and widely is indeed surprising.

What is a Case?

Professor Paul Lawrence says:

A good case is a vehicle by which a chunk of reality is brought into the classroom to be worked over by the class and the instructor. A good case keeps the class discussion grounded upon some of the stubborn facts that must be faced in real life situations. It is the anchor on academic flights of speculation. It is the record of complex situations that must be literally pulled apart and put together again before the situations can be understood. It is the target for the expression of attitudes or ways of thinking brought into the classroom.(2)

So, case studies provide an opportunity for the student of administration to step into the shoes of decision-makers and to experience a situation from that perspective. In order to achieve this, cases are normally written from the point of view of the decision-maker involved. Necessarily, the cases are situation-specific and the outcomes cannot be generalised from one situation to another, though there are occasions where a number of cases may reflect a particular theory and the skilled leader will use to full measure the

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opportunities such occasions present. Another feature common to many training situations is the encapsulation of time. The case is a summation of what might have taken weeks in real time; the decision arrived at may also have been spread over a considerable length of time. That a case may be dealt with in two or three sessions, or that several cases may be examined in quick succession in an intensive workshop, does not appear to create the air of unreality that one might expect. Rather, the involvement becomes more intensive and the speeding up of time reinforces the major objective of case studies - the development of clear perceptions and analytical skills.

The range of topics for case studies is virtually limitless; hence there are no guides as to context, length or degree of specificity. Most cases, however, should include four components. First, since cases usually lead to decisions or to an analysis of why decisions or policies were made, there must necessarily be a description of the decision situation. The points at issue must be evident, or must be deducible from the evidence presented in the case. Second, the organisational context must be apparent - who will be affected by the decision, what variables are operating, and of these which are ones over which the decision-makers have control, which are beyond their control and which are subject to negotiation? Third, the case should include some background to the decision-makers themselves, for example, those with recommending authority, those with decision authority, and those with veto authority. Lastly, the case should present adequate background information so that the student can make appropriate assumptions concerning relevant issues and trends in the organisation being studied.

Value as a Teaching Method

As one Harvard professor has stated, the overriding educational aim of the case study method is "the development of proficiency in analysing administrative problems, reaching decisions as to desirable actions, and formulating programmes for making the decisions effective".(3) The method is both cognitive and experiential. Cognitive in that the students have a major role to play; they have to become immersed in the issues of the case, to explore and analyse the issues and present plans for a decision. Experiential in that they are confronting, in the classroom, issues which they are likely to come upon in their professional lives. The data is alive; the decisions they make are applicable to real events.

Other learning also takes place which is applicable to the work situation. The student learns to live comfortably where there is incomplete information, where there is ambiguity of solution in terms of there being several alternatives, none of which presents a totally satisfying outcome. He gains confidence in oral communication and competency in relating to peer group members. By repetition of real life situations he internalises appropriate administrative behaviours.

Such success depends very much on the skills of the lecturer who must be neither passive nor dominant yet remain an active participant. He controls the

learning through his selection and sequencing of the cases, through creating the appropriate environment for debate and discussion, through guiding the class members into unconsidered or ill-considered aspects of the case which are important, through challenging superficial thinking and through pacing the sessions so that time is evenly distributed over the various sectors of the case study procedures. The skilled leader intervenes to deepen and enrich the experiences of the students and to focus their attention on appropriate analytical tasks and conceptual frameworks.

Types of Case Study

Cases vary according to their objectives. Some provide the basis for a comparative analysis; as for example, cases describing policy processes in a number of higher education bodies in a federal system. Others may be developed as a means of exposing the social, political or managerial dynamics of a particular institution. Many, particularly those used for teaching purposes, cover decision situations and organisational problems.

On another dimension, Bridges(4) has identified three types: issue, descriptive and substantive. Issue cases state a problem or problems, a critical incident, together with enough background to enable students to reach a decision, though no official solution is provided. Descriptive cases present a situation which allows for an examination of the dynamics of the situation and for evaluation of its effectiveness. The third type identified by Bridges is the substantive case, a research tool rather than a teaching tool. Though this volume is not primarily concerned with case studies for research, it is interesting to note their value as research tools. A case study developed from a range of methodologies - document reviewing, interviews, surveys and observations - provides opportunity for both theory testing and theory building.* All three types of cases are included in Part II of this volume.

*Those interested in case studies as research would find St John, E P "Case Studies in Higher Education Policy and Management", to be published by the Institute for Higher Education, University of New England, Australia, a useful source of information.

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The case study method is most appropriate as a group learning process conducted over an extended period of time in a classroom. The writer, however, has seen the method used with postgraduate distance-learning students where individual learning was required. The method adopted in these circumstances was to require the student first to develop a case study derived from his own experience and then to analyse a series of cases. The success of such an activity rests on three premises:

1. The maturity and experience of the students. In the instance referred to all were postgraduate students with several years of experience as administrators in universities and colleges.
2. Access to and appreciation of the literature relating both to the writing of case studies and the procedures for analysis. Books listed in the bibliography would provide an adequate basis.
3. Ready and constant access to a tutor or mentor with regular correspondence or communication between them on the issues arising from the case.

The procedure is slow and this endangers both momentum and enthusiasm but the programme witnessed by the writer drew enthusiastic responses from the students.

Case Writing

This book is not concerned with case writing as such though a salutary exercise for new students is for them to write a case or case report in the process of which they identify the elements of a case. They need to identify the intended use of the case; to decide what type of case it is to be; to locate the sources of information necessary to develop the case; to determine what elements obtained from the data should be included in the case; to structure the case so that those analysing it are able to achieve maximum benefit from its study.

Case Methods in the Classroom

There is no preferred procedure for dealing with cases in the classroom situation though what follows has been used with success in workshops initiated by the Institute for Higher Education in the University of New England, Australia.

Prior to the first group meeting, the leader or instructor will distribute a case study together with background reading. In a workshop, where over a period of days a succession of cases is considered, all the cases may be handed to participants before the initial meeting - a necessity with a bound book of this kind - or, quite frequently, a work-under-pressure effect is created, by following a tight cycle of dealing with a case and immediately presenting materials for the next case session. Several cases might thus be analysed in a few days.

The next step is one of individual reading and analysis. Sometimes this is followed by small group sessions involving two or three participants where they again examine the material and discuss what they regard as relevant issues.

During the group session, the leader or instructor first resolves questions from the group arising from the assigned background readings. He then leads the class in discussion of the case, probing for further information or comment, supplying additional comments and relating observations to pertinent theories or insights from the literature on administration. Often a recorder is appointed to list the points arising from the debate. Overall, the instructor's task is to ensure maximum exploration of the material of the case; the task of the students being to raise issues, discuss their implications and evaluate their own ideas against those arising from the group.

The post-class activity for both instructor and participants is one of evaluation. The student reviews the results of the exercise and notes the major concepts learnt; the instructor evaluates both the quality of student participation and the effectiveness of the case and related materials in achieving the objectives he sought.

Procedures for dealing with a Case

Here again, there is no set format for dealing with cases. **Erskine** and associates(5) have however suggested eight steps which form a convenient problem solving model.

- What is the problem?
- What is the relevant information?
- What are the alternatives?
- What are the decision criteria?
- What is the most appropriate decision?
- What is the plan for implementation?
- When and how does implementation happen?
- What is the overall evaluation?

Many variants of the above are possible. Thus, a useful analytical tool in some cases is a force field analysis where one isolates the driving and restraining forces in a given situation, plotting possible steps to enhance or reduce the strengths of such forces and arriving at appropriate decisions or courses of action.

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A word of caution to the instructor and the student is that participants must stay with the materials which are before the group. There is often a tendency on the part of either a leader or participants to refer to anecdotal experiences which too readily detract from the force of the case in question.

Conclusion

Case studies are training tools. They are valuable for their flexibility. Different groups of participants working with the same case study will arrive at different conclusions. An interesting closure to a case study programme is often made in business schools by having a representative of the firm about which the case was written explain to the class the actual decision and outcomes determined by the company. Whether the company might have fared better or worse by drawing on the services of a case study group before making the decision is a matter for conjecture. What has been an outcome of our experience in the University of New England is the very positive reaction of student groups who have used the method and the conviction held by both leader and group that participants became more adept at analysis of cases and reports and that they gained a better appreciation of concepts about policy and administration.

The Cases

The nine cases presented in Part II have been written by university administrators from five Third World countries. Necessarily, most of those that have been selected concern national and institution-wide issues and revolve around questions of policy. As issues become more specific they tend to lose their general relevance beyond their own institution or country; though the one case about the restructuring of an academic department is a notable exception to this rule, since the case reflects what is not unfamiliar in any university.

Four of the cases deal directly with government-university relationships and explore the delicate balance which has to be achieved if universities and governments are going to be mutually supportive parties in national development. Two cases relate to staff development and address particularly the question of localisation of academic and administrative staffs. Another explores what is probably unique to developing countries, because of social factors of distance, geography and economics and, at times, dissemination, the problem of providing access to education for groups who have been traditionally shut off from such access.

It is suggested that the case studies are used in the order in which they are presented. It will be found that neighbouring case studies can conveniently be looked at together.

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PART II
THE CASE STUDIES

1. HIGHER EDUCATION AS AN INVESTMENT AREA IN PAPUA NEW GUINEA'S POLICY CONTEXT*

Introduction

This case highlights dilemmas faced by governments and higher education institutions particularly in new nations where both government and educational institutions are trying to locate their respective roles. The complexities of modern nations are highlighted. Governments and national planning bodies are concerned with increasing the nation's economic potential, particularly its income-producing capacity. Universities, as elsewhere, are recognised as providers of the trained manpower which produces that income, yet the link is hard to appreciate. Often they are seen as a large income drain on the economy; the work they do is not seen as immediately applicable to today's national priorities. There is a popular perception, shared by politicians, that universities do not conform to popular egalitarian concepts and that they should be made to do so. The issue, then, is how to co-ordinate and control universities without destroying the innovativeness and initiatives which the nation needs from these institutions.

The Case Study

Compared with other communities higher education in Papua New Guinea is a small concern having been conceived as an area of government policy and development attention in the early 1960s. The Currie Commission, under the chairmanship of (now Sir) George Currie, which submitted its report in 1964 is recognised as the "founding father" of this area of education in the country. The Commission concluded in its report that it sees higher education not only as a means to economic development, but as a key to it, and unan- imously recommended the establishment of a university institution which was accepted and which paved the way for the University of Papua New Guinea to be set up in 1965 and to commence teaching in early 1966 in Port Moresby. The aim of the University was conceded to be that of preparing higher level indigenous manpower to manage the country's affairs, particularly in government and public service. Particular areas considered to need immediate priority were agriculture, law, medicine and the generalist graduates in arts, education and science. Courses or programmes introduced at the University have reflected this view, with the exception of the degree programme in agriculture which was not introduced until 1973.

Circumstances at the time, with Australia being pressurised by the United Nations to immediately prepare Papua New Guinea for self-government

* Prepared by Damien Sarwabe, Registrar of the University of Papua New Guinea. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes (in September 1981). It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

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and then independence, tended to cause the authorities, both in Canberra and Port Moresby to consider university education as the only desirable form of education to be stressed. Consequently, higher education tended to be seen as synonymous with university education. This view is still prevalent, even though post-secondary educational institutions have been set up, and in some cases even prior to the establishment of the university, in the fields of teacher education, agricultural and health extension activities and in-service training programmes for public servants. Likewise, due recognition of the important area of technical training did not become obvious until 1969 when the then Institute of Higher Technical Education, established in 1967, obtained university status, thus adding a significant area of studies to the university stream.

The Brown Committee

It is apparent that the authorities in Port Moresby have not had a co-ordinated view of higher education strong enough to move towards a policy direction aimed at organising the various forms of post-secondary education into a co-ordinated field of activity needing specialist attention for the purposes of policy formulation and resource allocation. An ill-fated attempt was made, however, in 1971, when the Brown Committee was appointed to consider and recommend the appropriate ways to co-ordinate all post-secondary forms of education. The terms of reference of that Committee were as follows. The Committee was asked to inquire into and make recommendations in respect of institutions that conducted post-secondary and tertiary courses, on:

1. the immediate changes considered desirable to rationalise and co-ordinate development of the institutions to achieve
 - (a) balanced growth of enrolments in keeping with the availability of school leavers and the projected demands within Papua New Guinea for trained manpower;
 - (b) maximum economies of scarce staff and physical resources;
2. the longer term changes considered desirable for these purposes, and the nature, composition and powers of permanent machinery required to achieve them and to advise the Government on these matters;
3. what it considers to be the most suitable arrangements for the management of institutions, other than the University and Institute of Technology, including any variations desirable in the conditions of service of their staffs;
4. the arrangements considered desirable to determine the status of the various academic awards, including the criteria that should be used to assess courses and ensure consistency of nomenclature.

Although the Committee fell short of recommending a fully integrated or

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single co-ordinated higher education sector, it did recommend a set of arrangements which were somewhat akin to the present higher education co-ordination in Australia. The main difference from the Australian arrangement was that the principal co-ordinating agency, the Tertiary Education Commission, was not to have a direct influence in financial matters. Additionally, the non-university, post-secondary institutions were permitted to remain within the umbrella of their parent departments for all day to day purposes. Appendix I shows the full range of the recommendations of the Brown Committee.

The Brown Committee recommendations were not adopted apart from the Government setting up the Office of Higher Education as a branch of the Department of Education which was intended to service the Tertiary Education Commission and its sub-units, the associations of tertiary colleges and an ad hoc Universities Finance Review Committee. The former still exists, but under a cloud of uncertainty as to its exact role in the co-ordination of higher education. The latter was disbanded in 1976 when the Government moved towards macro-level planning and financing of the public sector.

The non-implementation/adoption of the Brown Committee recommendations leads one to continually speculate whether there will, in the immediate future, be a central co-ordinating agency for the higher education sector and whether the Government feels strongly enough to develop a policy that would recognise the importance of higher education in the country. Additionally, one questions whether the macro-level, integrated approach to planning and development in the public sector is an appropriate mechanism for determining the needs of the higher education sector which is not geared towards generating income, but rather, the opposite, in that it consumes considerable resources. The consequences of the lack of a specific policy direction in the area of higher education means firstly, that it is treated in a divided manner with, perhaps, a less than desirable level of consultation between universities on the one hand and the parent departments of the institutions on the other. Secondly, as an implication of the first consequence, the value, the insight and the priority that may be set vis-a-vis the future progress of higher education activities tend to rest almost entirely on the whims or inclinations of those authorities under whom the various institutions come, although theoretically those authorities are supposed to determine the needs and future of institutions relative to the general government policy as it stands. Thirdly, there is the likelihood of undue waste of scarce resources caused by the duplication of efforts and pursuing a set of objectives that may not necessarily fall within the needs or demands of the community.

Problems with Government Policy towards Higher Education

The above exposition, which is largely historical, has been outlined in a lengthier manner than was perhaps necessary. However, it does assist the writer (and hopefully the reader) to gain an appreciation of the extent of the uncertainties (perhaps only in the writer's mind) that appear to exist over the future of higher education in Papua New Guinea given the nature of

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the policy pursued by the Government from the early years of the introduction of higher education to the present. The following commentaries trace the policy directions in higher education noting actual or speculative rationales or explanations that may have influenced those directions. It might be reiterated here that general government policy with respect to the whole of the public sector had been to centrally co-ordinate and plan all the activities of government departments and instrumentalities on an integrated basis being guided by the need for

1. equality of opportunities and development;
2. regular reviews of priorities, giving weight to areas of activities with the potential for income generation and geographical regions disadvantaged by lack of growth in development;
3. education in general to be geared towards permitting as many eligible people to receive it as possible and higher education to be geared towards fulfilling manpower requirements of the country, especially in the public service.

Perhaps the seed for pursuing the line being taken may have been sown at the time that introduction of higher education was being contemplated. The Currie Commission (1964) concluded in its report, a view that:

"Educational development must be directly integrated with other development, otherwise much of the money and effort devoted to education will be dissipated to no solid purpose. In other words, it must be investment, not simply welfare expenditure; and this is in the longer term interests of welfare itself."

General education policy has been geared towards providing general literacy and numerical skills to equip school leavers for life in the rural areas, thus the emphasis on universal primary education. Secondary, technical and higher education were thought to be specialised in nature and designed to meet the manpower needs of the developing government and monetary sectors. The manpower question was therefore implanted in the minds of government authorities in the early days of the introduction of education by the government. The general trend is perhaps exemplified better in this statement from the 1973/74 Papua New Guinea Improvement Plan:

"During the 1950s education policy was characterised by efforts to expand primary education. Changes in political and economic policy during the 1960s led to a slow-down in the expansion of primary education with greatest emphasis being placed on secondary, technical and higher education to meet future manpower needs..."

Expenditure figures in higher education are somewhat misleading in two respects.

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1. Until about the time of independence in 1975 the two universities were financed directly from Australian federal funds appropriated from Canberra and approximating A\$7-10 million per year when the Papua New Guinean Government took over financial responsibility.
2. The non-university forms of higher education have been, and continue to be, the responsibilities of various government departments which makes it difficult to separate the exact amounts being spent. Thus, only a guestimate can be made from looking at what the concerned departments set aside under the heading of training (or staff development), noting, too, that a good part of this amount is likely to be related to general staff development or in-service training.

The "Eight Aims"

The first ever attempt by a Papua New Guinean Government to consider and set down its thoughts and plans took place in 1973. The first national Government, under Mr Somare, propounded what is known as National Goals and Directive Principles, popularly referred to as the "Eight Aims", which are shown below.

1. A rapid increase in the proportion of the economy under the control of Papua New Guinean individuals and groups and in the proportion of personal and property income that goes to Papua New Guineans.
2. More equal distribution of economic benefits, including movement toward equalisation of incomes among people and toward equalisation of services among different areas of the country.
3. Decentralisation of economic activity, planning and government spending, with emphasis on agricultural development, village industry, better internal trade, and more spending channelled to local and area bodies.
4. An emphasis on small scale artisan, service and business activity, relying where possible on typically Papua New Guinean forms of business activity.
5. A more self-reliant economy, less dependent for its needs on imported goods and services and better able to meet the needs of its people through local production.
6. An increasing capacity for meeting government spending needs from locally raised revenue.
7. A rapid increase in the equal and active participation of women in all forms of economic and social activity.
8. Government control and involvement in those sectors of the economy where control is necessary to achieve the desired kind of development.

It was around these eight aims that the National Improvement Plan of 1973/74 was launched. Under this plan the Government moved away from triennial planning and financing of the public sector to an annual plan. The notable features included heavy emphasis on economic activities, particularly those areas which were to generate income internally so as to minimise reliance on overseas aid, notably from Australia, which was at that point around 60 per cent of the Government's total income. Another feature was to give nationals incentives to produce goods and services themselves so that they might become less reliant on government help. The Government also emphasised that there would be equal opportunities for nationals by concentrating on helping those areas and groups which had been disadvantaged up to that point for a variety of reasons. In the area of education, emphasis was laid on technical and vocational sectors, especially the latter which was considered to be most important to the needs of the rural population. Higher education, notably university education, was more or less untouched. Both universities were still in their development phase and their finances were still derived from Canberra. Teacher training, and training of agricultural and health extension officers, were largely a function of the parent/consumer departments and so the nature and demands in these areas of higher education were left to the departments concerned.

Independence, Localisation and Proposals for a Single University

The sort of plan introduced in the 1973/74 fiscal year continued to be the policy framework that the Government used in the development of the public sector until 1979. However, during the period 1972-1978 a number of important events took place which were to introduce new dimensions to public sector development. These included a policy initiative in 1972/73 whereby the Government decided that the whole of the public sector needed to pursue a programme of staff development with the view to localising the overseas staff, particularly at the senior policy-making levels, e.g. heads of government departments and statutory bodies. The second significant development was the achievement of self-government in 1973 and finally independence in 1975. These developments influenced the Government's attitude in the following areas.

1. A considerable level of effort was geared towards in-service and staff development programmes, at home and abroad, for potential national employees with a view to having them replace their overseas counterparts.
2. There was a greater tendency towards seeing universities as sources for producing manpower, especially for the public sector.
3. There was a determination to limit the growth and development of universities, the responsibility for which became that of the national Government as from about the time of independence. The transfer of this responsibility from Canberra to Port Moresby also signalled a greater degree of control, not only in terms of enrolments and expenditure but also in future directions.

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With reference to the last point it is significant to note that in 1974 a government appointed Committee of Inquiry into University Development made a set of recommendations which can be summarised as follows:

1. a single university concept which would have had the effect of greatly increasing the Government's authority over the institution since the present legislation which guarantees certain levels of autonomy for the two universities would have been superseded by different legislation giving the Government a greater say in university affairs;
2. the programmes offered by the single university could have been mounted and dismantled according to the needs and priorities set by the Government in line with the sort of policies being pursued.

A number of impracticalities were discovered in the process of discussing the implementation of these recommendations which caused the report to be shelved indefinitely. It now seems that the report and the recommendations may not be reconsidered. Aside from this, however, the Government did decide to limit the growth of the two universities. In the case of the University of Papua New Guinea the expenditure and the enrolment levels were to be held at the 1975/76 levels. The University of Technology was permitted to grow for a further few years until its already-in-progress capital works were completed so that its enrolment figures could be increased to an acceptable level.

National Public Expenditure Plan, 1979-82

In 1979 the Government launched a new format for planning and financing the public sector. The 'new development strategy', as it is known, is based on a rolling triennium but it is different from the earlier plan in that the capital works component of expenditure has been removed from the composite estimates of departments. Financial submissions are requested in two separate packages - the recurrent and the capital/expansion programmes - and are considered on separate bases. The 1976 level of expenditure for recurrent activities forms the basis of allocations for all government departments and statutory bodies. All new projects or expansion of existing activities form submissions under the National Public Expenditure Plan (NPEP) where a specific amount (approximately 3 per cent of the total expenditure) is set aside in a central pool and allocations are based on the merit of the project and not as a categorised item, according to the priorities set by the Cabinet. The policy direction still favours the investment activities and the income-generating economic projects.

In a general policy statement regarding education at all levels, the Government stated in the Plan that

"The Government places a higher priority on the development of appropriate skills for its development efforts and on measures to promote ownership and managerial involvement in private

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enterprise and involvement in public decision-making. A major goal of the Government is to promote equality of opportunities for all parts of the country and for women. Resources will be allocated to this category (i.e. Training and Increased Participation) according to manpower requirements with emphasis on greater opportunities for less advantaged people.'

It was pre-empted in 1979 when it was decided that a more specific policy on higher education generally would be evolved once an inter-departmental committee - consisting of representatives from the Department of Finance, Office of Higher Education, National Planning Office and the Public Services Commission - had considered ways and means of reducing costs of higher education. The eventual view on this depended on a set of manpower figures that the National Planning Office was working on (and which is yet to surface). However, at the time the National Planning Strategy was launched in 1979 it was observed that graduate output need not be stressed as

"the supply of skilled manpower from Universities will catch up with the demand for skilled manpower in most areas given projected growth rates of the public and private sectors."

Accordingly the Government has decided:

"that apart from a few small specialised programmes which need expansion to provide specialised skills in some high level manpower areas, the existing physical capacity of the Universities will not be altered during the Plan period."

The latest picture is therefore that the higher education sector is in a stagnant phase, if not in decline. The next Plan period (1982-84) may see some changes, but it is difficult to project any significant trend as long as the non-education sectors are emphasised and as long as manpower continues to be accepted as the major influence on higher education. While the trend may have been justifiable given that there was a need to get a number of areas to "take-off", a continuing trend of stifling development in higher education may not be in the best interest of that sector nor for the country as a whole. In at least one respect there needs to be a change of attitude. It is recognised that political developments which have now ensured the establishment of twenty-one separate governments in the country (one being the national Government) do call for increased levels of higher trained manpower. The present policy has not taken this development into account, even though the present plan was being worked out at about the same time as the development of provincial governments. In another respect, the country still recruits quite a number of overseas staff for the public service at considerable expense. One might wonder whether in the long term it might be worth increasing the pace of development in higher education, even for given periods of time.

Until a change is made, higher education appears to face an uncertain future.

APPENDIX I

The Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (1971):
List of Recommendations

- 1.(a) That a Tertiary Education Commission should be established as an advisory body with the following functions:
 - (i) to advise the Government of Papua New Guinea on tertiary education and, in particular, on the needs of the community for sufficient people to be trained and educated to achieve a balanced development of resources;
 - (ii) to advise the tertiary institutions of Papua New Guinea with a view to promoting co-ordination and mutual assistance;
- (b) That the Tertiary Education Commission be constituted along the following lines:
 - a Chairman appointed by the Government;
 - the Director of Education;
 - the Director of the Office of Programming and Co-ordination;
 - the Chairman of the Public Service Board;
 - the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Papua New Guinea;
 - the Director of the Institute of Technology;
 - three of four members appointed by the Government. (paragraph 7.12)
- 2.(a) That a Tertiary Education Finance Board be appointed by the Government to advise on financial proposals made by the University and the Institute of Technology and on any other financial matters in the tertiary education field that are referred to it;
- (b) That this Board consist of three persons, that the Chairman be the Chairman of the Tertiary Education Commission and that the other two persons be not members of the governing body or staff of any institution whose finances are, or are likely to be, under investigation by the Board. (paragraph 7.17)
- 3.(a) That all tertiary institutions other than the University and the Institute of Technology be linked into loose federations according to areas of vocational interest;
- (b) That these federations be called associations of tertiary colleges and

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have the functions outlined in paragraph 8.20, viz:

to advise the Tertiary Education Commission on such matters as the Commission refers to them;

to make submissions to the Tertiary Education Commission on matters relating to their member institutions;

to act as forums for discussion of common problems;

to work towards the avoidance of duplication and overlap of courses;

to make recommendations to the Tertiary Education Commission and parent departments on such matters as standardisation of facilities, terms and conditions of staff and amenities for students. (paragraphs 8.17 and 8.20)

4. That the question of raising throughputs in professional courses be referred to the Tertiary Education Commission for urgent consideration. (paragraph 3.17)
- 5.(a) That a further 125 places for electricians and radio mechanics and 75 places for technicians in engineering be provided in technical colleges over and above current Department of Education plans;

(b) That further investigation be carried out to determine the nature of the specific courses required within these fields. (paragraph 3.24)
- 6.(a) That secondary teacher education facilities be established on, or adjacent to, the campus of the University of Papua New Guinea at an early date to provide some 200 further places for secondary teacher education;

(b) That these facilities be part of a joint-agency college. (paragraph 4.4)
7. That additional places be provided in primary teachers colleges so as to have at least 4,500 places by 1980.
8. That the Teacher Education Committee of the Tertiary Education Board, or its successor, pursue a policy of consolidating small teachers colleges into joint-agency colleges to provide for some portion of the necessary expansion in primary teacher education, and, in particular, that it consider the possibility of establishing such a college at Waigani. (paragraph 4.14)
9. That proposals currently being prepared for an expansion of accommodation, facilities and courses at the Administrative College so that the Public Service may proceed more rapidly towards localisation, be developed vigorously and implemented as soon as possible. (paragraph 5.9)

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10. That, in any proposed expansion of activities of the Administrative College, the College remain a Government instrumentality responsible to the Public Service Board, but that it operate within the framework of its own ordinance and under the guidance of its own council. (paragraph 5.13)
11. That there should be the fullest co-operation between the University and the Administrative College in developing courses and that, in due course, the University develop postgraduate courses in public administration. (paragraph 5.17)
12. (a) That, for any semi-professional technician training conducted outside the University or Institute of Technology, the possibility of using facilities (particularly laboratories) of the University and Institute of Technology be closely examined to avoid duplication of expensive equipment;

(b) That, as a general rule, courses for industrial technicians be conducted in technical colleges where facilities can be used for both trade and industrial technician training. (paragraph 6.4)
13. That the guidelines for technician courses be:
 - (a) courses for semi-professional technicians should be of three years duration (or the part-time equivalent) following the completion of form IV;
 - (b) courses for industrial technicians should be of three years duration (or part-time equivalent) following the completion of form III;
 - (c) students who have completed form IV should be able to complete an industrial technician course in two years full time study (or part-time equivalent); (paragraph 6.7)
14. (a) That the industrial technician qualifications should be a certificate;

(b) That the semi-professional technician qualification should be a diploma;

(c) That the first professional qualification should be a bachelor degree;

(d) That additional professional qualifications should be a postgraduate diploma or degree of master as appropriate. (paragraph 6.8)
15. That the Institute of Technology conduct a range of semi-professional technician courses. (paragraph 6.11)
16. That there be an immediate increase in the resources available to the Vocational Guidance Section of the Department of Education and to the

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associated careers advisers in the high schools. (paragraph 9.8)

17. That consideration be given to treating non-government teachers colleges and senior high schools (or junior colleges) as full tertiary institutions for the purpose of awarding scholarships. (paragraph 9.9)
18. That the Tertiary Education Commission give consideration to the provision of full opportunities for women to receive higher education and to the provision of suitable accommodation for married students. (paragraphs 9.12 to 9.15)

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2. THE AMALGAMATION AND DECENTRALISATION OF UNIVERSITIES IN SRI LANKA*

Introduction

The central issue of this case is decentralisation versus centralisation. What is the point at which the successful implementation of one system as opposed to another can be achieved? What are the appropriate conditions? What are the factors giving choice? Who decides? Should it be politicians or academicians? The Sri Lankan experience seems to suggest neither. What are the benefits and weaknesses of each system as exemplified in this case? Such issues are highlighted in this case as are the human problems and human ingenuity which such organisational changes promote.

The Case Study

The two most important landmarks in the history of university education in Sri Lanka, other than the setting up of the University of Ceylon in 1942, were the amalgamation of the existing universities in 1972 to form a unified federal structure and the decentralisation of the University of Sri Lanka in 1979 to form autonomous universities with a University Grants Commission to carry out functions far more than the disbursement of funds.

This study will describe the factors leading to the amalgamation of the then existing universities in 1972, and then the decentralisation of the federal university in 1979 to form six autonomous universities.

Historical Background

Though the Ceylon Medical College was in existence from the latter part of the nineteenth century, university education as such began in January 1921 when the University College was formally opened in Colombo as a government institution affiliated to London University. The University College was transformed into the University of Ceylon in July 1942 by the Ceylon University Ordinance No. 20 of 1942, after a certain amount of struggle on the part of the Western educated elite, with the help of some of the British Governors and the principal of the University College. One University of Ceylon was established by this Ordinance by amalgamating the existing Ceylon Medical College and the University College.

The University of Ceylon continued as the only university in Sri Lanka until 1959 when the Bandaranaike Government upgraded two great seats of Buddhist learning to establish two other universities, the Universities of Vidyodaya and Vidyalankara.

*Prepared by H M N Warakaulle, Senior Assistant Registrar at the University of Colombo. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes (in September 1981). It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

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The United National Party which came into power in 1965 effected a further change in the system in 1966. With the passing of the Higher Education Act No. 20 of 1966, a National Council for Higher Education was established to oversee the functioning of the universities. This body was like a University Grants Commission, but had a little more power. In 1967, the University of Ceylon was split in two to form two separate universities, so that there were four universities in all. This position continued until February 1972.

The Amalgamation

All political parties were preparing for the general election in 1970. The Sri Lanka Freedom Party, led by Mrs Sirimavo Bandaranaike (which was in opposition), had, in their election manifesto, outlined the changes they would effect in the field of higher education if they came to power.

The advisors to the SLFP on higher education had drawn up a blueprint to achieve economies in higher education and to do away with the National Council for Higher Education which was considered an enigma as it controlled all the actions of the universities. The chairman of the NCHE was a former professor of Pali, Professor G P Malalasekera. There were six other members of the Council, most of whom were well-known educationalists, from various fields of education. The former Vice-Chancellors of the universities also participated in the meetings of the NCHE.

The main reasons for a desire to effect a change in the higher educational set up were the attempts to achieve economies by rationalisation of courses, more than the dictatorial attitude of the NCHE and reductions in staff, etc. As soon as the SLFP assumed control of the reins of government after the election, a committee was appointed by the Minister of Education to study the existing set up and make recommendations which would help to achieve the desired goals.

The committee consisted entirely of university teachers from various disciplines ranging from medicine and engineering to eastern history and they were drawn from all the universities and the College of Technology. The committee held sittings and recorded evidence, both oral and written (submissions), for almost one year and they drew up the plan for a unification or amalgamation of the universities to form a single federal university.

The committee recommended the establishment of a single university based on the pattern of the University of London. There was to be a Senate House at the centre with the Vice-Chancellor at the helm, and the existing universities would be the campuses of the university. Each of the campuses were to have a President as the head, but responsible to the Vice-Chancellor. With the establishment of the single university the committee

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envisaged achieving economies by cutting down on the staff, for now there was no need to have a Vice-Chancellor in each campus; rationalisation of courses to avoid duplication; and creating centres of excellence in various disciplines in the various campuses. Of course, economies could have been achieved if the university had been established and everything else done as recommended by the committee, but unfortunately, in reality, these things are never achieved.

The Government accepted the recommendations of the committee in principle, and went ahead with the drafting of legislation for the establishment of the single university. The passage of the legislation through the House of Parliament, and the receipt of the assent of the Governor-General to the University of Ceylon Act No. 1 of 1972, brought about the amalgamation of the existing universities into a single university and this higher education setting was established on 15 February 1972. The new university comprised a Senate House as the Vice Chancellor's Office, and the former universities formed campuses subordinate to the Senate House with a President as the head of each campus. The College of Technology was absorbed as the fifth campus.

Results of the Amalgamation

It is of interest to note that with the establishment of the single university, all but one of the members who served on the committee were appointed Presidents of the campuses. The other person was appointed as the first Registrar of the University of Sri Lanka.

How far were the factors envisaged by the committee achieved in reality? In respect of rationalisation very little was achieved. The departments of education in the Peradeniya, Vidyodaya and Vidyalankara campuses were brought to the Colombo campus and a faculty of education was established in 1976, almost four years after the university was established. Some of the teachers were transferred against their wishes, for, those who were in the Peradeniya campus enjoyed housing facilities and better medical facilities and, therefore, did not want to leave that campus. This was achieved during the tenure of the second Vice-Chancellor.

The first Vice-Chancellor was able to bring about only a very mild form of rationalisation. It was not exactly rationalisation, but creation of centres of excellence in the various campuses in respect of various disciplines. The centre of excellence for languages was created at the Vidyalankara campus, and most of the teachers in the departments of languages were transferred to that campus. Here, too, some of the teachers were transferred under protest for the same reasons cited earlier.

In most of the disciplines there was absolutely no rationalisation, even as a public relations gesture. What happened was the opposite. There was duplication of certain disciplines and more than duplication of others, since the campuses did not want to lose what they already had and they opposed any disciplines being taken away from them. Instead, what the campuses wanted was

to expand and obtain disciplines that they did not have.

So, it is evident that the rationalisation of courses did not work as planned and, therefore, it was not able to achieve the economies of having fewer teachers and maximum utilisation of scarce resources. Instead, what happened was that some of the departments in the campuses expanded and had a larger number of staff members than before.

Neither were economies achieved in respect of the top level staff. Though there was only one Vice-Chancellor, the Presidents of the campuses were also drawing the same salary as the Vice-Chancellor and, therefore, there was one person extra at this level than with the previous system. There was only one Registrar for the whole University of Sri Lanka, but the campuses had additional Registrars, so that in that category too, there was one person additional to the cadre than in the previous system.

The Act of Parliament which established the single university determined the structure of the university, gave it legitimacy and indicated how vital matters such as the control of the university, the authority, rights and responsibilities of different governing bodies at different levels were determined.

The federation was created to achieve two main objectives: to reduce the expenditure on university education, and to rationalise courses. Both were economic reasons. It was found that having more universities meant higher costs in respect of governing boards and staff. If many of the matters could be handled by a central office, the staff (non-academic) in the campuses could be reduced in number.

There was also more than duplication of courses because often, three of the four universities had the same courses. It was planned to avoid this by rationalisation and this would result in the reduction of the academic staff needed and thereby achieve economies.

It was also felt that having one central body controlling all activities of the campuses would result in uniformity in all campuses with regard to all examinations, curricula and admissions, and in respect of appointments and promotion of staff (both academic as well as non-academic).

It was felt that the costs would be reduced considerably with central control since the government grant was distributed among the campuses according to student numbers and the capital vote according to the priorities. Once disbursed, the central body was responsible for seeing that the monies granted were spent according to plan.

The central body was responsible for maintaining standards of all examinations in the campuses through a system of examination boards. The curricula of all campuses were decided at the centre by Boards of Study, so that throughout the campuses the standards were maintained on a uniform basis. All admissions of students to the various faculties in the campuses

were determined by the Admissions Committee at the Centre.

Under the earlier organisational management some universities were not in a position to recruit the best graduates to the academic staff because some universities were considered inferior to others established earlier. So, they had to be content with personnel with poorer qualifications. With the establishment of the single university all appointments had to be sanctioned by the central governing authority, the Board of Governors. This prevented campuses from recruiting personnel with poorer qualifications, and also the competition among campuses to recruit staff was eliminated.

The unified university did not live up to expectations because, as two of the campuses were situated far away from the centre in Colombo, it meant that the administration became unwieldy. Senate House was not able to have great control over all the activities, and some matters were necessarily attended to by the campuses without reference to the Senate House.

The campuses were also dissatisfied with the system, complaining that there were long delays in the implementation of certain decisions, and that the senate was indifferent to the campuses.

On the other hand, when problems arose, it was a question of passing responsibility between the Senate House and the campuses. Inability to put an end to problems as soon as they occurred led to student unrest, a strike and demonstrations, violence and destruction of university property on many campuses on a number of occasions. This resulted in the removal of a President in one instance and the killing of a student in another, followed by the closure of the university and the appointment of Commissions of Inquiry.

One salient feature in this federal structure was that the Act was not enforced. The Board of Governors met only as an Advisory Board of Governors and the Senate was never established. The Vice-Chancellor was all-powerful - he reigned over his kingdom during a transition period extending to almost seven years. He had to carry out the directions of the Minister from time to time or sacrifice his position.

These shortcomings led to agitation among the staff in the campuses for a change. The agitation was so widespread that some of the political parties had changes to be effected in the higher education system embodied in their election manifesto. The UNP, in its election manifesto for the general election in 1977, had indicated that it would set up once again fully autonomous independent universities in place of the existing campuses.

Decentralisation

A former professor in one of the campuses, who was holding a professional appointment in a foreign university, was appointed by the President of the Republic to make recommendations regarding the new system to be established. He interviewed representatives of various associations,

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individuals, considered written submissions, and submitted his recommendations to the Minister for Education. The recommendations were accepted by the Government, which set about drafting the legislation for the purpose.

The Universities Act No. 16 of 1978 established the new university education structure on 1 January 1979, thus repealing the University of Ceylon Act No. 1 of 1972. The former campuses were made independent universities. A University Grants Commission was established to oversee the work of the universities. Though the UGC was based on its counterpart in the United Kingdom, it actually resembled the UGC in Britain only in nomenclature.

The autonomous universities were established. However, the limitations of the universities with regard to certain functions were laid down by law itself.

It would be worthwhile to compare the powers of the UGC vis à vis the universities, as laid down by the Act of Parliament establishing these institutions. Section 15 of the Act specifies the powers of the UGC as follows:

1. to inquire into or investigate, from time to time, the financial needs of each higher educational institution;
2. to prepare from time to time, in consultation with the governing authority of each higher educational institution, triennial budgets for its maintenance and development; or for any other general or special purpose;
3. to make recommendations from time to time to the Minister as to the nature and amount of grants, out of public funds, which it is desirable or necessary to make to each of the universities;
4. to determine from time to time, within the overall wage and salary policies of the Government, the quantum of remuneration that should be paid to different grades of the staff of the higher educational institutions; and the nature and extent of other benefits that the staff should receive;
5. to determine, in consultation with the governing authority of each university, the courses which should be provided therein, and the degrees, diplomas, and other academic distinctions which shall be awarded;
6. to determine, from time to time, in consultation with each university, the total number of students which shall be admitted annually to each university and the apportionment of that number to the different courses of study therein;

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7. to select students for admission to each university, in consultation with an admissions committee;
8. to determine, in consultation with each university, the external examinations which it should conduct for enabling those who are not students of the university to obtain degrees, diplomas, and other academic distinctions of the university;
9. to formulate schemes of recruitment and procedures for appointment of the staff of the universities;
10. to investigate or to cause investigation into such matters pertaining to the discipline of the students of any university, as may be brought to the notice of the UGC by a Vice-Chancellor, and to take remedial measures; and
11. to do any other acts necessary for effectively exercising any of the powers specified by the Act.

The objects of the UGC were specified in section 3 of the Act. The more important ones are as follows:

1. the planning and co-ordination of university education so as to conform to national policy;
2. the apportionment to the universities, of the funds voted by the Parliament in respect of university education; and the control of expenditure by each such university;
3. the maintenance of academic standards in universities;
4. the regulation of the administration of universities;
5. the regulation of the admissions of students to each university.

It would be interesting to note the powers conferred on a university by section 29 of the Act. Section 29 opens with the following proviso: "Subject to the powers, duties and functions of the Commission, a university shall have power ..."

This indeed is an interesting proviso as far as the powers of the universities and the UGC are concerned. Subject to the above proviso, the universities are to enjoy the following powers as provided in the relevant sections of the Act:

1. to admit students and to provide for instruction in any approved branch of learning;
2. to hold examinations for purposes of ascertaining the persons who have acquired proficiency in different branches of learning;

3. to provide postgraduate courses;
4. to grant and confer degrees, diplomas and other academic distinctions to persons who have pursued approved courses of study in the university and who have passed the examinations of the university.
5. to conduct, with the concurrence of the UGC, external examinations for enabling those who are not students of the university, to obtain degrees, diplomas, etc.
6. to institute professorships, etc., as may be required for the purposes of the university.

On the face of it, it seems that the powers, duties and functions of the UGC and the universities are clearly defined by law but, actually, nothing could be done by the universities without obtaining prior approval of the UGC. There have been quite a few instances where the UGC has encroached on the functions of the universities and has dictated terms to the universities. Actually, in the working of the new system, there has not been very much difference between the earlier federal structure, as far as central control is concerned, except for the fact that now there are universities instead of campuses. As in the case of the earlier organisation, all the functions of the universities are being controlled by circular instructions from the UGC.

With the establishment of the new university structure, a new Ministry of Higher Education was created, with the Minister of Education holding this portfolio as well as that of Education. The Secretary to the Ministry was the same person who was functioning as chairman of the UGC. This added more power to the UGC and especially to its chairman. Now the Ministry of Higher Education functions under the President.

The present arrangement has caused most of the university teachers and other employees to be satisfied because there is a great deal more independence now than under the previous set up. The Vice-Chancellors have to take decisions, without passing on responsibility. Therefore, though the expenditure is far greater than earlier, more people are kept satisfied now than under the earlier structure.

A significant feature after the establishment of the autonomous universities was the creation of the Open University in July, 1980 by an Order of the Minister of Higher Education. The Open University of Sri Lanka functions under an Ordinance - the Open University of Sri Lanka Ordinance No. 3 of 1980.

The objectives of the Open University may be indicated as the advancement and dissemination of learning and knowledge by teaching and research, correspondence tuition, residential courses and seminars, and in other relevant ways. It seeks to provide education of university and professional

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standard to its students, to promote the educational well-being of the community generally, and to meet the demand for manpower skills, especially through training at the middle level. The Open University achieves its objectives through programmes at different levels and continuing education programmes. These programmes are being provided using the techniques of distance education through the printed word and through the mass media.

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3. THE TRENDS AND INFLUENCE OF UGANDA GOVERNMENT POLICY ON MAKERERE UNIVERSITY: A CASE STUDY OF THE PROCESSES AND TRENDS IN STAFF AND CURRICULUM LOCALISATION*

Introduction

One of the difficult problems faced by universities in new nations is that of localisation of staff and how such can be achieved. This case describes the progress made in Uganda and points to the issues associated with it. Even the term 'localisation' differs from country to country. What is its basis? Is it enough that the staff come from the same continent such as Africa, or is a region a desirable unit? This was not regarded as so by East Africans. Are national boundaries adequate or should localisation mean the employment of the members of the politically powerful racial groups within the nation? Where does localisation start and end?

The other thorny issue relates to curriculum. Is it sufficient, for example, to substitute African frogs for European frogs in zoological experiments, or is there a special kind of African or Ugandan zoology? Is it sufficient to add to the curriculum courses in local languages and cultures? Is indoctrination in the prevailing political system a part of localisation? If universities in the past have been seen as international sources of knowledge-exchange is this still relevant? If it is, how can the links be maintained in localised universities and colleges?

The Case Study

This paper presents a case study of the processes of staff and curriculum localisation in Makerere University. The study focuses on a government initiated programme of localisation that has been in operation in the University since 1963. This programme of localisation has passed through two phases. The first phase was the East Africanisation of the staff and curriculum of the University; and this took place between 1963 to 1970 when Makerere formed the University of East Africa jointly with the University College of Nairobi in Kenya and the University College of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania. The second phase, which is now in operation, is the one of Ugandanisation of the University. This process of Ugandanising the staff and the curriculum started in 1970 when the University of East Africa broke up and Makerere became an autonomous national University of Uganda.

The general background to this study is firstly, a brief review of the popular concepts concerning staff and curriculum localisation in the universities of the developing countries to which Makerere belongs. Secondly, an outline of the generation and the growth of the impetus for localisation of

*Prepared by E B Mugerwa, Makerere University. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes in September 1981. It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

higher education in Uganda during the colonial period (1924-1962); i.e. Makerere started as a native technical college in 1922 and it had grown into a university by independence in 1962. Thirdly, the study will focus on the policy of East-Africanisation (1963-1970) and finally on the policy of Ugandanisation (1970 onwards).

Popular Concepts Concerning Localisation in Universities of Developing Nations

Governments of post-colonial nations of Africa, or perhaps of all Third World nations, have increasingly tightened their control over their national universities to an extent, perhaps, that their universities have been subjected to more national, political process than their counterparts in the developed nations. A lot of hypothetical concepts have been expounded in general about the desire of developing countries to increase their control over the universities by directly or indirectly influencing their activities, particularly in staffing and curriculum development. As this study will show, the Ugandan Government, for better or for worse, has tightened its control over Makerere University since national independence in 1962.

E Ashby(1) has argued that governments seek to exercise such control and influence over their universities, particularly in the matters of curriculum and staffing, because of nationalist feeling. The implications of having expatriate staff dominating the universities is inseparable from the emotions of nationalist opposition to colonial or neo-colonial domination. Some vocal African politicians, like J K Nyerere(2) and K Nkrumah(3), have also openly argued that although expatriates return to Africa in different roles (as professionals rather than masters), their very presence and influence lead one to question whether political independence is at all viable if the universities, which are regarded as the centres for ideological and socio-economic transformation of society from colonial to national orientations, continue to be dominated by them. Chango Machyo (4), taking a stronger nationalist view, has also argued that "a look around the world will show that no respectable nation has ever left the conditioning of the mind of its youth - its future manpower - to foreigners". Therefore the need for the localisation of the staff and the programmes of the universities in the developing nations are predicated on the same logic that underlies the staffing of English universities predominantly by the English, American universities by Americans and Russian universities by the Russians. In a similar way, a workshop(5) on staff development in African universities which was held in Accra in 1972 supported the efforts for localisation of universities on the grounds that "having been born, loved and nurtured in the locality, only the African can truly bridge the social and communication barriers that in their universities too often tend to separate the teacher from the student". The foreign academic, however objective he might be, is bound to be handicapped in his understanding of the social environment and in his interpretation of the local cultures and traditions that inevitably must increasingly influence his teaching, research and dissemination of knowledge. The workshop again stressed that staff localisation "facilitates the mental and ideological orientations of the outlook of both the teacher

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and the student, thus making it easier to gear the university system to the national realities".

The views of the workshop about localisation of universities in developing countries may perhaps appear, or even be dismissed as, mere expressions of political or nationalistic sentiments by people outside the developing world context. But the available literature on the development of Makerere University strongly supports the above views and indicate that curriculum and staff localisation were adopted after independence in 1962 as a reaction to the failure of the official colonial policy concerning higher education in Uganda and the colonial expatriates who controlled all aspects of life in the university to gear higher education to the realities of East Africa or Uganda.

The Colonial Policy and the Growth of the Impetus for Localising Makerere (1922-1962)

Started as a native technical school in 1922, Makerere became a university college affiliated to London University under a special relationship of tutelage with gradual development into the University of East Africa in 1949. All its lecturers were from Britain, the syllabus was that of London University which set and marked the examinations. The students at Makerere University College were regarded as external students of London University and after their graduation they were awarded London University degree certificates. This initially could not be surprising since there were no Ugandans or East Africans to be appointed as lecturers in the University, and there were again no local materials to be taught. But in the development of the University even at the level that some Ugandans or East Africans were available for appointment, unfounded assumptions and excuses were used by the colonial educational planners and the colonial expatriates in Makerere to maintain the status quo. The type of research that interested the expatriates was anthropological; not so much related to developing localised curriculum. Sir Phillip Mitchel, Governor of Uganda during this time, and regarded as one of the most instrumental people in educational policy formulation for the growth of higher education in Uganda at that time, is reported, in his support of the British oriented curriculum for the East African students in Makerere, to have asserted that "there is only one civilisation and one culture which we are fitted to lead these people...our own. We know no other and we cannot dissect the one we know and pick out this piece or that as being good or bad for Africa".(6) Again, P Forster, described as having been one of the most outstanding philosopher chaplains Makerere ever employed, put it bluntly in the 1950s when he said that "there is no such thing as African education. There are only Africans being educated like Europeans".(7) At this juncture it apparently appears that the education received in Makerere University was basically geared not to local reality but to conditions obtaining in Britain.

Yet another school of colonial expatriate academics used similar simple assumptions and excuses to exclude the appointment of capable Ugandans or Africans to teaching posts in Makerere. P Forster, in defence of the exclusion

of the indigenous academics from appointments in the University, argued openly that,

"To the young African, education is not the means whereby he may develop the acuteness of his perception either in his intellectual life or in his relationship to the external world with the purpose of gaining great human enjoyment and relish from life. The joy of learning to learn, of working for achievement of some substantial improvement of the human race, the thought of discovery or adventure of research, or the long labour of scholarship; they had not walked twelve miles to school in their early days for that. They had not suffered the agonies of examination fever in order to become scholars or thinkers."(8)

Without revealing what research he had done to come to such a conclusion, Forster's view came out openly through the paper of a prominent colonial expatriate head of department in the University, even as late as 1960 when Uganda was at the eve of independence, who was convinced that however academically capable the Ugandans might have proved themselves to be in their studies, the poor social background from which they came hindered their development to the level of a university intellectual, as he put it in the following words,

"Perhaps the time has come to try and see the position of these intellectuals and what there is to offer them when once they graduate from the ivory tower. In a house without electricity, in a school in a bush...ten miles from a town; and in a town without a bookshop...with no up country libraries, possibly not even a cinema; with no periodicals except Drum, and perhaps most important of all unacceptable in the alien society that dominates the intellectual life of his country what chance is there of being either civilised or intellectual in this wilderness?"(9)

Consequently, therefore, by independence in 1962, the only level at which a Ugandan or an African could be appointed in Makerere was at "research assistant" level. This was the only level of appointment in the University for which there was provision in the University budget for the appointment of the indigenous academics. While the expatriate academic quoted above was a senior faculty member but holding only a BA degree from London University the limited position of research assistants open to the indigenous academics were occupied by people who were greatly over-qualified for them, and, indeed, far more academically qualified than the expatriate academics. By 1962, for example, such positions were occupied by W Banage (Ugandan) with a first class Honours and PhD in Science from London University, Mwai Kibaki (Kenya) and Lameka Goma (Zambia) who were also PhD holders but could not be appointed to a higher level as a matter of official policy in the University. Immediately after independence the discrimination against the indigenous academics and the poverty of the University curriculum (in relation to gearing it to East African realities) came to the fore and the new Parliament

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passed a motion for an immediate and unrestricted localisation of the staff and the curriculum in Makerere.

The Implementation of the Policy of East Africanisation 1963-1970

By the time the policy of localisation came to be implemented in 1963 Makerere University College had joined Nairobi University College in Kenya and Dar es Salaam University College in Tanzania to form an autonomous federation of the University of East Africa. This new University of East Africa was financed by the three governments of Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania through a body which was known as the "East African Common Services Organisation" which had been set up to administer all services that were being run jointly by the three states. The policy of staff localisation that was put in practice was therefore East Africanisation. The policy implemented therefore addressed itself to bringing East Africans of the highest academic training and promise to teach in any of the three colleges of the University irrespective of whether the college in question was in their respective nation or not, i.e. so long as a person was an East African that person could be appointed to the academic or administrative staff of any of the three colleges. The policy also aimed at devising ways and means of encouraging research to develop curriculum and teaching materials relevant to the East African context. In order to achieve this, two systematic programmes were devised. The first one was known as the "Staff Development Programme" and was devised to assure both numbers and academic quality during the take over from the expatriates by local academics. A Parent Staff Development Committee was formed at the federal level which co-ordinated the activities of the separate Staff Development Committees in each of the colleges and the day to day administration of the activities of the Parent Committee were managed by a full time "Senior Liaison and Staff Development Officer" at the Central Office of the University of East Africa, which was in Makerere University College itself. This Parent Committee had the Vice-Chancellor of the University of East Africa as its Chairman, the Academic Registrar as its Secretary and its membership was made up of the three Principals of the three colleges, three external members (one chosen from a university in Britain, one from a university in the United States and the third being the Resident Representative of the UNDP in East Africa). Each Academic Board of the three colleges sent one representative and Rockefeller Foundation (which was one of the leading sponsors of the programme) was represented by the Foundation's representative in East Africa. Also in attendance were the Senior Liaison and Staff Development Officer of the University, and representatives from the government Ministries of Education and Economic Planning. Membership to the individual college committees was made up of the respective college principals as chairmen, college registrars as secretaries and the deans of faculties and schools and institutes as members and, again, government representation from the Ministries of Education and Economic Planning in each of the respective states. The second programme set up was known as the "Research Grants Programme" which was devised to manage research funds and co-ordinate research activities for the production of East African

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text books and reading materials for the East Africanisation of the curriculum. This was also run by a parent committee at the university central administration level and separate research grants committees in each of the colleges.

Under the "Staff Development Programme", three categories of appointments were established within the University in order to effect the process of staff localisation. The first one was known as the category of "special assistant". This was meant for the recruitment of young graduates with upper-second honours or better qualifications at the end of each academic year who were remunerated with tax-free grants better than they would have got by joining the civil service. This was a one-year appointment during which time the appointee became familiar with his academic department, gained some teaching and research experience through conducting undergraduate tutorial classes and being involved in some research work going on in his faculty or department. In consultation with his head of department, he would formulate his area of specialisation and if facilities were locally available, he would register for the appropriate higher degree. Otherwise he would be sent on a scholarship to an overseas university. Since most of the scholarships were available from outside bodies such as the Rockefeller Foundation his local grant would be withdrawn and made available to one who could be trained locally.

The second category was of "tutorial fellows". This was a two-year appointment for holders of masters' degrees, though those with good first degrees could be appointed in the absence of better qualified candidates and if they had some relevant practical experience. This category was for people who were qualified for appointment to permanent academic posts but about whom the University did not have adequate information about their academic ability to teach. The two years were therefore a period of trial during which the appointee had to prove whether or not he could hold an academic appointment. He would immediately be slotted into a vacancy which occurred in his area of specialisation in his department if he proved capable of teaching. Otherwise his appointment would be terminated.

The third category was known as "special lectureship"; this grade was formed deliberately for the immediate replacement of expatriates by East African staff. Under this category, persons qualified and suitable for academic appointments but who had become available when there were no vacancies for them were appointed against vacancies occupied by expatriates. The appointment was supernumerary and was held for a maximum of three years during which period the college concerned had to absorb the appointee into its permanent staff. He would automatically fill a vacancy that occurred in his particular area of specialisation in the department, and this meant that it became difficult for the contract of an expatriate to be renewed in a situation where he was working in a department with a special lecturer of the same area of specialisation. The scheme, in addition, provided attractive allowances for one year of leave for further study at any acceptable university. The scheme also catered for those East Africans already in established posts but who wanted to complete their higher degrees of post-doctoral

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studies. They could get one year salary support during which they could do research in East Africa, or would be given overseas scholarships in cases where the study could not be done locally.

Other steps implemented to step up East Africanisation and to discourage the continued appointment of expatriates included the requirement for each head of department to identify suitable candidates at the time of graduation, even from overseas universities. As a result, colleges with consular assistance abroad, compiled long lists of such candidates together with their progress reports. Further recruitment on permanent and pensionable terms was stopped. At this time 40 per cent of the academic staff in Makerere University was made up of expatriates on permanent and pensionable terms. The University administration was to be East Africanised in the shortest time possible and total East Africanisation in this respect had been achieved by 1970. Headship of departments could now be held by associate professors and senior lecturers even where there were expatriate professors in the departments. This was aimed at putting the control of the decision and policy making organs of the University Colleges in the hands of East Africans. Expatriation allowances and gratuities which were meant to attract expatriates were cut down and a policy of "take-or-leave" was adopted.

Relations with Outside Agencies

In order to sustain the programme the three Governments of East Africa (Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania), besides funding the University through the East African Common Services Organisation, made individual financial contributions to the programmes in their respective colleges. Furthermore, they jointly solicited outside financial assistance and their first call for such assistance was answered by the financing of a Donors Conference(10) at Lake Como in Italy by the Rockefeller Foundation in 1963. This conference was attended by the Ministers and Permanent Secretaries of Finance and Education from Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania; officials of the East African Common Services Organisation (through which the East African Governments financed the University of East Africa); officials of the Government of the United Kingdom, officials from USAID, IBRD, UNESCO and OECD; representatives of the German Federal Republic Ministry of Economic Cooperation; officials from Ford, Rockefeller and Carnegie, Nuffield and Wolfson Foundations; officials from Leverhume and Dulverton Trusts; representatives of the three colleges led by the college principals; the Vice-Chancellor and the Registrar of the University. Most outstanding responses were made by the UK Government (with a cash contribution of £1.5 million) and Rockefeller Foundation which contributed \$162,000 to the staff development programme for the triennium beginning June 1963 to July 1967.

Achievements and the Break-up of East Africanisation

According to the Staff Development Committee report of 1969(11), localisation in Makerere University College had jumped from 10 per cent of the total staff

at the end of 1963/64 academic year to 32 per cent. For the whole of the University of East Africa taken together, out of 817 total established posts in the University, 265 had already been East Africanised, and this represented 32.4 per cent of the total staff establishment; Makerere College 32 per cent, Nairobi College 33.7 per cent and Dar es Salaam College 31.8 per cent East Africanised. However, by this time strong nationalist feelings of separate national development and educational planning were coming to the fore in each of the three states of East Africa, particularly spearheaded by Tanzania which had adopted a more militant socialist development strategy of self-reliance. Political pressure was building up for the transformation of the respective university colleges into autonomous universities of their respective nations. These developments led to the Uganda Government appointing a "Visitation Committee"(12) in 1969 which was empowered to look at ways and means through which Makerere could be run more on a national rather than on a federal level. The Committee reported to the Government in 1970, clearly stating that it was not in the national interest for Makerere to simply East Africanise its staff and programmes. It had to specifically aim at Ugandanisation if it was to play a more meaningful role in the development of the country. The Committee therefore recommended the immediate establishment, by the Makerere University College Council, of an ad hoc committee for Ugandanisation, with adequate funds and facilities for drawing up a programme that would ensure that Ugandans were trained to take over the academic and administrative duties of the University as soon as possible. The Committee further observed that East Africanisation of Makerere had hindered the possibilities of the most important academic posts in the University, such as deanship and headship of departments, being held by Ugandans. It was stated that there were already qualified Ugandans to take over these posts and immediate Ugandanisation of the posts was recommended. The Committee further recommended that promising Ugandans who completed their undergraduate degree should be appointed directly to teaching posts and should pursue their postgraduate studies while actively carrying out duties of faculty members as a way of preparing them to take over responsibilities from the non-Ugandans. In July 1970, the University of East Africa broke up and each of its three colleges became an autonomous national university of the respective nations of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. As a result of this, and on the basis of the recommendations of the Visitation Committee, new Staff Development and Publications and Research Grants Committees were set up for the purpose of Ugandanising the new Makerere University.

The Current Policy of Ugandanisation

The policy of Ugandanisation replaced the policy of East Africanisation which came to an end with the break-up of the University of East Africa in July 1970 and, as has already been outlined, it was the implementation of the recommendation of the Ugandan Government appointed Visitation Committee. The Ugandanisation process is maintained by three main organs basically financed by the Government. These are:

1. The Staff Development Programme administered by the Staff Development

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Committee for the purposes of recruiting and training Ugandans for academic appointments in the University,

2. The Publications and Research Grants Committee,
3. The Makerere Institute of Social Research.

The latter two are involved in financing and administering research and publications activities for the production of teaching materials on Uganda. Each of these two groups of localisation activities will be dealt with separately under two headings, namely Staff Localisation and Curriculum Localisation.

Staff Localisation

After the break up of the University of East Africa and the emergence of Makerere as an autonomous national University for Uganda in July 1970, the ad hoc Ugandanisation Committee which had been established immediately following the report of the Visitation Committee took over the administration of the staff development activities which had hitherto been administered on the basis of East Africanisation. The Ugandanisation Staff Development Committee met for the first time on 8 March 1971. It was chaired by the Vice-Chancellor of the University. The Academic Registrar acted as its Secretary, while all the deans of the faculties and the heads of schools and institutes of the University formed its membership. This structure of representation on the Committee continues but has since been enlarged to include the Deputy Vice-Chancellor, the University librarian, and the Permanent Secretaries of the Ministries of Education, Finance and Economic Development. This high-powered representation on the Committee by both the University and the Government appears to be evidence of the importance attached to the process of Ugandanising the University and the role that the Government plays in the University's planning activities.

The Administration of the Programme

Administratively the Staff Development Programme is run as a section in the Academic Registrar's Department. Its day-to-day activities are carried out by a senior official of assistant registrar level who is directly responsible to the Academic Registrar. His role is to handle the correspondence and to prepare the agendas for the Staff Development Committee which meets at least three times per term (i.e. six times in a full academic year). The Committee, chaired by the Vice-Chancellor, sits as a sub-committee of the University's main Academic Board known as the Senate. The role of the Academic Registrar and his department is mainly secretarial. The executive powers to decide on any matters that may come up for urgent attention are in the hands of the Vice-Chancellor.

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Activities

The activities, aims and objectives of the Staff Development Programme are reflected in the Staff Development Committee's terms of reference which were recorded in the minutes of the Committee's first meeting on 8 March 1971(13) as follows:

1. to devise a realistic and effective programme for staff development;
2. to examine agreed established requirements over the following five to ten years, and devise a plan for Ugandanisation;
3. to ensure the quality of staff by supervising the training of potential staff and offering further opportunity for training for existing staff through short visits, study leaves, etc.
4. to disburse funds that may be made available for the Staff Development Programme;
5. to work in close relation with the Appointments Board and to send copies of the minutes of the Committee to the Board and to all heads of departments. The heads of departments should
 - (a) attempt to know their requirements in advance and plan accordingly.
 - (b) indicate the degree of commitment in respect of each candidate they forward,
 - (c) show the candidate's specialities and the department's need for them,
 - (d) track down at an early stage the potential academics; i.e. those who graduate with first class and upper second honours degrees.

From the evidence one noticeable bias is that the administrative staff is neglected in staff training and emphasis is put on training the academic staff. This may probably reinforce the view that the programme is more concerned with Ugandanisation in numbers than in raising the quality of existing staff. Administrative staff, who are obtained more easily than the academic staff, are expected to learn through experience while the academic staff must at least get a second degree before gaining permanent appointment. But even on the side of the academics, a more detailed look at the activities of the programme shows that since 1973 it has hardly catered for the already established staff. The programme appears to have concentrated on training young Ugandan graduates to acquire second degrees and automatically be appointed to lecturership positions. It can in fact rightly be categorised as a crash programme for the numerical production of Ugandan lecturers without paying adequate attention to the fact that those lecturers need doctoral or post-doctoral research experience if they are to effectively carry out the academic responsibilities of the senior expatriate counterparts they are replacing. One reason given in defence of this policy is that the shortage of staff that followed the mass exodus of expatriate academics, and

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eventually the fleeing of the country by the majority of the indigenous staff during the peak of the military dictatorship between 1973 and 1979, made it impossible for the University to release the few permanent academics left for study leave. Some departments, for example, according to the memorandum from the Academic Staff Association presented to the University Council on 28 March 1978, had lost all their academic staff while others remained with only skeleton staff. During the 1977/78 academic year, for example, the faculty of law had lost fifteen of its seventeen Ugandan academic staff; the faculty depended for its survival on special assistants and part-time legal practitioners. At the end of the same academic year the department of electrical engineering was unable to present its students for examinations because all its staff, the majority of whom were Ugandans, had fled the country leaving teaching to special assistants who, according to the University regulations, are not allowed to set examinations or mark them without senior supervision. With such staff shortages already qualified and appointed staff could not be released for study leave. Besides the great necessity for their services in the University, releasing staff for overseas study was regarded as one way of helping them out of the country to look for alternative employment abroad. By the end of 1979/80 academic year, an estimated 773(14) Ugandans had qualified for appointment to lecturership positions in the University, as compared to 625 established academic posts existing in the University at the time. But the University had had only half (303) of its established posts filled by 256 Ugandans and 57 expatriates. It is again estimated that at the end of the 1980/81 academic year 70 of the Ugandans who had fled the University were teaching at the University of Nairobi in Kenya, 12 in the University of Dar es Salaam, 30 in the University of Zambia, 200 in other countries of Africa, USA, Britain and Canada, and 70 who had just qualified from overseas universities had just not returned home and their whereabouts was not known.

Government Intervention

Realising the seriousness of the situation, the Ministry of Internal Affairs took over directly the responsibility of clearing any University member of staff travelling out of the country, a move which was intended to make sure that the Ugandan academics did not flee the country since it was very rare, and only in case of an academic sympathetic to the regime, that permission would be granted for any study tour abroad. Again, realising that even the special assistants sent for further studies abroad did not actually come back to the country, the Government acted by taking over the role of the University Appointments Board and pushed academics sympathetic to the regime to positions of deanship and headship in the faculties. These sympathetic academics were then directed to start postgraduate programmes in their respective departments so that the special assistants were trained locally and their chances of fleeing the country were minimised. The noticeable consequence was that departments without staff experienced in postgraduate training were forced to start postgraduate programmes. An example given of such a situation was given of one faculty. With none of the 17 special assistants sent for further studies overseas between 1973 and 1977(15) coming back to Uganda, and with the loss of fifteen of the seventeen established staff of the faculty, the faculty dean pushed through a postgraduate programme

to train the special assistants locally with the help of part-time lawyers and some expatriates from India and Pakistan. But the programme failed to attract the registration of well qualified special assistants to the faculty. Four candidates who registered for the programme were holders of lower second honours degrees though normally lower second degree holders are rarely admitted to postgraduate work in the University. One came from the city council and three from the Law Development Centre. After the military regime had been overthrown in 1979, the University senate had enough courage to dissolve the programme on the grounds that the faculty lacked adequate facilities and experienced teachers to embark on such a programme. Perhaps, to sum up the problems surrounding the programme of localisation of staff in Makerere, one would be right to say that an otherwise potentially successful policy of staff localisation has been thrown out of balance by an unfavourable political climate that even now has not improved much.

Pattern of Government Funding

Another noticeable development in this programme of Ugandanisation is the huge increase in government financial commitment to the programme since 1975 despite the fact that most of those who have been sponsored do not come back to work in the University. By 1971 government funding to the programme was minimal, with most of the funds and scholarships being provided by international agencies the biggest contributors being

1. The Inter-University Council (London),
2. The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA),
3. The Rockefeller Foundation,
4. The Ford Foundation and
5. The Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (16)

The period following the coming to power of the military regime in 1971 saw the international isolation of Uganda, and Makerere in particular, to an extent that, by 1975, almost all international agencies extending aid to Makerere had withdrawn and the Government was faced with either increasing spending on the programme in order to make it possible for the University to continue in existence or close the University since almost all expatriates had left the country and it was difficult for Makerere to attract any academics from outside Uganda. Consequently government funding to the programme rose from shillings 700,000 in 1975 to almost five times more by 1981, i.e. to shillings 3,386,240. These drastic increases are revealed in the 1976/81 University Quinquennial report(17) as follows:

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<u>YEAR</u>	<u>1975/76</u>	<u>1976/77</u>	<u>1977/78</u>	<u>1978/79</u>	<u>1979/80</u>	<u>1980/81</u>
Amount (in shillings)	700,000	1,946,000	3,102,500	3,216,000	3,295,616	3,386,245
Annual Increase	-	1,246,000	1,156,500	113,500	79,616	90,624
% Annual Increase	-	178%	60%	4.1%	4.4%	2.8%

Relations with Outside Agencies

Despite the increases in government funding, the University was facing a problem by the end of the 1979/80 academic year. Some of the special assistants who were coming back from studies abroad could not be appointed to lecturer-ship positions because they had no proof to show that they had successfully completed their studies. Lack of foreign reserves in the Uganda Central Bank had made it impossible for their tuition fees to be sent to the respective overseas universities. Their results had therefore been withheld until the University could pay the fees. At a second Como Conference financed by the Rockefeller Foundation, which was held between 13-17 May 1980(18), the University had appealed to the donors of scholarships for the rehabilitation of Makerere to release the funds in such a way that they paid for the tuition fees of some of those who had finished their studies abroad but whose results had been withheld by the universities because of the failure of the Bank of Uganda to remit their fees. But this request was in some areas not successful because the donors were interested in specific programmes with which they wanted to associate while others gave scholarships on condition that they had to be taken in universities of the awarding agency's country of origin. Attending this donors' conference were the Ugandan Ministers of Education and Rehabilitation, the Vice-Chancellor, the Secretary and the Academic Registrar, plus three professors from Makerere University, and the donors included the following:

1. Rockefeller Foundation: this Foundation facilitated the holding of the conference. Its representatives pledged support for staff development programmes in agriculture and social science, and to consider contribution to a fund for the repatriation of Makerere staff who had been in the University's staff development pipeline under the Foundation's sponsorship.
2. Inter-University Council/Overseas Development Administration: this donor promised to set aside £45,000 for the year 1980/81 for the sponsorship of Makerere staff on short term visits of 19-75 days in fields selected by the University, and to finance interdepartmental linkages between Makerere and British universities in fields such as staff exchange, etc.
3. International Development Office, Ottawa: this is a non-government agency of the Association of Universities and Colleges in Canada through which the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) had sponsored Ugandans for the Makerere Staff localisation programme prior to 1975.

It expressed willingness to resume such assistance to the University by sponsoring selected candidates for study in Canadian universities.

4. Carnegie Corporation of New York: this offered an immediate grant of (US)\$30,000 to be used for repatriating Ugandan academics back to Makerere and to assist towards the creation of a centre for the improvement of teaching and learning at the University campus.
5. Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust: this pledged an immediate grant of £12,000 to cover scholarships for two special assistants for the 1980/81 academic year, and a grant of £5,000 to cover short visits of staff, all of which were to be undertaken in UK.
6. World University Service (WUS) of UK and International World University Service of Geneva: these two bodies were already sponsoring 250 Ugandans on scholarships in universities in the UK, 180 of whom were finishing their undergraduate studies during the year. WUS expressed willingness to sponsor those that Makerere University was interested in for postgraduate studies.
7. The Australian Development Assistance Bureau: during the 1979/80 academic year, this agency had extended a grant of about (A)\$100,000 to cover training aids and equipment, and it had also made available 25 training awards to Makerere University. The agency promised to grant further short term training awards to the University; but all had to be undertaken in universities in Australia.
8. The Ford Foundation: this pledged to continue an aid grant of (US)\$100,000 and also to provide a new grant of (US)\$110,000 to the faculty of agriculture and (US)\$140,000 to the faculty of social science which would be used for the repatriation of Ugandan academics under the sponsorship of the Foundation, for staff training and staff travel for conferences and for staff visits overseas.
9. The Nuffield Foundation: this offered a fellowship for a special assistant to study paediatrics in the UK and pledged to continue such assistance to the faculty of medicine.

What is most noticeable about the above details of the donors' assistance to Makerere during this period of reconstruction is that while the University was more eager to meet the fees of those it had sent abroad for further studies between 1975 and 1980, the donors were interested in their own specific programmes and in new projects of staff training in their own countries. Some faculties and departments, like law and arts, which were facing acute shortages of staff emerged out of the conference empty-handed because the donors were not interested in them. Under such circumstances it becomes doubtful if a programme of localisation can be effective when the University or a host government, like Uganda, lacks the means to direct its own priorities.

Curriculum Localisation

As already outlined, two main organs exist in the University for the advancement of curriculum localisation. These are the Publications and Research Grants Committee and the Makerere Institute of Social Research.

The Publications and Research Grants Committee (19)

This Committee, as has already been outlined earlier in this paper, was started in 1963 as an organ for the East Africanisation of the curriculum of the then University of East Africa. Currently it continues to exist as an organ for the Ugandanisation of the curriculum in particular. The Committee is chaired by the Vice-Chancellor with the Deputy Vice-Chancellor as its deputy chairman. Membership is made up of one representative elected by the Boards of each of the faculties, institutes and schools of the University. The Academic Registrar is its secretary. It meets at least three times a term and its terms of reference are

1. generally to encourage research and other original work by members of the University,
2. to administer grants in aid for publications made from University funds for this purpose, and
3. to furnish an annual report to the Senate on the administration of such funds.

The Committee is funded by the Government through the University's Grants Committee. The funds are basically intended for the production of teaching materials on Uganda and all members of the academic staff are encouraged to apply and receive them provided their topics are approved by both the Committee itself and the government-owned National Research Council. During the period of military rule, the National Research Council could not approve any research in the country without permission from the President's Office, and this made it very difficult for the Makerere staff to engage in research.

The Makerere Institute of Social Research(20)

This institute was originally established by the British Colonial Government in 1948 as an independent regional centre for research in the social sciences, located on the Makerere campus. The emphasis during the colonial period was put on anthropological research. During the period of East Africanisation, it became an East African centre for doing government applied research. For example, in 1963, the Institute launched the Economic Development Research Project with a group of six economists, half of whom were from abroad, to carry out a four-year study of development planning in East Africa. After the break up of the University of East Africa and the idea of federalism in East Africa in 1970, the Institute became the Makerere Institute of Social Research. Currently it is an internationally recognised centre for research in the social sciences in Uganda in particular, administering research studies on the social, political and economic problems of

the country. Its functions are to provide research experience for Ugandans interested in academic careers, and to develop and publish teaching materials for the University, as well as to undertake some applied research for the Government and to provide a centre with which overseas research workers may be associated. The Institute has full time staff research fellows and senior research fellows involved in research who are paid by the Government through the University Grants Committee. It is administered by an executive director and an executive committee. The Committee consists of the dean of the faculty of social science (chairman), the heads of departments in social science and representatives from the faculties, schools and institutes of the University.

Relations with Outside Agencies

The Institute receives research funds from international agencies, the most noticeable of which are the Rockefeller Foundation, the United Kingdom Ministry of Overseas Development and the Ford Foundation. But the problem facing the planners in the Institute is that often such research funds are given on condition that research is undertaken in specific areas of interest to the funding agency. The problem here is that the Institute may at the time not have staff qualified or interested in the field selected. Moreover, the type of research funds seem to restrict the Institute in carrying out research in areas of priority to curriculum development in the University.

Achievements Towards Localisation of Curriculum

Perhaps the most important justification of the localisation of university programmes and research in any nation is the realisation of the fact that each nation has, to a large extent, a unique cultural, social and economic background that forms the basis of its development. Consequently the type of research and academic programmes derived from the cultural and social economic conditions of developed societies like Britain may not be appropriate to the less developed and culturally different society of Uganda. Even in the East African context, the diversity of cultural and social and economic history of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, particularly due to the difference in climate, capacity for agricultural production and contact with colonialism, appear enough to justify each nation approaching development from its own angle.

Looking through the university calendars since the establishment of Makerere University in 1949 to the present, much has changed in the way of curriculum. After independence, the syllabuses were rewritten, particularly with the aid of the work of the research grants programme, to gear them to the East African context. Most noticeable was the upgrading of the Kiswahili language to degree level, Kiswahili having been identified as the unifying indigenous language for East Africa. From the break up of the University of East Africa in 1970 up to the present, efforts have been made, through the research undertaken by the activities of the Publications and Research Grants Committee and the Makerere Institute of Social Research, to rewrite the

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syllabuses of the University to reflect the reality of Uganda. Research in the University has broadened from the colonial anthropological orientation to other fields of national importance such as economics, education, geography, history, political science, rural economy, religious studies, sociology, social psychology, law etc. For example, where before, during the colonial period, Christianity was taught at the expense of traditional religions which were looked down on as paganism, the syllabuses of the University now contain comprehensive courses in traditional religions based on locally produced research materials. History syllabuses have also been rewritten with emphasis on local history where before the emphasis was put on British or European history. Similar steps have been taken in other departments - for example poems and novels written about Uganda by writers like Okot P'Bitek are replacing some of the English literature that used to dominate the English syllabuses. In the faculty of law, though basically the principles of the English legal system still exist, a lot has been done by way of reshaping the syllabuses to focus on East African realities in general and Ugandan realities in particular. Through utilising the funds of the Publications and Research Grants Committee, Ugandan law academics like Professor Abraham Kiapi, Dr Byamugisha, Mr J W Katende, have published materials and textbooks in Public Law, Criminal Law, Law of Banking and Insurance, Law of Business Associations, etc. which are replacing the predominantly English law text books. 1980 saw the first graduate in one of the indigenous languages in Uganda, the Luganda language; while at the same time the department of music, dance and drama has also been dramatically transformed to focus more on Ugandan culture. In all aspects of the University, therefore, it can now be seen that education at Makerere University is more and more being geared to the reality of Uganda through the activities of the localisation organs - the Publications and Research Grants Committee and the Makerere Institute of Social Research. One hindrance towards more progress has been the instability of local staff during the period of the military dictatorship which has disrupted research projects and scaled down research activities since most experienced senior staff fled the country during the period.

Conclusion

By way of summary, this paper has tried to reveal that government has increasingly exerted influence in the affairs and planning of Makerere University in order to make sure that the University is geared towards national reality. Steps to localise the staff and the curriculum were taken to achieve this aim. However, problems of political instability and lack of foreign reserves have made it difficult for what would be a successful planning venture to fully materialise. The lack of foreign money seems perhaps to have put the planning policy under the manipulation of outside agencies whose interests and priorities may not necessarily agree with national priorities or the University's priorities in localisation. But, again, it is hard to see how Makerere would have survived through the period of the military dictatorship had there not been such a planning policy of

staff Ugandanisation. When the expatriates fled the country in the early 1970s, the few Ugandans kept the University going. When even the Ugandans started to flee the country, the staff localisation programme assured that there were at least some who stayed to keep the University going. Perhaps the Ugandan example of staff localisation is a warning to many developing countries that at one time they may be forced to stand alone, and so they should speed up their programmes of self-reliance.

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4 THE LOCATION OF TERTIARY LEVEL TEACHING OF AGRICULTURE IN PAPUA NEW GUINEA : A VIEW FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN LAE*

Introduction

This case presents some interesting facets of decision making and of rationalisation of resources. It also reminds us forcefully of that abiding issue everywhere, that of the interrelationships of human beings in complex situations. The teaching of university level agriculture forms the substance of the case. What kinds of agriculture and where would it best be taught were the questions to which simple answers might be expected. But the politicians, the academics and the public servants had different perspectives on what was needed.

The Case Study

In his account of the development of universities in Papua New Guinea Howie-Willis concluded that the movement of the first agriculture students from the University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG) in Port Moresby to the University of Technology (UOT) in Lae in 1975 to undertake the final year of their degree course demonstrated "that the two universities could work together if they chose to". (1) with the benefit of hindsight the move referred to can be seen rather as simply one chapter in a long-running and occasionally acrimonious train of events which has effectively paralleled the history of university development in Papua New Guinea and continues to sour official relationships between the two universities in the country.

A History of the Situation

1. Phase 1 : 1964-1975

The history of decision making with regard to the teaching of degree level programmes in agriculture in Papua New Guinea falls very broadly in two main phases. The first phase, from 1964 to 1975, involved consideration of the basic rationale for the teaching of agriculture. The second phase, from 1975 to the present has seen successive attempts to put right what has increasingly come to be regarded as an unsound initial decision to split the teaching of agriculture between two widely separated campuses.

* Prepared by D W Parry, Planning Officer of the Papua New Guinea University of Technology. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes in September 1981. It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

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Between 1964 and 1974 three major reports were commissioned on higher education in general, or universities in particular, in Papua New Guinea. The first of these was the Currie Commission of 1964. The Currie Commissioners were requested by the Administrator of the Territory of Papua New Guinea to investigate and report on "the means for further developing tertiary education to meet the present and prospective needs of the Territory to serve the best interests of its people and enable them to take an active part in the social, economic, and political advancement of their country".(2) Its major recommendation was that a university be established in Papua New Guinea in Port Moresby, the administrative centre of the country and the future capital of an independent Papua New Guinea. The Currie Commissioners noted "that all indigenous witnesses (to the Commission) gave the highest priority to agricultural training". Training in agricultural techniques was seen as being "of vital importance to agricultural growth" and it was emphasised that "most thoughtful Papuans and New Guineans... hold strongly to the view that a Territory University should have a close association with agricultural education". The Commission recommended that "at an early stage the (proposed) University should appoint a Dean of Agriculture who should have as a main task the planning of agricultural education in the University".

Despite this recommendation, agriculture as such was not one of the degree programmes being mounted at the University of Papua New Guinea (founded in 1966 as a result of the Currie Report) at the time of the second major report on higher education established in late 1970 by the then Australian Minister for External Territories. The Brown Committee was requested by the Minister to advise on the rationalisation and co-ordination of post-secondary and tertiary education in Papua New Guinea to achieve a balanced growth in enrolments in the light of the supply of applicants to and the demand for graduates from post-secondary institutions and to ensure maximum economies of scarce staff and physical resources.(3) The report itself contains very few references to the teaching of agriculture at either degree or diploma level despite devoting an important section of the report to the trained manpower needs of the country.

Nevertheless, the department of agriculture at the University of Papua New Guinea requested permission to begin teaching agriculture in conjunction with the faculty of science, leading eventually to the establishment of a degree course in the subject.(4)

The Committee apparently endorsed the request thus providing UPNG with independent support for its proposal - later agreed to by the Administrator - that a committee consisting of representatives from UPNG and the Government's own Department of Agriculture be established to recommend on the mounting of a degree programme in agriculture.

This committee was expanded in 1972 to include the recently appointed Director of the Institute of Technology (IOT) in Lae (some 320 kilometres by air from Port Moresby). The inclusion of a representative from IOT was partly a recognition that it had land available on its campus for a demonstration farm and had access to a wide variety of agricultural environments

and government-run experimental agricultural stations.

The committee reported to the Administrator in August of 1972 recommending that a broadly based agriculture course be established.(5) The necessary basic science training and the more theoretical aspects of the course would be taught on the Waigani campus of UPNG and would last for three years. The Joint Committee felt, however, that Lae, the site of the IOT, was "the most logical site for a University field station", and recommended that the fourth and final year of the degree programme be located at Lae with UPNG awarding the degree.

This recommendation was accepted and at the start of 1975 the first agriculture students moved to Lae to complete their final year of degree studies. Thus ended the first phase in the development of degree teaching in agriculture in Papua New Guinea; a development which contained within it, however, the seeds of future conflict.

2. Phase 2: 1975-1981

During 1974 the third of the reports on higher education referred to earlier in this paper was presented to the Minister for Education of what was by then the self-governing state of Papua New Guinea. The Gris Committee was appointed "to advise on future university developments in order to achieve a balanced growth of academic programmes, maximum economies, and the most effective approach for university education in P.N.G."(6) Significantly this committee was chaired by the man who was to become (in 1975) the Vice-Chancellor of UPNG, Dr Gabriel Gris, and it is interesting to note that in early 1976 the faculty of agriculture of UPNG established the Agriculture Development Committee "to determine whether or not the resources of the faculty were adequate, whether or not they were being fully and economically utilised and whether or not the resources available should be increased to allow the faculty to carry out its functions effectively and efficiently".(7)

The similarities between the terms of reference of this committee and the Gris Committee reflect the influence that the latter committee had on thinking about university development in general at the time although it had made no specific recommendations concerning the development of agriculture degree courses. In fact the Agriculture Development Committee was established after only the second class of students had graduated with degrees in agriculture. There was already a feeling, it would appear, that the original decision to split the teaching of agriculture between two campuses had been an unwise one.

The Agriculture Development Committee (ADC) consisted of one representative of the agriculture faculty who became the committee chairman; two representatives of the (government) Department of Primary Industry (DPI) - formerly the Department of Agriculture; and a representative of the Office of Higher Education. The ADC, in presenting its report in July of 1976, noted that "a unified faculty would have many academic advantages" and that "because of the agricultural advantages ... recommends that the Faculty be established at Lae by 1978".(8) The response of the agriculture faculty of

UPNG to this recommendation was, to say the least, unenthusiastic!

The faculty requested the committee to seek more information including a cost effectiveness analysis. The ADC reconvened and within two months had produced a second report.(9) This report supported the principle of a unified agriculture faculty, but the actual site of unification was to depend on the teaching strategy and enrolment policies to be adopted. In May of 1977 the UPNG Council agreed in principle to the unification of the agriculture faculty. The site of unification was to be dependent on the reports of two sub-committees of the Agriculture Development Committee, the Farm and Curriculum sub-committees respectively. During 1977 the Government's own Department of Primary Industry indicated that it would be willing to allow the agriculture faculty to take over a farm in the Port Moresby area. Armed with a farm and having agreed to the so-called "modular" teaching approach proposed in the second report of the ADC report, the UPNG Council agreed at its final meeting of 1977 to unify at the Waigani campus in Port Moresby.

There remained then the question of making funds available to enable the unification to be undertaken. In essence this involved relocating the staff and facilities that had been established and were operating in Lae to Port Moresby and developing the farm site in Port Moresby referred to earlier. In addition, the agriculture faculty was keen to have an academic building erected solely for its exclusive use. Funds to enable unification to commence in 1979 were agreed to during 1978 with the major effort of unification, including erection of the agriculture building, to be undertaken in 1980.

During September of 1978 Professor G D Sims, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Sheffield in the United Kingdom, visited the University as an external adviser. This was a follow-up visit to one undertaken in 1974. His report commented on the "impressive work of the Department of Agriculture" but "greatly regretted that there are plans to break up (an) excellent and far-seeing combination of subjects by the proposed transfer of agriculture back to Port Moresby".(10) A number of reasons were given by Professor Sims for this view including concern over the possible costs of developing the farm site in Port Moresby by comparison with Lae and the importance of having easy access to varied agricultural environments at all times during the degree course. Sims argued, in fact, that in combination with the existing departments of fisheries technology, food technology and forestry, the University of Technology would have "one of the most comprehensive schools of natural resources and food science ... in any developing country in the world".

This opinion was brought to the attention of the then Minister for Primary Industry by the Acting Vice-Chancellor of the University of Technology. The advice of the Director of the Office of Higher Education, himself a member of the Agriculture Development Committee, was sought. He was careful to outline the history of decision making on the issue and the numerous factors that had been taken into account in arriving at the decision to unify at Port Moresby. Nevertheless he proposed, in view of the fact that a new professor had recently been appointed to the

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agriculture faculty and the concerns expressed by Professor Sims, that an early meeting of those involved in the issue be held to determine whether or not the position should be reassessed.

The proposed meeting did not eventuate - at least not in the way envisaged above. Indeed, the matter lapsed effectively until the arrival at the University of Technology in October of 1979 of Vice-Chancellor Mead, thus ending a two and a half year period during which there had been no substantive holder of the Vice-Chancellor's post. Shortly after his arrival in PNG, Vice-Chancellor Mead held preliminary discussions with the Minister for Higher Education, the Director of the Office of Higher Education and Vice-Chancellor Lohia of UPNG. The question of the unification of agriculture was one of a number of topics raised at these various introductory meetings. In addition, Vice-Chancellor Mead also held discussions with agriculture staff located at UOT. It was clear that, for a number of reasons, including the quality of the evidence available to those who had recommended unification at UPNG; the arguments of Professor Sims; the apparent reversal by UPNG of its earlier intention to adopt the so-called "modular approach" to agriculture teaching - a major reason for the decision to unify at UPNG (see below) - there were sufficient grounds to warrant a review of the decision.

As a result, the Minister for Higher Education, pointing in addition to the large sums involved in the proposed unification project; noting increasing concern over the viability of the farm made available to UPNG in Port Moresby and questioning the suitability of the Port Moresby location in terms of access to a variety of agricultural environments, authorised the Director of the Office of Higher Education to convene a meeting of the principal persons and organisations involved in the matter to undertake a final review of the whole issue. On the strength of this, the funds previously made available for the unification process were frozen. Discussions then commenced culminating, in May of 1981, with the decision of the National Executive Council directing unification of agriculture degree teaching at UOT and establishing an Implementation Committee to oversee the process of unification. There, for the present (1981), the matter formally rests until completion of the work of the Implementation Committee.

The Decision Situation

From the foregoing, it will be apparent that the major issue of the teaching of agriculture at the tertiary level in Papua New Guinea has involved a number of sub-issues each one being emphasised at different points in the chain of events. Four sub-issues may, however, be highlighted and will be briefly discussed in turn:

1. The level of courses: degree or sub-degree?
2. The type of graduate: science or technology based?

3. The balance between theory and practice.

4. Comparative costs.

1. The level of courses

Whilst acknowledging that agricultural training should be associated with the proposed new university, the Currie Commissioners noted "with approval" the development of the Department of Agriculture's own Agricultural College. This college, situated on the island of New Britain to the North East of the mainland of Papua New Guinea, mounted a three-year course leading to a diploma at "a level similar to those at Australian Agricultural Colleges". The Commission advocated the establishment of a broad-based pyramid of people with different levels of training and skills in agriculture estimating the need for three-year diploma holders to be "only hundreds" with only "scores or dozens" requiring the degrees essential "for high level research or administration". For the immediate future, the Commission recommended that "suitable students wishing to do so should be given scholarships to take a degree at an Australian University" whilst within Papua New Guinea itself a dean of agriculture be appointed to the proposed university to plan the development and introduction of agricultural studies at degree level "and its relation with the work being done in existing institutions".

The Commission believed "that it would be desirable for the University to have some direct association with the development of Diploma training", warning, however, that "the precise nature of such an association needs careful working out". The Commission itself offered two possible patterns for co-operation. The first option was for the affiliation of the existing (and any future) college with the University, rather than direct integration. The second alternative was "so close as to amount to amalgamation." The Commissioners declared their preference for the first option with the University awarding the diploma following a course of study at an agricultural college affiliated with it, such diplomas constituting a prerequisite qualification for entry into the degree programme mounted at the University itself.

It could be argued that the whole approach of the Currie Commission on the issue of agriculture was one of conservatism, in terms of its estimates of the numbers of degree holders required in agriculture, and caution, in terms of the effect of its proposals on the vested interests of the Department of Agriculture and its existing training programmes. Not surprisingly, therefore, as indicated earlier, a formal agriculture degree programme had still not been established by the time of the publication of the second major report on higher education in Papua New Guinea in 1971.(11)

2. The type of graduate

The broad objective of the agricultural education to be undertaken by the University in the eyes of the Currie Commissioners was "not to stay on the farm ... but to produce agricultural advisers or experts". The diploma was seen as "essentially a practical qualification" with standards "similar to those demanded of diplomates of Hawkesbury Agricultural College in Australia ... A diploma is a qualification given for the study of practical

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knowledge and its application, with some basic science included, but this is not to be confused with the higher scientific training given for a degree."(12)

The Joint Committee on Agriculture in submitting its report in 1972 recommended that the role of the faculty should be to train:

- (a) informed agriculturalists and extension workers who can assist farmers to identify and solve problems confronting them;
- (b) specialist problem solvers where problems have been identified and research application is required to solve them (... such specialist training to be carried out at higher degree level) ... and
- (c) agricultural administrators who need a sound and broad understanding of the agriculture potential of the country.

It was generally agreed by the Joint Committee that "the Agriculture course be broad in its scope and with a strong practical basis but that teaching should be in depth and should emphasise the understanding of underlying principles". The Committee was confident that "most of the courses already taught within the framework of the Science Faculty and the departments of the Arts Faculty (at the University of Papua New Guinea) that will be concerned with the training of agriculturalists are already strongly orientated towards the Papua New Guinea environment, and that most of the courses taught within the Biology and other science departments are strongly agriculturally orientated".(13)

In the light of much of the current debate on the decision to unify at the University of Technology this latter statement is significant. The somewhat restrained recommendations of the Currie Commission clashed with the more forceful views of Vice-Chancellor Gunther of UPNG on the importance of the teaching of agriculture at university level. In the absence, at least initially, of a degree programme in agriculture, Vice-Chancellor Gunther was compelled, in the words of one writer "to introduce (agriculture) to UPNG through the back door, offering options like soil science and applied botany, which might eventually lead to an agricultural science degree".(14) Partly as a result of this, significant sections of the present course are either taught for the agriculture faculty by staff of other faculties or are courses mounted by other faculties and departments and attended by agriculture students. This orientation of the present programme has led to the assertion that its graduates are "Generalist Agriculture Scientists of the highest academic and professional competence".(15)

This is in contrast to the fear that the transfer of the entire degree programme to the University of Technology would result in a reorientation of the programme resulting in the production of agricultural technologists, narrowly-trained technicians capable of performing only a low-level, short

term exploitative role in agricultural development rather than high-level, innovative, problem-solving scientists capable of revolutionising agricultural practice for the long term benefit of the country. The early utilisation of UOT as a field station tended to emphasise the practical orientation of the contribution of that institution to the degree programme and, quite clearly, influences present thinking as to the possible role of UOT and its impact on the future orientation of agriculture teaching and thus of the graduates produced.

3. The balance between theory and practice

The question of the appropriate balance between the theoretical and practical elements of the agricultural degree has surfaced in many different guises during the period. The initial discussion of the Currie Commission, as has been seen, sought to work out a satisfactory relationship between the practical orientation of the existing diploma programme in agriculture and the "higher scientific training" required for a degree. Thus it noted that "some of the practical work for a Territory degree in agriculture, when that is established, might be undertaken at the (agricultural) college".

Howie-Willis commented that the then Director of Agriculture, F C Henderson, feared that if the university were to mount an agricultural degree programme "there would be a stress on academic standards which would eliminate many potential trainees; there would be an over-emphasis on the background sciences, and insufficient stress on practical processes and extension". (16)

The Joint Committee in its 1972 report argued that "many aspects of tropical agriculture ... are often specific to environment" ... and proposed "that these more detailed aspects will be better taught in a strong agricultural environment, where access to the crops and to the farmers of the country is possible. Moreover", the Committee continued, "the teaching of a course based on the needs of Papua New Guinea demands exploration and researching of those needs. This is not feasible at Port Moresby which is a non-agricultural area of the country ... Therefore a proposal is made ... for the establishment of a field station in Lae to undertake fourth year teaching". This fourth year course was to be based on "practice and field work rather than be classroom orientated" and was to follow a "strong basic scientific training" in the first three years of the course located in Port Moresby.

The underlying assumption in the decision making of the early 1970s seemed to be that it was possible to separate the theoretical and practical elements of the course, either by giving diplomates with a practical training a theoretical, scientific "topping up" programme at the university or - which is what actually happened - by giving the more academically oriented high school leavers a science-based programme initially to be rounded off by a final practical year "down on the farm". It is tempting to argue that such reasoning was based less on what were sound professional and educational arguments than on an attempt to compromise between the

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competing desires of the Department of Agriculture for people capable of running plantations and acting as extension officers; of the UPNG to mount an internationally acceptable and rigorous academic degree programme; and of the Institute of Technology in Lae, under its ambitious new director, to get a "foot in the door" as it were by whatever means.

Indeed, no sooner had the partners implemented the compromise agreement than they began to quarrel over those very elements of compromise upon which the agreement was based. The Agricultural Development Committee established in 1976 argued, for example, that "the field is an essential laboratory for most agricultural courses". Having compared the two locations, Lae and Port Moresby, in the light of that assumption, the Committee concluded that "because of the agricultural advantages ... the Faculty should be established at Lae ... with students undertaking their Science common core course at Port Moresby and the remaining three years of the degree course with the Agriculture Faculty at Lae".(17)

That a committee established by the faculty should recommend the transfer of the faculty to Lae was not a welcome recommendation. In requesting the ADC to "comprehensively re-examine the advantages and disadvantages of each site" the Agriculture Faculty Board pointed out that it had recently agreed in principle, and for an experimental period, to what was described as a "modular approach" to agricultural education. This meant that students would be required to complete a two year certificate course at an agricultural college followed by one year of practical work in the field before enrolling in the agriculture faculty. "The introduction of this modular approach", the chairman of the ADC argued, "will have a significant bearing on the proposed changes in the organisation of the Agriculture faculty".(18)

Conceding that "the decision to split the Faculty in the first place was a poor one" the ADC recommended that "if the modular concept is accepted" unification of the agriculture faculty be at Port Moresby. If the modular concept were to be rejected, however, Lae was to be the site of unification. "Arguments to the effect that students need experience in a range of agricultural environments in Papua New Guinea /such as were relatively easily accessible from Lae/ are not valid", declared the committee. "In the four short years available to us", it continued, "we can do little more than teach the principles of agriculture on a firm science background. This knowledge can then be readily applied to any agricultural situation, and detailed knowledge of particular environments will be accumulated with field experience after graduation".(19)

In the event, the modular approach presented problems. In 1978, and again in 1979, the faculty admitted some certificate holders from agricultural colleges to the UPNG science foundation year. In both intakes, the students were selected on the basis of their performances at the agricultural college yet, in the view of one observer, "they had enormous difficulties in meeting the standard required at UPNG".(20) As a result the agriculture faculty agreed to admit high school students direct to its degree programme as had previously been the case, combining in the intake certificate holders

for a three year experimental period beginning in 1978. "In effect", argued Desphande "this was an open admission of the failure of the modular concept, the very basis of the whole exercise of unifying at Port Moresby".(21)

In one sense, the issue of a modular or non-modular approach was irrelevant. A more fundamental question concerned the quality and availability of practical experience to support the theoretical concepts being taught throughout the degree programme. There was a need, according to one senior staff member, "to enable agricultural theory to be related constantly to practice".(22) "In all respects other than the availability of a suitable farm", he continued "there is probably not much to pick and choose between the alternative sites of UPNG in Port Moresby and University of Technology in Lae. The availability of farm land has been the major problem in choice, and remains so ... You cannot teach agriculture", he concluded, "without farms any more than you can teach medicine without a teaching hospital".

The University of Technology has within its campus a nineteen-hectare farm suitable for teaching and demonstration purposes. In addition there are a number of plantations and research stations in the vicinity of Lae which can easily be visited and a large number of farms and research stations located in agriculturally varied environments which are accessible in the hinterland for visits, by day or longer, in the form of agricultural orientation tours. The farm made available to UPNG by the Department of Primary Industry in 1977 was by 1979 being seriously questioned in terms of its suitability and likely developmental costs if it was to be adequate for teaching and demonstration purposes. And access to the sort of varied agricultural environments located in or near to the University of Technology was simply not available in Port Moresby.

The notion of a split campus based on the assumption that theory and practice could be successfully taught in isolation was established at the time of the Currie Commission in 1964. It was almost 12 years before a formal, public acknowledgement was made as to the "overwhelming academic, administrative and social advantages" of a unified agriculture faculty.(23) Having established that position, however, there remained the problem of ensuring that, whatever the location, theory and practice could be successfully combined and continuously demonstrated.

4. Comparative costs

A recent study of the socio-economic rationale of higher education provision in developing countries noted that "wide differences exist in educational costs depending on curriculum types: university subjects such as agriculture, sciences and engineering" the study claimed, "are on the average more than twice as expensive relative to general subjects".(24) Indeed, as the table below indicates, agricultural subjects are on top of the relative expensiveness index:

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(Cost of all higher education subjects = 100)

Agriculture	191
Sciences	125
Engineering	111
Arts	73
Humanities	67
Social Sciences	50 (Source: Psacharopoulos 1980,3)

Whilst it would be wrong to say that money was no object, the Currie Commission presented its report at a time when the potential returns to investment by governments in higher education throughout the world were widely accepted as substantial. Added to this was the fact that the university proposed by the Commission was inevitably seen as an essential status symbol for the soon-to-be independent nation.

It was not long, however, before concern was being expressed over the high costs of the two universities. By 1973 they consumed 39 per cent of the education budget compared with 61 per cent for primary and secondary schools and the Department of Education sponsored tertiary training institutions. Per capita student costs in the universities were 84 times those in the remainder of the education system.(25) Such facts were not lost on the Government and the then Chief Minister, Michael Somare, commented somewhat disapprovingly on the situation at the 1974 Waigani seminar at UPNG.

It was against such a background, reinforced by the thrust of the Gris Committee report of 1974, that the agriculture faculty at UPNG established its Agriculture Development Committee with the purpose of rationalising its resources to ensure that it could carry out its functions effectively and efficiently. As noted earlier, the ADC produced two reports in July and September of 1976 respectively. Neither of these considered the costs involved in implementing their recommendations in any detail, despite a specific request to the committee following its first report that a "cost effectiveness analysis, based on a 5 to 10 year programme, for the unification of the Faculty of Agriculture at one campus - Lae or Port Moresby" be carried out."(26)

The committee noted that assistance was being received from "experts at the University of New England in preparation for an economic analysis of unification of the Faculty at Lae or at Port Moresby". However, the committee argued that "the detailed economics of the proposal need have no direct relevance to the recommendations of this committee".(27)

In the event, no cost-effectiveness analysis was ever done. A year after presentation of the second ADC report, however, the Acting Director

of the Office of Higher Education (OHE) did not feel that there was "sufficient difference in either of the locations to be able to make a clear rational decision on the location". He was of the opinion that on the basis of known facts "the outcome of such a cost-effectiveness analysis ... would be little more than indicative of a marginal preference for either one or the other site". Lack of such evidence made it more likely that in the end the decision would be made on other factors, largely political, rather than economic.

Once the UPNG Council had agreed in principle in May 1977 to unify the faculty at Port Moresby, a request to the Government for funds in excess of Kina 400,000 was made for the purpose of unification (28) followed a year later by a request for almost Kina 700,000 for a new agriculture building at UPNG. Such requests, simply to transfer some 20 students and associated staff from Lae to Port Moresby, and to fully develop the newly acquired farm at Port Moresby, inevitably seemed rather large to those responsible for authorising them at the national level. In November 1979 the Minister for Higher Education instructed the Director of the Office of Higher Education to convene a meeting of the principal persons and organisations involved in the issue of unification to take stock of all the pertinent facts and arguments involved. In its formal response to this initiative UOT pointed out that the UPNG Council decision to unify had been taken "without a thorough cost-effectiveness analysis of the options involved" or a "realistic assessment of the agricultural potential and development costs of the farm" at Port Moresby. (29)

5. Summary of the decision situation

Essentially the issue throughout has been where to locate the teaching of degree level agriculture in Papua New Guinea. At the time the proposal was first seriously considered by the Currie Commission the logical place was the proposed university to be established in Port Moresby. The existence of an agricultural college and the establishment and growth of an Institute of Technology resulted in compromise decisions which successive administrators at university and national levels have sought to reverse. The rationale for reversal has been different at different points in time ranging from the fundamental issue, in the initial stages, of the appropriate level of courses required by Papua New Guinea in agriculture to later considerations of the orientation of the graduates produced - once it had been agreed that a degree programme was required; the most appropriate location in terms of the balance required between theory and practice; and finally the comparative costs involved in unification.

The Organisational Setting

Five major levels of decision making can be identified in the process of decision making on agricultural education as follows:

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1. Official reports
2. The two universities
3. The faculty
4. The Office of Higher Education
5. The National Planning Office.

1. Official Reports

In retrospect, the influence of the Currie Commission on the development of tertiary level agricultural training, particularly in the early stages, cannot be overemphasised and deserves highlighting in this section on the organisational aspects of the problem. It is the view of the writer that its conservative estimate of the demand for degree holders in agriculture helped initially to delay the effective establishment of an agriculture faculty. In addition its desire to accommodate the existing structure of sub-professional training gave too many vested interests a legitimate claim to a voice in the decision making process. As a result, sometimes unseemly haggling between supposedly professional experts over the years can hardly have inspired confidence in their objectivity amongst the bureaucrats and politicians ultimately charged with recommending and deciding on what action to take. The two later reports were far less influential in their impact on the agriculture issue.

2. The Two Universities

By the early 1970s, issues such as agriculture training and others, in particular forestry, and later, applied chemistry and accountancy, continually raised the same question: "At which institution" should they be located? "The scope for rivalry" between the two universities at Lae and Port Moresby was, in the view of Howie-Willis "greater than for co-operation". "They were competing for the same resources: able students, government patronage, funds for expansion, and general public interest". (30) UPNG had a head start over its "sister" in Lae to the extent that whereas it was granted university status from the outset in 1966 it was not until 1973 that full university status was achieved by the Institute of Technology. As a result, during much of the early discussion on agricultural education it was apparent that Lae was viewed as suitable only for the more practical, and by inference at least, less important aspects of the proposed degree programme. Indeed, a good deal of the current controversy, as indicated earlier, centres on the assumption, not always merely implicit, that the University of Technology produces technologists or technicians as opposed to graduates of high academic excellence. Any analysis of the issue of the location of tertiary level agricultural education in Papua New Guinea which does not take account of these inter-institutional jealousies and ambitions would not be presenting a complete picture.

Influencing the issue further was the argument that following the establishment of UPNG in 1966 any consideration of the future of agriculture

was an internal matter for UPNG. It was suggested that since the agriculture faculty was a faculty of UPNG and since UPNG awarded the degree and funded all aspects of the degree programme, including what was taught at the University of Technology, it was well within the rights of the UPNG Council to decide if and where the faculty should be unified. This did not preclude the seeking of external advice as evidenced by the composition of the ADC. Nevertheless, that committee was appointed by UPNG and the reaction of the UPNG Academic Board to the recommendations of its first report made it clear what was expected of that committee.

This has made any real sharing of ideas on the issue between the two universities rather difficult and has made claims that recommendations were being made objectively and in the national interest sound hollow and unconvincing at times.

3. The Faculty

The physical separation of the faculty on two campuses 320 kilometres apart has been a significant factor in the issue, in particular during the more recent past. Departmental and faculty meetings have been costly to arrange and this has not made communication at the formal level easy. The informal communication so vital to any faculty has been even more difficult and has hampered discussion of the issues by those most closely involved. In such a situation suspicion and mistrust have been inevitable and have made the formulation and discussion of proposals for the development of the faculty difficult. Whereas in normal circumstances such counter-views would be accepted as part of desirable academic debate, in the circumstances they have at times been interpreted as an attempt to influence the decision on unification in a particular way and judged accordingly rather than on their own merits. The issues of modular or non-modular teaching and the farm are two examples of this problem.

4. The Office of Higher Education (OHE)

A potential mediator in the issue has been the Office of Higher Education (OHE), a division of the Department of Education. As indicated earlier, the office was represented on the ADC by Mr Bill Oostermeyer, its Director from 1975 to 1980, who provided a continuously well-informed source of information and advice and a potential meeting ground for the parties on what was becoming an increasingly sensitive issue in the late 1970s.

The Office of Higher Education was, however, bedevilled by political **indecision** as to its appropriate status, oscillating between, on the one hand, the existence of a separate Ministry of Higher Education serviced by the Office of Higher Education and, on the other, the existence of the Office of Higher Education simply as a division - and a relatively small one at that - of the Ministry of Education. In the former situation its potential influence was largely negated by a Minister who was unfamiliar with higher education issues and in a relatively minor ministry; and in the latter, and more recent situation, a much more powerful Minister who has been required to grapple with political pressure for free universal primary education and economic restraints, effectively reducing the options available

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to him. Despite this the Office of Higher Education has played a significant role in the issue since the mid 1970s and now has the delicate task of chairing the committee charged with implementing Cabinet's decision to unify in Lae.

5. The National Planning Office (NPO)

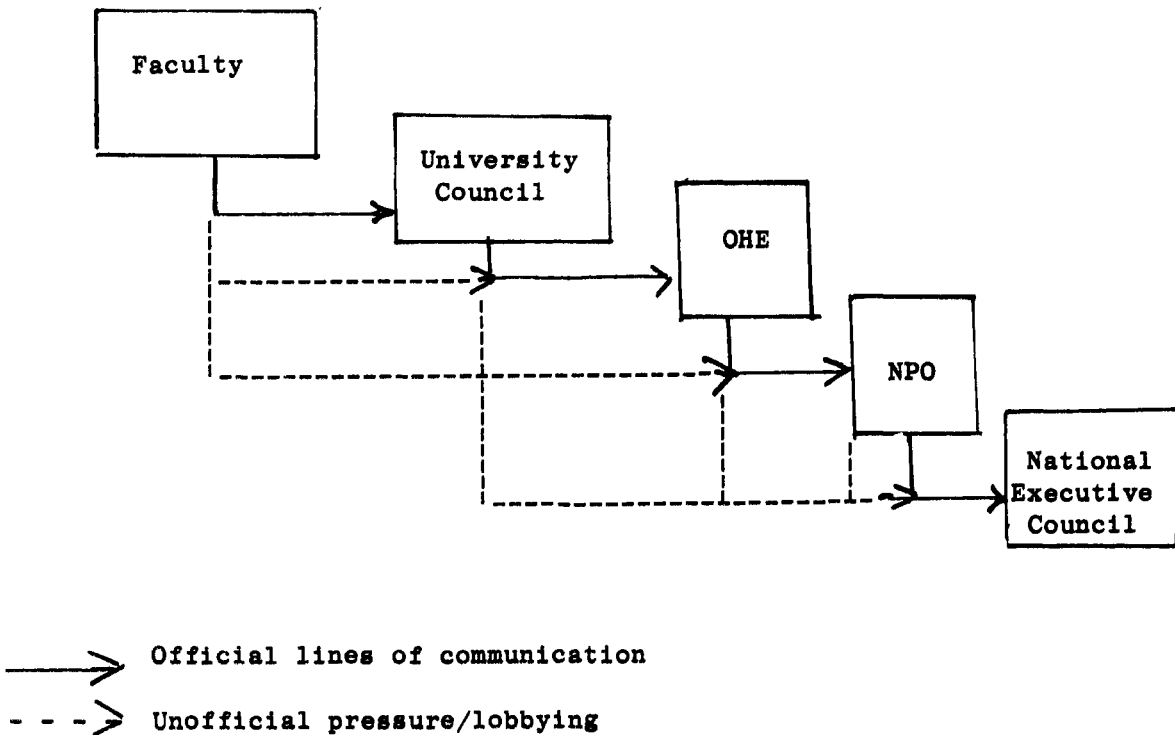
All new developments, of which unification of agriculture is one, are funded under the National Public Expenditure Plan, an annual exercise undertaken as part of the budget process. Scrutiny of these new developments is the function of the National Planning Office whose task it is to assess requests against national strategic objectives and recommend on them to Cabinet. Projects are submitted to the National Planning Office via the appropriate ministry whose authority is required prior to onward transmission to the National Planning Office. With the introduction of zero-based budgeting, and a separate system of financing for new developmental projects in 1978, the role of the National Planning Office has become increasingly important and could be crucial as the cost of implementing the May 1981 decision of Cabinet becomes clearer.

6. Summary of the Organisational Setting

Although not a permanent feature of the organisational arrangements for dealing with higher education in Papua New Guinea, a section on the Currie Commission has been included because of its influence in shaping the structure of higher education in general in Papua New Guinea. In fact, the extent of its influence was probably accentuated in the absence, initially, of a co-ordinating authority for higher education, a vacuum which was only partly filled, following the Brown Report, by the establishment of the Office of Higher Education. In addition, although not separately discussed in this section, the early influence of the Department of Agriculture has been noted elsewhere and was certainly an important factor in the eyes of the Currie Commissioners.

The relatively intimate political environment which exists in Papua New Guinea gives rise to opportunities for direct lobbying of senior public servants, politicians and even government ministers. Such access at times blurs the official lines of communication and may result in decision-making based more on personal influence and political ambition than professional and academic considerations. The formal decision-making process described in Figure 1 is thus sometimes circumvented as indicated.

Figure 1 The Educational Decision-Making Process



Conclusion

It is now 17 years since the report of the Currie Commission and its recommendations on agriculture and over five years since the first report of the Agriculture Development Committee recommending the unification of agriculture teaching at degree level at UOT. It would nevertheless be a brave man, even now and following the Cabinet decision of May 1981, who could say with certainty that unification will take place at Lae. This paper has tried to provide a number of reasons for the prolonged debate and uncertainty over the issue.

It has been argued, for example, that by comparison with other faculties and departments, the establishment of the agriculture faculty at the newly created UPNG was delayed because of uncertainty over the number of graduates required and the relationship of the faculty with existing agricultural training institutions.

A second factor has concerned continuing debate over the type of graduate required; a debate which has been influenced partly by the prior establishment at UPNG of a science faculty whose orientation towards agriculture was influenced by a Vice-Chancellor determined to establish an

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agriculture degree programme by whatever means; partly by the Department of Agriculture's desire to ensure continued production of manpower to meet its extension and other needs, and partly by UOT (through its successive Vice-Chancellors, through the report of Professor Sims, and, of course, the UPNG agriculture faculty staff at UOT itself) which could see at first hand some of the benefits of unifying at Lae.

A third factor has been the lack of data, until recently, on the comparative costs of unification at Lae, Port Moresby or indeed even a third location. As has been seen, this has not prevented recommendations and "final" decisions on unification being made! It has, however, made it easier for later participants to question the wisdom and validity of previous decisions and thus reopen the issue.

Related to this is a fourth factor. A significant feature of the events surrounding decision-making on the teaching of degree level programmes in agriculture in Papua New Guinea has been the frequent change in personnel in certain key areas. Both universities have had four Vice-Chancellors or executive heads in the first 15 years of their existence with three changes of leadership in the three years at UPNG between the years 1975 and 1977 and at UOT between 1976 and 1979. Between 1972 and 1981 there have been four holders of the post of Director of the Office of Higher Education. Given that personnel in these key positions have changed at frequent intervals during debate on the question, it has usually been possible for each new occupant to legitimately review the issues and, with apparent objectivity, propose modifications to previous ideas or decisions.

Finally, within the universities themselves and the more general structure of higher education in Papua New Guinea, there has neither been sufficient agreement nor sufficient sustained authority on the part of the various individuals or groups (official and unofficial) to ensure that once an agreement had been reached it would be speedily and effectively implemented. Too many vested interests have usually had too many opportunities to delay, obstruct and obscure the decision-making process.

Paradoxically, it could be argued, a fundamental weakness on the part of UPNG, more recently in particular, in persuading the bureaucracy to speed up the implementation process has been the continued production of agriculture graduates! If the agriculture students graduating each year are, in the eyes of the staff, good enough to graduate and sufficiently well-equipped to meet national manpower needs what advantage is there to the Government in allocating additional scarce resources merely to achieve unification? In its crudest form, what guarantee is there that K1 million spent on unification would produce an equivalent return in terms of an improved product?

An adequate definition of its product is something which eludes universities generally. Various proxies are, therefore, used to determine the value to society of its university graduates, in particular reference to the salaries enjoyed by different occupations employing graduates. Such an

approach has a number of flaws both in terms of its general theory and in terms of its particular applicability to Papua New Guinea and neither issue can be considered in detail here. However, Psacharopoulos, in the study referred to earlier, notes that whereas agricultural subjects are on top of the relative expensiveness index, agriculture graduates are at the bottom of the earnings league as indicated below:

(Earnings of all higher education graduates = 100)

Engineering	106
Social Science	104
Arts	94
Sciences	88
Agriculture	87 (Source: Psacharopoulos 1980,3)

The difficulties associated with this and other methods for assessing the contribution of different types of graduates to the nation, and the more specific contributions of different types of agriculture graduates inevitably leads to the reliance by the Government on the collective advice and wisdom of those responsible for the training of the country's graduates. Given the history of disagreement between the major groups and individuals involved in the issue of the unification of agriculture it could be argued that this approach is unlikely to lead to a satisfactory and speedy conclusion of the issue. As previously suggested no one group or individual within the higher education system to date has had sufficient prestige or power to be able to secure agreement on a course of action and its subsequent implication. Nor has a sufficiently authoritative and generally acceptable group external to the higher education system been appointed to decide the issue.

At this stage (1981), therefore, the outlook is a somewhat gloomy one. Apart from the principle of unification there would appear to be very little else upon which the two universities agree. On the evidence produced to date

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unification at either location is going to involve a good deal of expenditure. To be successful, the process of unification requires a degree of agreement and co-operation between the parties involved that hitherto has not been forthcoming. Thus despite the years of debate, the volumes of evidence produced and the recent apparently final decision on the site of unification by Cabinet, there remains a feeling that a great deal of time and effort is still required before a final solution is satisfactorily implemented.

Postscript (1983)

The implementation Committee at the direction of Cabinet met on a number of occasions and thoroughly analysed the costs involved in implementing the decision of Cabinet to unify in Lae. A report was submitted to government in early 1982 requesting funds totalling K1.5m for the unification. This would have consumed substantially more than the new funds to be made available in 1983 by government under the objective. "Training," within which all new developments at the post-primary level have to be accommodated. Not surprisingly, the proposal was not funded and the faculty remains split with no immediate likelihood of unification.

STATISTICAL APPENDIXA. Student Registrations(1): First Semester, 1980

(i)	UPNG:	Agriculture Faculty	53	
		Medical Faculty	131	
		Other Faculties	1076	
		Goroka (Teachers' College)	347	
		Campus		1607
(ii)	UOT:	All Departments		<u>1250</u>
				2857

(Source: Student Statistics - 1980
Office of Higher Education, 1981)

B. Academic Staff: First Semester, 1980

(i)	UPNG(2):	Agriculture Faculty	8.5	
		Other Faculties	<u>141.0</u>	149.5

(Source: University Academic Staffing. UPNG 1980)

(ii)	UOT:	All Departments		145.0
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(Source: Academic Staff Allocation Exercise for 1982. UOT 1981)

C. Budget Data for 1982

	<u>K '000,000</u>	
	<u>UPNG</u>	<u>UOT</u>
Teaching and Research	6.8	4.8
Academic Services	1.6	1.2
General Services	3.7	3.6
Staff Training and Development	0.6	0.3
	<hr/>	
TOTAL	12.7	9.9
	<hr/>	

(Source: "Estimates of Revenue and Expenditure for the Year Ending 31 December 1982", PNG Government, Department of Finance, Waigani, 1981)

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- Notes:
1. No distinction is made in the figures between full and part-time students. Consequently EFTS figures would be lower than those given.
 2. Comparable data for academic staff is not available for the UPNG Medical Faculty and the Goroka campus.

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5. THE TRAUMATIC BIRTH OF A NEW ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT SYSTEM: THE DIALECTICS OF CHANGE AND ADJUSTMENT IN AN INDIAN UNIVERSITY*

Introduction

Human relations in complex organisations are at the heart of this case study. How does change occur or how can it be made to occur among senior, highly qualified, experienced and articulate academics? Other matters outlined in the case include an exploration of hierarchical bureaucratic organisation in academic departments. For example, how effective are bureaucratic formulae in the identification of academic leaders? Another issue is the role of students as catalysts for change. As societies become more pluralistic all of us will be subjected to pressures from hitherto unlikely sources. How can universities accommodate to these situations particularly as universities continue to have an amateur as opposed to a professional administration? Does being a good professor automatically imply administrative or leadership ability in what are becoming increasingly difficult organisational settings?

The Case Study

In the academic management hierarchy, the department and its chairman occupy critical positions in most universities. The university academic department is a sub-system where most of the immediate and mediate purposes and goals of a university get processed and shaped into final end-products. In Indian conditions, there are, among others, two critical university functionaries who could, by both tradition and explicit sanction, indulge in monocratic exercise of authority - the Vice-Chancellor and the head/chairman of the academic department. While Vice-Chancellors come and go on a tenure basis, the chairman of the academic department enjoys a certain amount of permanency, unknown to most public organisations. As head, he is, as it were, an appointee for life. Inescapably, this office has been the target of attacks and a subject of frequent acrimony. Consequently, the proposition of introducing headship on tenure has become current. This idea, no doubt, has been unacceptable to most senior professoriate and many others found it a dubious and even an impetuous proposition. The question, however, is how a new management design survives in an otherwise traditional-conservative university system. This case study pertains to a provincial university and the enquiry attempts to focus attention on dimensions of change and adjustment and the modes of internalising and absorbing new designs and methods of management.

* Prepared by Y Raghaviah, Head of the Department of Public Administration and Chief Editor of University Administration at the Osmania University College of Arts and Social Sciences. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes in September 1981. It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

Structure and Governance Pattern

Issues Precipitating Change

The university, by and large, has been a traditional one, without any substantial changes in the academic and administrative structures and processes. The successive Vice-Chancellors had enjoyed preeminent positions and authority in the system. Except for a small group of rebel senators and intermittent variant opinion in the syndicate/executive council, most recent Vice-Chancellors in this university have been in a powerful position. The administrative sub-system has been a highly inbred wing, without any significant outside recruitment. The processes are officious, formal and rule-bound and the procedures, mostly drawn from the State Government, are outmoded and obstructive. Earlier, the academic sub-system consisted of weak deans and powerful heads/chairmen of the departments. The head enjoyed numerous administrative and academic powers. On matters of recruitment, promotions, domestic and foreign assignments, transfers, work distribution, teaching load and most other matters his word was final. This kind of arrangement led to a considerable amount of frustration among the academics of various departments. The frustration was, relatively, more in the science, engineering and technology faculties where each academic department had more than one professor. Here, it is important to mention that the academic management system was sharply dichotomised, with the professoriate constituting a distinctly superior and privileged group and the rest of the academics (readers, lecturers, research fellows) falling into a numerically large subordinate category. As stated, most of the heads of departments and some powerful additional professors tended to monopolise most privileges, were found to be steeped in bureaucratic arrogance, indulged in large-scale suppression of information, were found to be partisan, some of them even openly showing caste favouritism and nepotism and some known for their corruption. Additionally, professors enjoying headships of departments, over decades, had come to develop strong disciplinary and transdisciplinary linkages at regional, national and international levels. The adverse consequences of concentrated power and monocratic exercise of authority over indefinite periods of time by one person (head of the department) were directly felt and experienced by the ordinary teachers, additional professors, research scholars and students.

Demands for Change

There were intermittent open protests by rebel teachers and articulate research scholars. Bold senators and syndics had also been voicing concern over this invidious position of concentrated power in the hands of one person. The University Teachers' Association had also been voicing a demand for the introduction of a rotation principle. Through the speeches and announcements of the Minister for Education, it became clear that the provincial government was also eager to introduce democratisation in the university's system of management. Examples elsewhere of elected deans and rotating heads of departments came to be quoted in articles and public speeches. Again, under changed conditions of politics of higher education, some universities had implemented a rotation principle in their academic

departments. In the provincial university under study, rotation of deans and principals among the professors was already in practice.

Resistances to Change

Yet, it was clear enough that the old academic management system was so entrenched and strong that any attempt to dislodge it would have appeared a foolish venture. This kind of thinking was noticeable among the heads, the senior professors and their supporters. The whole idea was dismissed by many heads as preposterous and untenable. The Vice-Chancellor, an internal academic and a man known for his sobriety, equanimity and hesitant behaviour orientation, was also considered by many teachers as unsuitable for bringing about any drastic reform in the system. From the standpoint of the political environment, the return of the Congress(1) Party to power with massive majorities and powerful Chief Minister in the provincial government meant some respite from student agitations and campus revolts. Most of the objective conditions, both within the system and around it, tended to indicate a possibility of undisturbed perpetuation of the old academic management order.

The Course of Events

Student Protest

While there were intermittent demands for the introduction of a rotation principle over some years, few considered implementation to be imminent. But the first shot was fired when a group of students beat up several senior professors of science departments. The immediate provocation appeared to have been the selection of someone for a teaching post while overlooking the claims of someone else who had already been working in the department concerned. It was thought that this selection was one more instance of the head's favouritism. The above incident led to a widespread protest and the resignation of professors from the administrative charge of departments. It was also rumoured that some other disgruntled professors were involved in instigating the beating incident.

Academic Protest

The second important event was that a delegation of the University Teachers' Association met the Vice-Chancellor and demanded the introduction of a rotation principle. The Teachers' Association which had been pleading for the implementation of a rotation principle for some years, intensified the movement after the students had beaten up the professors. Teachers and students also began to talk more freely about the desirability of introducing a new system of management. The deciding factor came when a group of student leaders began a hunger strike, demanding the immediate implementation of the rotation principle. It was again openly alleged that some disgruntled teachers were behind the hunger strike. The situation became grave after a week-long hunger strike and the syndicate/executive council took a quick decision to introduce the rotation of headships with immediate effect. However, it could come into effect only after about four months when the re-constituted senate approved the syndicate's earlier decision.

Dialectics of Change and Adjustment under Headship on Tenure

The then statutory position was such that if an academic department had a professor, he alone could be the head of department. In other words, a reader or a lecturer could occupy the position of head of department only when the department did not have a professor among its staff members. In departments with more than one professor, the most senior professor remained the head till he retired from service. The position was similar in departments without professors, that is, the most senior reader or lecturer held the office of head of department.

Principle of Rotating Leadership

The introduction of rotation principle gradually brought some changes but with considerable restraint. According to the new rules, rotation of headship would be only among professors if there were more than one professor in a department. This rule sealed the fate of all non-professors in departments with more than one professor on the staff. In a department with only one professor it was stipulated that the next most senior reader would be entitled to be the head, subject to him fulfilling qualifications laid down for a professor. In a department where there was no professor and only one reader, he could be head subject to him fulfilling the qualifications for the reader. This rule was also made applicable to departments without readers in the sense that a lecturer who fulfilled the qualifications laid down for readership could become the head. The situation now obtaining is that there are several lecturers who do not fulfil the qualifications laid down by the University Grants Commission for readership and there are several readers (usually those who have become readers by internal promotion) who do not fulfil the qualifications laid down for professorship. Thus, there are two sets in each of the cadres - readers who are eligible to become professors and those who are not eligible and the same for lecturers. The rules further stipulate that the appointment of a teacher to the office of headship is on the basis of selection.* The appointment is to be for a period of two years, extendable by one more term. With these rules, the rotation principle became operative.

Identification of Leaders

The old heads were asked to collect lists of eligible candidates and send them to the Registrar with their comments. This policy gave some old heads the opportunity to make last minute bids to retain their positions of power. To illustrate, a candidate could be declared ineligible if he did not strictly have marks of 55 per cent (B+) at Master's degree level. If a candidate had more than ten years teaching experience, out of which he had four years and nine months postgraduate teaching, he would be held ineligible, as he had three months less than five years. To give an example, in one department, three senior reader applicants for the office of headship were rated ineligible by the old head - one had 0.5 per cent too few

*See Appendix I for the qualifications laid down by the University Grants Commission for different posts which were adopted by several universities.

marks for an MA degree, obtained a quarter of a century previously, the second did not have experience of guiding PhD scholars although one of his research scholars submitted his doctoral thesis a couple of months later and the third was made ineligible since he had 3 per cent too few marks for an MA. All three were otherwise eminently qualified. Interestingly enough, it was said that some old heads wrote such comments as "except me, no one is qualified to be the head". The lists of eligible and ineligible candidates were, however, subjected to independent scrutiny by the Vice-Chancellor, the Registrar and the syndicate. In several instances the observations of the old heads, mostly based on legal and procedural trivia, were set aside and orders were issued for the rotation of headship. The pertinent point is that the procedure invoking the services of the old heads in identifying eligible candidates was an attempt to assuage their feelings of deprivation, and to assure them of continued privileged status in the system.

Emergent Structure of Leadership

The introduction of the rotation principle led to the emergence of three categories of heads of departments. The first one, numerically small, consisted of old heads who could retain their positions since no other teacher was qualified. A category of new professors, mostly younger people and several of them recent recruits, displaced the old heads. The third category consisted of several senior readers who took over from the old heads in single-professor departments. So there were now old professor heads, new young-professor heads and reader heads of departments.

Support Structural Changes in the System - Formal and Informal

This management system introduced at the academic department level warranted several other important changes in the total system. Apart from this, the new management system, based on headship on tenure, resulted in certain natural changes, both in the system and in the processes of administration. In the first category of official concomitant changes came the bifurcation of the powers of the head of the department.

Bifurcation of Power

While in the old system the head was the chairman of the Boards of Studies (postgraduate and undergraduate), in the new system the chairmanship passes to another member of the department. The Boards of Studies which are concerned with syllabi, nomination of examiners and other academic matters have been generally given over to the old displaced heads. The old heads have retained their offices because of this responsibility. Departmental committees, consisting of professors and representatives from readers and lecturers, have been constituted for each department, with the head as the chairman. The departmental committee will take decisions on all departmental matters - academic, administrative and financial - and the head has to implement them. Technically, the departmental committee is all-powerful and the head merely has to implement its decisions. In addition, departmental councils, consisting of some teachers and student representatives, have been constituted for each department to take decisions pertaining to matters affecting students.

Decentralisation of Power

Alongside the new academic management system, substantial decentralisation of powers has also been introduced. The deans of the faculties and the principals of the university campus colleges have been armed with new administrative, academic and financial powers. While the old heads dealt directly with the Registrar and the Vice-Chancellor on most matters, the new heads are brought firmly under the tutelage of the deans and principals.

Responses to Shift in Power

The informal changes which have come into the system as a result of the official changes began to manifest themselves rather gradually. Firstly, the old displaced heads became extremely self-conscious; some stopped talking to the new heads, some maintained the minimum level of official communication, some collided head-on with the new heads. A few transferred full powers in the sense of handing over books, equipment, telephone, stationery, bank account, official files (both routine and confidential) and some others held on to them under conditions of deadly verbal acrimony before finally surrendering. Secondly, four known staff splinter groups have emerged in departments: one supporting the old head, the coterie of the new head, the group that supported the aspirant future head and a neutral rebel group, depending on the number of staff. Floor crossings and new configurations have become common. Thirdly, the Vice-Chancellor and the Registrar, by and large, have tended to support and protect the new heads through various decisions against different destructive onslaughts. As a passing reference, it may be mentioned that a group of senior displaced heads proclaimed that the new system would come crashing down within three months. This, however, has not happened even after two years. Fourthly, several departments, under the unified leadership of permanent heads, have acquired big research projects, national and international collaboration schemes, outside-funded sophisticated laboratories, buildings, air-conditioners, costly furniture, equipment, training centres and specialised academic teaching programmes. Most of these projects and schemes provide large sums of money and opportunities for extravagant discretionary spending on the part of the heads. Questions have been raised as to who should be the directors of such on-going programmes under the new system. The situation is rather complicated in the sense that some are personal projects and some are given to the departments. Under the old system the head became director for all the programmes in the department, without relation to his specialisation. It was contended that for all projects given to departments the head should be the ex-officio director. But the university has taken care to retain most of these projects, schemes, programmes and centres with the old heads. As a result, several old heads have become chairmen of Boards of Studies, retained projects and also membership of various local and national committees. As things stand, non-professors cannot be members, however eminent they may be, of a committee at the national level, including the committees of the University Grants Commission. As the deans and principals, armed with the newly transferred powers, tend to bureaucratise the system from below, the new heads come under a system of multiple bosses - the dean, the principal, the Controller of Examinations, the Registrar and the Vice-Chancellor.

Finally, a practice of inviting all professors to the meetings convened by the deans has come into vogue, so that in meetings convened by the deans, the new heads, the old heads and other professors are invited as a policy.

Discussion and Summary of Observations

The birth of a new management system, based on tenure of headship in an otherwise traditional bureaucratic type of university is something of an innovation. Although there is considerable support from various quarters, the university organisation, its internal processes and the general ethos of imposing power oligarchies are hardly conducive to absorbing and internalising the new management system. The birth of the system itself has been traumatic in the sense that it was started by student agitation. It is a management system which was introduced rather abruptly, especially in the absence of any serious preparatory studies. For one thing, the principle of tenure of headship is almost wholly foreign to the Indian higher education tradition. It appeared, prima facie, a preposterous proposition for an otherwise thorough-going authoritarian-ascriptive culture. In most developing societies experience shows that exogenic and exotic systems and contrivances when hastily introduced led to unwholesome results. Hence, the usual a priori forecasting would be that the new management system will either fail or produce negative consequences for the total system.

However, the case under review demonstrates in unmistakable terms that an imposed new management system can work well enough if it is introduced with skill, sagacity and practical wisdom. Here, it will be in order to briefly examine the reasons for the successful implementation of the rotation of headship principle.

Issues in the Implementation of Innovation

Firstly, as the rotation principle came to be introduced efforts were made to bifurcate the powers of the head of the department for the first time. It led to the collapse of unified and monocratic types of management at the departmental level. To be more explicit, the spirit of tenure of headship has destroyed that obsessive and dysfunctional concentration of power and authority in the head of the department. At the same time, the displaced old heads have developed less hostile inclinations since they have been made chairmen of Boards of Studies. Secondly, the departmental committees have brought significant changes to the whole ethos of the functioning of academic departments. Senior and junior teachers have found the departmental committees useful instruments for articulation and getting things done more honourably than ever before. Younger professors and readers as heads of the departments under the new system mean more effective control by superiors over management processes. Hence, the Vice-Chancellor and the Registrar are in a more commanding position than when dealing with seasoned and entrenched old heads. Fourthly, the creation of departmental councils with teachers and student representatives has provided an opportunity for other teachers to participate (especially those left out from departmental committees). In this way, both departmental committees and councils have absorbed a

significant number of teachers and given them an opportunity to participate in some sort of management. Fifthly, after about a year, it can be seen that the rotation principle is satisfactory since many powers and privileges still remain with the old heads (their opposition having slowly died down); the deans and principals have gained considerably with new and inexperienced heads depending on them for information and guidance; senior teachers aspire to headships which are now just round the corner; and the old heads and big professors continue to enjoy their old privileges and discretions pertaining to projects, schemes and programmes, even though these privileges are transitory. Finally, the restructuring process and the pattern of power dispersion has been such that the whole academic system has benefited under a new democratic spirit for the first time in the history of the university. The most significant aspect of the change has been the accommodative and adjustive elements introduced almost simultaneously to absorb angry old heads into the new system. It is a classic case of a change which was not planned but has become a profound reality, to the utter surprise and bewilderment of many. In view of its unplanned and sudden character, the change has produced serious and traumatic disturbances to all concerned. While it created profound disturbances initially, the masterly way and the care with which it has been implemented brought down opposition rather quickly. So much so, the change has come to be accepted gradually and internalised. The conclusion appears to be clear: the process of change and development can be accelerated and adequately internalised by well conceived and carefully implemented new designs, institutions and practices and by avoiding drastic breaks from the past. It is even more important to note that the capacity of a system to absorb change is far greater than hesitant social engineers envisage.

APPENDIX I

Qualifications for the Posts of Professors/Readers/Lecturers

Professors

1. At least a Second Class Master's Degree in the subject concerned with 55 per cent (B+) marks in aggregate from an Indian university or an examination recognised as equivalent thereto from any other recognised university.
2. A research degree of a doctorate standard and/or published work of high standard.
3. At least ten years' teaching experience, of which at least five years shall be teaching postgraduate classes and some experience of guiding research.

Readers

1. At least a Second Class Master's Degree in the subject concerned with 55 per cent (B+) marks in aggregate from an Indian university or an examination recognised as equivalent thereto from any other recognised university.
2. A research degree of a doctorate standard or published work of equivalent standard.
3. At least five years' teaching experience at the university or in a recognised college with publications of a high standard.

Lecturers

1. At least a Second Class Master's Degree in the subject concerned with 55 per cent (B+) marks in aggregate from an Indian university or an examination recognised as equivalent thereto from any other recognised university.
2. A research degree of a doctorate standard or published work of equivalent standard.

6. A CASE STUDY IN INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING*

Introduction

This case study examines the substantial efforts which have been made by one college of advanced education in the area of institutional planning and organisational development. The methodology of the case study is briefly outlined and the characteristics of the college are described. The planning and development activities of the college are described in detail. The issues faced by the college are examined. For example, the environment for innovation is considered in terms of the role of key people and the situations and problems faced prior to the innovations and the impetus for innovation. The staff development for acceptance of the innovations is examined. Finally an evaluation is made of the innovations at the college and some conclusions are drawn from the case study.

The Methodology of the Case Study

This case study was undertaken to illustrate certain issues in planning and development. College A was particularly suitable for study because its management had demonstrated an awareness and an understanding of many of the issues which appear in the planning literature. While the changes achieved to date at College A do not represent the implementation of a full planning model, College A is probably in the forefront of planning innovation in Australia.

For the purposes of the case study, a range of documentation was collected and analysed and an extensive set of interviews was undertaken.

The aim in conducting the interviews was to discover the events which had taken place, the problems which had arisen and the extent of participation in the planning process. Therefore, it was necessary firstly to interview senior management as they were most likely to have the best knowledge of the events and secondly to interview middle level and junior staff in order to gauge the extent of participation in the planning process.

* Prepared by G W Jackson, the Australian National University. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes (in May 1981). It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management

In order to arrange a suitable range of interviews, the chief executive of College A was given a list of the type of staff who seemed most appropriate for interview and the chief executive then selected the particular individuals. However, during the interview process at College A, several other staff members were suggested by interviewees as worthy of being interviewed and these staff members were also interviewed.

A total of twelve interviews were undertaken at College A and the interviewees included: the chief executive (director), two deputy directors (in office at different periods), an acting dean of a school, an associate dean, two programme heads, a lecturer, the head of a service division, the Registrar, the senior financial officer and the President of the Academic Staff Association.

College A - Institutional Characteristics

The college has been in existence for approximately ten years and is located on the edge of a large country city (population approximately 80,000 people). Student enrolment is approximately 3,000 equivalent full-time students. The schools within the college are engineering, applied science, business, arts and teacher education.

When staff were asked to describe the features of the college, the answers invariably referred to the regional nature of the college. There was wide agreement that the college existed to serve the large rural region in which it was located. In fact, the college serves an area much larger than its region. Due to a considerable involvement in external studies, the college had students spread over a large part of Australia.

Other characteristics of the college as seen by the staff include:

1. a strong vocational emphasis in the curricula;
2. a unique organisational structure (which will be discussed later);
3. a high proportion (approximately 50 per cent) of students who are external students;
4. a substantial involvement in continuing education;
5. aggressive leadership at the helm of the college.

The administrative structure of the college is unique and the process by which the structure was achieved will be described in greater detail later in this case study. As a result of an organisational review, departments were abolished and a programme structure was introduced.

The college consists of a number of schools, and each school is led by a dean. In each school there are three positions of associate dean, i.e.

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1. associate dean (academic)
2. associate dean (personnel)
3. associate dean (resources).

The practice has been for the dean to carry responsibility for one of the three associate dean positions, so that there are in fact only two associate deans in each school.

A programme consists of one or more awards (a degree, a diploma etc.). For example, a programme may consist of one or more awards in electrical engineering. Each programme is led by a programme head. The programme heads were described as being "responsible for getting the best possible programme of studies for the students" and "for student progress". On the other hand, the programme head was described as "not responsible for finance, course planning and review, or staffing".

These latter areas were described as "the responsibility of the dean". For example, one interviewee stated, "In the programme structure, control of personnel is taken by the dean, rather than by the programme head."

The programme concept at this college involves a system of contracting in which academic staff make offers to teach in any programme of the college. While top management see the system as emphasising "individual responsibility with required consultation", one interviewee observed that "the programme concept has led to a strong degree of vagueness in belonging". This is a reference to the fact that staff no longer belong to a department which is based on a discipline.

In considering models for institutional planning, an important consideration is the style of the institutional leadership and the involvement of the leadership in the planning process. The institutional leadership tends to be synonymous with the person of the chief executive, although this depends on how dominant a role the chief executive plays.

In this college, the dominant role of the chief executive is without doubt. The situation was reflected by one interviewee who stated, "The chief executive makes this place different. He has got a very pronounced leadership style. It could be called an authoritarian style. The place has developed because of that". Another observer stated, "The chief executive is the decision maker. There is a fair amount of consultation, but there is one decision maker within a school and one within the college". When describing the college leadership style, words frequently used were authoritarian and autocratic. However, some observers saw a change over the last two to three years towards "a collegiate style of management", with "more people now involved in the decision making process". Other observers saw no change in the leadership style, but rather, an entrenchment of the earlier style.

The college has devoted substantial effort to a consideration of the aims of the college. This is illustrated by the fact that it is one of the few colleges in Australia, if not the only college, to have developed a mission statement. The mission statement appears in the college handbook.

The Developments in Planning and Development at College A

The college undertook an organisational review towards the end of the 1970s. Subsequent to the review, a new organisational structure was established, a mission statement was developed and a new basis for resource allocation was introduced. In addition, some preliminary attempts were being made at institutional evaluation during the early 1980s.

The relationship between the reorganisation and the planning system of College A was described by one senior staff member as follows: "One has fallen out of the other. We reorganised the place, we set a mission, we set an organisation to meet identified needs falling out of that mission and set up our planning and review system which fell out of that".

An Organisational Review Committee (ORC) was established and this Committee met frequently. The ORC received reports from external consultants and from schools within the college. Surveys of community attitudes towards the college were conducted. Within the individual schools, other committees examined the activities of those particular schools. The College Council was kept informed on the organisational review although the Council was not involved with the methodology of the review. A senior staff member stated, "Council set the general parameters - efficiency and effectiveness - as the goals we had to aim at".

The mission statement of the college was described by staff as "a statement of where we ought to be going", and as "a statement of direction". A number of the interviewees saw the development of the mission statement as a consequence of overseas study undertaken by the chief executive. One interviewee stated, "the chief executive did a doctorate in educational administration - that is what led to it /the mission statement/ - he got very much into the whole notion of planning, organisation of resources, rationalisation, alternative models etc. The Registrar of the time did a similar study at the same place - so you had two of the senior administrators who were interested in organisational change".

While these experiences may have led to the production of the mission statement, it also appears that the mission statement was a by-product of the organisational review. This is illustrated in the words of one senior staff member who said, "It /the mission statement/ really fell out of the organisational review. The first question was asked, organisation for what? And we had to have some guiding principles".

In the light of the above and in light of other comments made, there is no doubt that the chief executive was the driving force behind the production

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of the mission statement. This heavy involvement of the chief executive in an important part of an institutional planning process is significant. The literature on planning lays great stress on the importance of such involvement by the chief executive.

While the chief executive was the driving force in the production of the mission statement, there were inputs from various sources including, to varying degrees, Council members and staff, plus inputs from surveys of the community, professional groups and students.

The interviewees showed a high degree of awareness of the mission statement. Acceptance of the mission statement appeared to be strongest amongst senior academic staff and less strong amongst non-academic staff and junior academic staff.

The allocation of staff resources within the college is described as being on a needs basis. For example it was stated that, "we determine needs through determining teaching programme needs - then we allocate existing staff members to those needs on a preference/bid to teach system. When we find deficiencies, we obtain new staff or retrain existing staff". The basis of the system is the needs of the programme and offers to teach which can be made by an academic to any programme in the college.

For the allocation of equipment resources, there exists a College Resources Group which contains representatives from all major areas of the college. The College Resources Group is an advisory committee to the chief executive. The group includes the associate dean (resources) from each school plus senior financial officers of the college. The deans of the schools make bids to this group for equipment by project. A project, such as an accounting laboratory, is funded, rather than a particular item of equipment. The projects are given a priority for funding, by the College Resources Group.

The emphasis in the resource allocation process, is on demonstrated need and in no way is there a use of historical/incremental approaches.

Senior staff of the college appeared to be well aware of the importance of evaluation but the efforts in this area were only in the early stages. The college had recently established a College Review Committee to act as an evaluation team, under the chairmanship of the deputy director.

The Issues for College A - the Environment for Innovation

A number of factors in the environment of the college were seen as leading to the organisational review and associated developments. These factors include:

1. demographic changes, including an increase in the proportion of adult students and an increase in the proportion of external students;

2. concerns about the efficiency and effectiveness of the departmental structure of the college;
3. a view that there was a need for systematic planning which would increase efficiency and effectiveness in the college;
4. a recognition that growth (in higher education) was to cease and therefore the operations of the college would change. One senior staff member stated, "We recognised that things were going to become difficult for higher education. The general policy of the Council was one of efficiency. How does one do that? Well you look at your structure".

Probably as important, if not more important, than any of the above-mentioned environmental factors was the positive role of the chief executive. The influence of the chief executive was described by one staff member as follows, "If the chief executive hadn't been as forceful in insisting that it go through, it could easily not have occurred because there was strong opposition in various areas and there was strong opposition to some of the recommendations, for example, the revised structure".

Some of the staff believe that the ideas implemented at the college have their source in the university where the chief executive undertook his studies. Other staff members believe that the ideas had no particular source or that the ideas were very much locally developed. There is some truth in each of these beliefs. The situation is best illustrated in the words of the chief executive. When asked whether there was any one institution which gave him the ideas that had been implemented at the college, he at first said no and then said, "I guess the answer is yes and the university /_where I studied_/ is that place, but not in the sense that it gave me a model. I was appalled by the lack of planning /_at that university_/ . They had all sorts of models but nothing was integrated and I could see the reason for that. There was no commitment at the top. That university showed that if you are going to have any sort of planning model, it must be one that is integrated, which has a degree of commitment from the senior staff and which is not to be used for internal political purposes".

The college did not provide a formal programme of staff development for the innovations which took place. The absence of a programme was seen by some staff as a contributing factor to the resistance which developed amongst some of the staff.

However, while there was no formal pre-preparation, many staff saw "the whole exercise as being an important staff development activity". Training was seen as being provided through participation. Staff had the opportunity to attend numerous meetings and various documents were issued for comment. In summary, it could be said that rather than having staff development for the innovations, there was staff development available through participation in the process of innovation.

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An Evaluation of the Innovations at College A

In favour of the innovations there were arguments which relate to new attitudes amongst the staff, improved structure, improved decision making and better allocation of resources. New attitudes are reflected in such statements as "A lot of people are now in a review frame of mind and that is an achievement for the organisation" and "the principle benefit was raising people's awareness of the need for significant endeavour in these areas - it required people at all levels to do a lot of thinking". In the opinion of one senior staff member, "the greatest success is that we are now starting to get a degree of commitment for planning right down to the individual staff member. For example, the Staff Professional Profile structure is leading to a degree of commitment". The Staff Professional Profile is a document which may be completed annually by a staff member and it describes the staff member's proposed professional activities for the coming year.

The programme structure is seen as successful in terms of the students' interests. It was stated that, "the students can clearly identify with a student-oriented Programme Head". Another benefit arising out of the new structure was the creation of "centres". These centres are multi-disciplinary groups of academics who work on a particular topic. It was suggested that the setting up of the centres had encouraged more applied research.

There was a feeling that the decision making process had been clarified and that decisions were being made by smaller groups. It was stated for example, that "you can identify the people who are responsible for decisions". The decisions may not always have been popular but it seems clear that decisions are now made by more clearly identified individuals.

Finally, on the favourable side, there appears to be greater flexibility in the allocation of resources. Thus it was stated "it is much easier to re-direct resources".

As against these favourable aspects, there were a number of unfavourable aspects. The unfavourable aspects may be summarised as: excessive concern with structure, the influence of political considerations, problems of participation and the lack of a suitable model for planning.

The concentration on structure was illustrated by the following observations: "I was concerned that the organisational framework was coming up first", "The problems of the college were classified on a grid - then it was announced that we were only interested in one of the nine elements of the grid i.e. the college and (its) structure", "It ended up by merely dealing with structural tinkering in terms of organisation and management of the system and it left out a whole host of other areas, not the least of which was the quality of the staff/student interface - it only addressed itself to structural elements" and "The planning effort has concentrated on one of the nine elements in a corporate plan".

Planning is a political process and the importance of political

considerations were illustrated by such statements as, "I was concerned that the College Committee Review which was responsible for the planning, had vested interests in the outcome of the planning" and "there were hidden agendas in the planning process i.e. if you are planning for change, people are going to try and maximise their own benefit. This was partly overcome by bringing in the visiting teams who were skilled in organisational development".

The literature on planning suggests that if planning is to be successful, it should be widely participative. However, the achievement of widespread participation can be difficult and to some extent, this was a problem at College A. For example it was stated that "there has been a problem in getting feedback from staff - most comes from a few people".

Probably the most significant weakness in the innovations was either the lack of a suitable model for planning, or the lack of agreement on the model and the sharing of understanding on the content of the model. It was clear that a few senior staff had an understanding of a model which they believed the college was using. However this information had apparently not been generally shared. The situation was summarised by one senior staff member who said, "We have yet to develop satisfactorily a planning model. We have yet to develop a clear understanding, particularly amongst senior staff, of the precise nature of long-term planning. The facts of the matter are that we haven't yet developed a model for long-term planning".

Conclusions Arising from the Innovations at College A

Models

This case study has illustrated that it is important that an institution should have an agreed model for planning and development, that the content of the model should be widely understood and that due attention should be given to carrying out each stage of the model. At College A there were at least a few members of senior management who had a clear idea in their own mind as to what constituted an appropriate model. The activities of the college suggest that over time, efforts were being made to implement one or more models. It is not entirely clear that there was a single, generally agreed and detailed model. The case study suggests that there is a risk of excessive concentration on one part of a model to the possible exclusion of other parts of the model.

The existence of a model at College A is suggested by the following two statements made independently by two of the most senior staff of the college. It will be recalled however, that another equally senior member of staff has been quoted previously as saying that the college lacked a model.

"There is a model which we are using. It includes:

environment

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assumptions

objectives - definition of, quantification of

activities

selection amongst activities

implementation of activities

assignment of responsibilities

evaluation

outcome identification."

The second statement which suggested the existence of a model was as follows,

"Planning is an essential part of the college's work. It has to be structured planning and it has got to be structured around:

a statement of purpose

a statement of activity

implementation of that activity

and review of that activity

- the classic planning steps. They work."

The above comments have related to models. However, it is interesting to note that in the eyes of the staff, the model or lack of a model, was not really an issue. Other matters took a higher priority in their minds, as illustrated by the following comment, "The model wasn't under attack. The implementation and the outcomes of the model were under attack".

Some Elements of a Model

It is difficult to place a value on the existence of a mission statement, but such a statement seems to be a useful element in a model for planning and development. There was certainly evidence at College A of a high degree of awareness of the mission statement and it appeared that the mission statement was a useful point of reference for senior staff.

A fundamental element in a model for planning and development is evaluation. It seems essential that if, for example, the success of the institution is to be assessed, some form of evaluation should take place. Evaluation is one of the final stages in a model for planning and development and there is a likelihood, as happened at College A, that it will be one of

the last activities to be undertaken. The important point is that it should happen and that it should be part of the model.

The Role of the Chief Executive

The literature on planning lays great stress on the need for the chief executive to be involved in the planning process and to be enthusiastic about planning. While this case study has dealt more with organisational planning and implementation than with strategic planning, there is clear evidence of the importance of the involvement and enthusiasm of the chief executive. Such organisational change as occurred at College A, could only have occurred because of the role played by the chief executive.

Participation

The literature on planning also stresses the value of wide participation in planning. The experience of College A suggests that wide participation may be difficult to achieve, in spite of extensive opportunity being given for participation. Participation brings with it expectations by the participants that the final outcome or decisions will match their wishes. This is often not to be, and so disappointment and even bitterness may result. The changes at College A certainly resulted in a range of reactions amongst the staff, sometimes accompanied by strong feelings of opposition. Those who seek to produce change must be prepared to accept that feelings and emotions will be roused.

During a period of change, the parties affected will naturally seek to protect their own interests. While participation by the parties affected is desirable, there is also a role for independent parties, such as visiting experts, who can bring a more objective view to the situation.

Staff Development for Change

The very process of change may constitute a staff development experience. However, consideration should be given to the provision of formal preparation before the change process begins. This preparation may improve the quality of the participation and may reduce the opposition which the change will produce.

The shortcomings in our knowledge of change are well illustrated in the following statement which was made by a senior staff member of College A, "Unfortunately, the literature is not strong enough on the difficulties that arise. The sheer inbuilt inertia, the behaviour of people in organisations - people are obsessed with their power, authority, security and prestige. We are not going to get very far unless we integrate the difficulties and oppositions into the planning process".

7. STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR LOCALISATION - THE UNIVERSITY OF PAPUA NEW GUINEA*

Introduction

The emphasis in this case is on what issues have to be addressed by university policy makers when planning a comprehensive staff development programme. To be effective such a programme must include activities for every staff member, from the point of recruiting suitable persons for employment and providing appropriate induction programmes, to ongoing activities which help staff members maintain efficiency throughout their career as well as continued commitment to the institution. The writer points to the diversity both in the types of skills required in a modern educational institution and to the wide range of training opportunities which needs to be evaluated for possible use. Far-sighted and effective planning is essential. A careful reading of the case will reveal many points for discussion about staff development.

The Case Study

The University of Papua New Guinea, which was established in 1965, is a rapidly growing institution of national importance in Papua New Guinea (PNG). The establishment of the University was a result of a report by the Currie Commission (1964) which recommended that there should be a university within the country to produce the high-level manpower the country needed most. The university offers a matriculation level preliminary year and courses leading to degrees in arts, economics, education, law, medicine, agriculture and science. Since its establishment, the University of PNG has grown into a very large and complex institution within the context of the country it has to serve. The teaching itself commenced at the Port Moresby show grounds in 1966 with 57 students enrolled in the preliminary year. Of these 57 students only 36 qualified for matriculation at the end of the year. The teaching of the first undergraduate courses in arts, law and science students (83) commenced in 1967, the first six Papua New Guineans in arts (education), and science graduated in 1970. But even then, the 1970 total student enrolments had grown to 772. In 1980, a total of 1,684 was reached.

In 1980, the University of PNG had about 200 teaching and research staff and some 716 administrative, library, technical, maintenance and campus staff. Currently almost 97 per cent of the non-academic staff are indigenous to PNG. In contrast, most of the academic positions are still occupied by overseas staff who come mainly from the Commonwealth countries and the USA. The University of PNG may be considered a small institution in terms of

* Prepared by Tuarong Tioti, University of Papua New Guinea. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes (in September 1981). It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

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staff members compared with some other institutions: for example larger government departments or statutory authorities.

The occupational specialisations of the 716 non-academic staff (of whom some 140 are cleaners and campus labourers) encompass an extremely diverse range of employment skills. These include executives experienced in the administration of a tertiary institute, the highly specialised technical and support staff required to service the different academic departments and the broad span of professional and trades staff essential to a university which must provide accommodation for the majority of its students and staff. The non-academic side of the University could be basically summed up in Table 1.

From Table 1, a general frame of reference can be seen for the practice of localisation at the University of PNG. One can also see a high degree of specialisation amongst the non-academic staff and as such a broader occupational diversity than probably most government departments and statutory authorities in the country. As a matter of national policy, since the establishment of the University, Papua New Guineans have been appointed to any advertised vacancy for which they are qualified. Of course, during the first few years after its establishment, there were some problems of attracting local staff, due mainly to the absence of knowledge of a university, of its role, and of what employment opportunities it could provide. There was a lack of integrated physical facilities, with the university's administrative and teaching departments fragmented in several locations (since there were still no permanent buildings on the present site, it was necessary to use any available buildings nearby). Due to these reasons, the understanding of a university being a potential employer to the general workforce was very low.

Until recent years, many school leavers had tended to view service with the Government Public Service as the most desirable form of career employment. Their choice reflected in part the prestige and influence of government departments in the experience of school leavers and families, their inadequate knowledge of other employment opportunities, and a lack of commitment to the training of local staff for all levels of employment by many private firms.

By 1971, six years after its humble beginnings in the sheds of the Port Moresby show grounds, the University was situated in a fine complex of buildings, beautiful flowers and gardens on three campuses - the main campus at Waigani (Port Moresby), the faculty of medicine at Taurama (Port Moresby) and the Goroka Teachers' College at Goroka in the Eastern Highlands Province. This fine complex of buildings does attract some esteem in the eyes of persons seeking new or alternative employment. So the problems of recruiting staff from within the country are no different from those encountered by any other employers.

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TABLE 1

<u>Department/Section</u>	<u>Functional Units</u>
Central Administration	Senior Executives: Vice-Chancellor Deputy Vice-Chancellor Registrar, Bursar Planning Office, Staff Academic Appointments, Staff Development, Travel, Mail, Switchboard, Printery, Records, Audio-Visual, Photographic Computer Publication Units
Academic Administration	Student Admissions, Examinations, Faculty Secretariat, Records Units
Student Services	Dean of Students, Counsellor, Doctor and Nursing Staff
- Catering section	Superintendent, Cooks, Stewards, Scullery, Cleaning Units
Buildings and Grounds	
- Architect section	Project Architect, Drafting, Works Super- visor, Workshop and Store, Carpenters, Electricians, Plumbers, Painters, Mechanics Units
- Stores and Transport section	Purchasing, Stores and Supply, Transport, Security, Cleaners and Labourers Units
- Gardens section	Nursery, Native Plants Collection, Drivers Units
Accounts	Accountant, Budgets, Revenue, Expenditure, Internal Audits, Salaries, Accounting Machine Units
Library	University Librarian, Acquisition Catalog- uing, Readers' Services, Periodicals, New Guinea Collection, Teaching Methods and Material Centre

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<u>Department/Section</u>	<u>Functional Units</u>
Bookshop	Manager, Trainees, Counter Staff, Accounts Units
Academic Departments: (Ancillary staff)	Laboratory Technicians (Chemical, Physical, Biological, Medical, Electronic, Museum, Prehistory), Scientific Instrument Making, Fitting and Turning, Cartography Units
All Departments	Secretarial, Stenographic, Typing, Clerical Units

The task of localisation is not as simple as one would think, either in PNG or in any other developing country. A major task in a developing country is to balance the outputs of the education system with the inputs to the economy and society of the system. Irresolute planning, poor judgement by officials and short-sighted decisions at the political level, jointly or severally, can upset the balance. Papua New Guinea has been out of balance from time to time but, probably in comparison with attempted localisation elsewhere, it has a record of which it can be proud.

Until the accelerating momentum of independence in 1975 nearly all the high-level manpower in the education system was from outside the country. At the University the staff were predominantly expatriates, including the University administrators. It was therefore necessary for the University to localise as many positions as possible, within the administration especially, with the right people who had the appropriate qualifications. Since there were still not many Papua New Guineans qualified to become academics, the University teaching positions were all occupied by expatriates. So the University was faced with the task of developing a programme for staff development mainly for the sake of localisation.

Prior to 1970, the University lacked a coherent policy on localisation and training. However, as far as training was concerned, the University had always encouraged and supported staff in their endeavour to obtain better academic or vocational qualifications, primarily by the payment of course fees and by granting time off without loss of salary to enable staff to attend classes. Before the actual establishment of a formal localisation plan, most of the senior local officers in supervisory positions visited overseas universities to examine specific areas of university administration. Some other local officers were released to attend block courses and short training courses conducted by the Division of Technical Education and Administration.

By 1970, when the University was firmly established as a viable institution of higher learning, consultants were brought in to assist the University in streamlining its administration procedures. The consultants called for modern management practices and the establishment of a comprehensive

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training programme. They recommended a full time Localisation Officer who was to be responsible to the Registrar for the development and implementation of the University's localisation programme. So as early as 1971, the recommended localisation programme was effected. This included all areas of non-academic staff including the library, laboratory, technical and maintenance staff as well as the professional and administrative personnel. The programme at that time had these main aspects:

- the recruitment and training of Papua New Guineans through the provisions of sponsorships, scholarships and cadetships for courses of study at institutions within PNG or overseas, mainly in Australia;
- the execution of an intensive plan of training and career development for Papua New Guineans to equip them for accelerated promotion to higher levels of responsibility.

Localisation Programme - 1971 the Early Stage to 1980

The introduction of this paper has outlined the University's establishment and growth, the basic organisational structure and occupational diversity within the non-academic staff and the formulation of the localisation policy. It is hoped that the information above will allow the reader to understand better the events that occurred from 1971 to 1980.

In the report of the consultants, a Localisation Officer was recommended who was to be directly responsible to the Registrar of the University. The introduction of such a post to the University administration required a person with not only substantial academic qualifications, but also a dedicated person who was interested in the training and welfare of the indigenous people. The case was such that the discussions and seminars on localisation were all running against time and so it was necessary to act immediately. Indeed the University accepted the advice of the consultants that however efficient the committee system was in both its scope and pursuit of any action, it would not be very effective compared to a single officer who would be reporting to the University's senior non-academic administrator. The benefits considered were that, the Localisation Officer in not being placed in the usual management hierarchy, could obtain decisions on matters of policy almost as quickly as he could write submissions. Also being to one side of the mainstream of management the Localisation Officer had access to all levels of staff which ensured reasonably good informal communications, thus allowing decisions to be made on the basis of the known realities of a situation.

The manpower budget submitted by the management consultants contained objectives concerning the recruitment and training of Papua New Guineans. For instance, one of the general proposals was that from January 1971, the University should not employ any more expatriate secretaries (typists). It was not quite possible at that time, however, to meet the objectives due to

a shortage of Papua New Guinean secretaries. At that time the University also began recruiting university graduates both from the University of Technology in Lae and the University of PNG in Port Moresby - an advancement of the target proposed by the consultants. But still the University of PNG's primary policy objective in its localisation programme was that all non-academic staff positions be localised by the end of 1980. The general objective was quite clear but the translation of that objective into action was not all that smooth. The process of localisation, however, continued until about 1978 when nearly all the non-academic positions were filled by Papua New Guineans.

The first action that made it possible for the process of localisation to succeed was the establishment of a comprehensive records system. Full records of the level of education and skill of each employee involved in the programme were obtained and maintained. So if the programme sought to identify particular local officers and groom them for promotion by pursuing specific plans, it had only to consult the record system.

The second action was a review of each functional department or section. As the Localisation Officer was already appointed, one of his first tasks was to confer with heads of each department/section and establish a working strategy for localisation. Senior executives of the University were also consulted. What were the needs of the departments and sections? Could localisation be rapid in this section or that section? If not, how long would it take to train a local person to take over and what should be involved in his training and development?

Job analysis was also applied to the formulation of the localisation plan. What were the qualifications and experience and level of responsibility involved in the positions? The view here was not to compare the expatriate incumbent with the likely local appointee but rather to see whether the local officer had the capacity to do the job and to find out the minimum qualifications and experience required for the job.

The relationship between the job analysis for any position, with its assessed minimum levels of competence, and the availability of local manpower for that position, was central to the process of localisation. Inevitably, training was going to be required: training to meet the short term demands of ensuring that the local appointee was competent to perform the specific job, and whenever possible to provide the appointee with skills other than those he would have to use in the current position. So the problem was how to identify the potential candidate? Such was the inadequacy of the record system that it was important to establish a method. Also the process was aided by the close knowledge of those around a local appointee during work; they could assess his capabilities, performance and willingness to take training.

One should probably accept that in any university, and especially those in developing countries, every endeavour should be made to minimise costs, provided the means of doing so are politically and socially acceptable

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within that country. Therefore, it is academically, politically, and economically desirable that the majority of those who teach and provide administrative service should be of the same nationality as the students. Of equal importance is the fact that expatriate staff of the University of PNG are transients. Against this argument for academic localisation is the view that the need for graduates in government and other employment areas is so urgent that the University should not encourage all of its better graduates to become university employees. This view may rest on the assumption that the work of a university academic involves chiefly teaching, learning and research, whereas in PNG, it would seem that an academic should actively pursue another role, that of an adviser and critic to those who seek his service in this way. For the University to continue to encourage its academic staff to seek such an interface with the Ministry, government departments and the community will surely serve to deflect any unwarranted criticism about academic localisation. So, should the University not commit itself to a planned staff development programme that provides for academic localisation too, it could be judged adversely and, at a future date, forced to compromise its chosen standards.

The Staff Officer, D W Sloper, produced a paper in 1973, Staff Development Programme, which supposedly took that step in awarding teaching fellowships to local potential graduates. This would have significant implications for academic localisation in the future.

The launching of the Staff Development Teaching Fellowship (SDTF) scheme in 1974 was the start of a vigorous expansion and major investment in national academic staff development. The scheme defines one avenue, probably the major one, for students who are thought suitable to undertake an academic career. The scheme provides an acknowledged position in the staff structure of the University, adequate financial and other support, time to complete an approved course of study (honours year, higher degree or other) and sufficient experience of academic life to allow an SDT fellow and the University to assess whether or not the career choice is an appropriate one. However, on successful completion of a Master's degree at overseas universities or in PNG, fellows are then normally offered appointments to the established teaching staff, and after a period of two years lecturers are encouraged to proceed overseas for a further period for PhD studies. In other words all of these are a form of development for the locals: the acquisition of higher degrees.

In the SDTF scheme there is also the notion of creating positions over establishment which would be available for a limited period to enable the University to appoint or to promote a Papua New Guinean who presents himself/herself at a time when no establishment vacancy exists. A Papua New Guinean might be available for appointment at a time when no vacancy exists for several reasons: he could be someone who has obtained qualifications suitable for an academic appointment other than through the SDTF; he could be an SDT fellow whose academic progress has been advanced, or retarded, at an unusual rate, upsetting planning calculated against the attrition of contract overseas staff; he might be someone whom the University wishes to

promote.

The Staff Development Programme also has a Staff Development Research Fellowship (SDRF) which is intended to accommodate a situation where the young Papua New Guinean academic finds himself in fairly constant demand as a member of committees, a consultant, an adviser, a public speaker, and probably having more involvement in national affairs than many academic staff. These committees are likely to be detrimental to further studies and to personal development stimulated by reading and research. The activity being pursued during the period of an SDRF should not be defined too closely. The SDRF is designed to be something of a "non-teaching/refreshment fellowship" administered by the University's SD Committee. Consultative or advisory work is included as these provide an important interface between the University and the community, and are a potentially satisfying experience for Papua New Guinean academics and a way in which an academic's teaching and other contributions to University life are likely to be enriched.

The Present Staff Development Programme

In 1981 the University had 29 national academic staff and 53 teaching fellows. Of these, 44 were overseas studying for postgraduate qualifications, of whom six were doing PhD programmes. A further seven were undertaking masters degrees in PNG, and 13 were working towards their honours and masters degrees. The wastage rate, mainly through resignations, (Planning Office, 1981) for both national academic staff and teaching fellows has been low; about seven per cent per year for the last few years. Projections, allowing for wastage, indicate that the number of national academic staff is likely to rise to about 100 by 1986, representing approximately 53 per cent localisation of the academic staff.

The Goroka Teachers' College, one of the campuses of the University, is situated in the Eastern Highlands Province - about two and a half hours flying time from Port Moresby, where the main campus and medical faculty are situated. In 1981 it had seven national teaching staff and 13 teaching fellows of which seven were studying overseas and four in PNG. Seven were teaching at the college and one former national academic was appointed as deputy principal of the college following his successful completion of a Masters Degree in Educational Administration at the University of New England in Australia. It is envisaged that the college could look forward to a comparable level and rate of localisation of its 42 teaching staff with that of the main campus.

An optimal level of localisation of the academic staff, to be about 65-75 per cent, is appropriate and is expected. It is vital for the University to continue to receive the stimulus of staff from all over the world, both in terms of striving for the highest academic standards and of preserving the international nature of the institution.

Although in the SD Programme much attention has been focused on the

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development of academic staff in terms of training for higher qualifications, administrative, library and technical staff are equally catered for under the programme. Library fellows have undertaken courses in the UK, Australia and PNG; administrative, accounting and technical staff have been sponsored, either full-time or part-time to undertake subgraduate or undergraduate courses in PNG, and postgraduate courses or work attachments overseas: Hong Kong, Singapore, the UK and Australia. The introduction of the SD Programme has certainly helped a great deal in the process of localisation. In the long-run the specific aims of the University SD Programme are expected to be interpreted within this understanding: it should be to raise the ability of individual nationals to manage their own professional and personal development; to improve the ability of individuals to diagnose problems and work towards their solutions; to improve the functions of the individuals within groups. Such groups can be defined as teaching departments, administrative sections, curriculum and special interest areas, or probably the institution generally. Another concern should be to improve the ability of individuals to cope with change, and especially to adjust to changing national developments. Staff development of the University should not be seen as just for the purpose of localisation but rather as contributing to a continued competence.

How Should Staff Development Benefit the Whole Process of the University of PNG?

There is an increasing recognition of the growing importance of SD in the University. Current circumstances and anticipated future developments emphasise this growing importance, mainly for the following reasons.

1. The University of PNG has a responsibility to provide and maintain, to the best of its ability, an environment which facilitates learning; thus, teaching departments have a responsibility for self-improvement, for keeping up to date, for the pursuit of excellence. Being an academic member implies a responsibility of this kind both in scholarship and research in one's own discipline and the teaching of that discipline.
2. The professional vitality of staff is a major determinant of the effectiveness of the University. Since academic staff are the primary cost factor and the major resource of the University, it is their competence, quality and attitudes which will essentially determine both the nature of the education received by students and the contribution the University makes to the community.

Perhaps the question to ask is, what are the possible benefits of staff development that not only cater for localisation but also for continued competence? Because the University SD Programme should start looking at altering the course a little to include the development of the institution towards effectiveness in its goals - an effective organisation, this is a place where people can work and be effective contributors; a place where the people know what the job is that has to be done; and where they are

given the resources to do it well; and where they can perform the task within a high thrust/high discretion environment that provides positive plans to overcome shortfalls in skills. In the case of the University of PNG, one could probably put the benefits in three categories. There is a group of benefits which is directly associated with the staff member. Another group, while dependent somewhat on the first, focuses upon the University as an organisation composed of various sub-systems and working towards a common goal. Finally, there appears to be a set of system benefits which can be abstracted from both the University benefits and individual staff members' benefits and which possess an integrity of its own. Each will be discussed briefly.

1. The Individual Staff Member

One of the most basic outcomes for staff is an increased knowledge of concepts and skills related to their current job. This is true for academics and non-academics and may result immediately from SD activity. Another immediate outcome could be a more thorough understanding of the working conditions in complex organisations. Each of these outcomes may lead, over a period of time, to a number of immediate outcomes. These will include an increased confidence in dealing with students and an improvement in work performance.

There are other immediate outcomes which will be more closely related to a staff member's future concern. For instance, the provision of a firm foundation of relevant knowledge concerning career opportunities is an important benefit. Another could be the acquisition of skills and understandings not related to one's present job but relevant to some future appointment within the education system, the public service or the private sector. Therefore, in the longer term one could probably expect both these more immediate outcomes or benefits to affect:

- (a) the future responsibilities within the University which a staff member assumes on promotion;
- (b) the adaptability of the staff member in relation to various areas of responsibility within the University where the staff member works.

2. The University

There are two broad categories of potential benefits to the University from SD for localisation and continued competence. The first relates to the overall organisation of the University and is probably quite general in nature. Relationships between staff and between staff and the University as an institution of higher learning may be affected by the SD programme. Hence a fostering of professional contact between teaching and non-academic staff may be an immediate outcome of an activity and one which affects the relationships between individual staff members. Similarly, an understanding of one another's work in the University is likely to be an immediate benefit affecting staff relationships. Each of these may in the longer term lead to a more co-operative approach among staff in their work, a more satisfying work environment and an increased commitment to the goals of the University.

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An important benefit to the University from the process of SD for continued competencies is its effect upon responsiveness. The responsiveness of the University will be influenced by its ability to predict changing community needs. Such a benefit will be associated with an increased awareness among individual staff of the future needs of the University and of the higher education system but will probably arise out of the integration of that awareness rather than out of individuals acting on their own.

The second benefit or group of benefits is more specific and refers to particular functions of departments or sections within the University. For instance, the following benefits would appear to fit this category and would be taught by invited experts in the particular fields:

- (a) the widespread introduction of some new practices of teaching throughout the University - instead of board and chalk talk all the time;
- (b) the effective utilisation of the library, the computer unit or the audio-visual resources in the University or some other resources which have been under-utilised for so long.

The dependence of these University benefits upon the development among staff of particular skills, understandings and attitudes concerning both their own work and that of the University is apparent. They are also likely to be dependent upon the relationship between certain groups of staff. For these reasons they will probably be longer term benefits arising from a variety of SD activities rather than any specific activity. A more effective utilisation of library resources will be influenced by the levels of expertise and general attitudes of both library personnel and teaching/administrative staff rather than one or the other. Similarly, the widespread introduction of modern teaching techniques is dependent upon the skills and attitudes of teaching staff and also those of the support staff upon whom new demands may be made.

3. The System

Some outcomes of the SD are not only a process towards localisation but the continuing of competencies and will probably be more system oriented or government oriented rather than related to the University or individual staff members. These benefits are generally long-term, appearing possibly five or so years later and resulting from a number of activities or the entire process of the SD Programme rather than any specific activity. Some who benefit may probably choose to utilise whatever they have learnt and understood from the programme outside of the University and this would be another form of contribution to the whole tertiary education programme in PNG. Increasingly the credibility of the University system in PNG is one such benefit.

There is also a small group of immediate benefits that concerns the system as a whole and which may result from individual activities. Two of these would appear especially important. Some activities may provide senior

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administrative staff with clearer perceptions of the concerns and views held by the University or higher education junior staff on certain issues. This would enable more appropriate policy decisions to be made. Other activities such as local and overseas scholarships may provide a body of research information on which policy may be formulated for the entire system.

Conclusion

The challenge facing the University of PNG is a great one that needs the co-operation of everyone who is involved in the system. The management of the university will have to shoulder the responsibility of getting the organisation to accept responsibility for its own actions, but all staff members will be needed to help create an institutional culture which encourages and rewards high performance, meets the needs of Papua New Guineans at work and is adaptable to change. This includes both the teaching staff and non-teaching staff. And certainly this is the role of staff development in an institution like the University of PNG or for that matter in any organisation which is concerned with the development of its staff. So the alternatives are between a University management which reacts to:

the emotive pleas of those state-holders who have a political rather than operational interest in running the institution

or a management which displays:

a ready willingness to look into the needs of the institution and accept a large measure of the responsibility for meeting the needs found there

co-operation between group members which results in fitting jointly formulated solutions to organisational problems.

The second alternative will require a skilled workforce within the University management, a supportive environment, a committed staff, and a longer time span. Most important will be the need for staff members of the University to become involved in, and willing to be held responsible for plans and actions put into operation. Staff development would become the supporting process towards such plans and actions. As a case study of localisation at the University of PNG this paper has set out the broad background to localisation and then examined in detail some procedures and

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actions that went on after the establishment of the localisation plan. Some of the methods and procedures which have developed in response to the challenges and problems of localisation have been illustrated.

The staff development process is still going on and is still at an early stage, so its success is still in the balance.

Postscript on Staff Development Programme (1983)

Through the programme as at mid-1983 there were a total of 42 Papua New Guineans who have completed their masters plus the first 2 Papua New Guineans to complete their doctorate degrees. Another 40 people were studying for their masters and 5 for doctorate degrees in overseas universities. These people have gone to universities in countries like Tanzania, Kenya, Jamaica, Philippines, besides the main countries of Australia, United Kingdom, U.S.A., Canada and New Zealand.

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8. ANALYSING THE NEED FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A CENTRE FOR IMPROVING TEACHING AND LEARNING EFFECTIVENESS AMONG THE ACADEMIC STAFF OF MAKERERE UNIVERSITY*

Introduction

It might be argued that a book of cases for administrator training need not include cases relating to aspects of teaching and learning since these rest in the world of the academic and, by tradition, are remote from administration. Apart from the fact that an increasing number of academic administrators - heads of departments and deans - are becoming aware of the need to seek administrative skills there are two other strong reasons for the inclusion of this case. The first is that effective administrators have an overview of the university. Its goals and purposes must be understood and shared by them. The second is that nothing happens without planning and without resource allocation, and herein lies the administrator's function. If he does not know or have concern for what is taking place in the teaching departments, he, as an administrator, is less than fully competent. The writer of this case raises pertinent topics both with regard to the purposes of academic staff development and to its organisation within universities.

The Case Study

The purpose of the case study presented in this paper is to analyse and consider the possible ways in which Makerere University academic staff could be assisted to improve their teaching and learning effectiveness. Although no study has been made to gauge the performance of Makerere academic staff in their day to day teaching, it is a well-established fact that most of them have had no orientation whatsoever to a career in teaching. With no concrete data as a base, it is difficult to establish that Makerere University staff would benefit from an orientation in teaching/learning techniques. However, based on findings elsewhere on the need for improving university teaching, and on the writer's own experiences in the Makerere University context, an attempt will be made in this paper to establish that a teaching and learning improvement centre would greatly improve the teaching performance of the academic staff. Where possible, examples and illustrations using some available data, will be given in arguing the case.

The case study will be divided into five basic parts: 1. the historical background of Makerere University; 2. establishing the rationale or need for the centre; 3. what the centre itself would be; 4. how the decision to establish the centre would be reached, and 5. the implications of such a centre to Makerere University.

* Prepared by Martin Rutangye, Makerere University. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes in September 1981. It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

1. Historical Background

The history of Makerere as a centre for higher learning goes back to at least the year 1922 when the former technical school on Makerere Hill became Makerere College with the incorporation of the medical courses at Mengo and the institution of agricultural, engineering, veterinary and teacher training courses. All instructors at the time were drawn from public service departments. For example engineering courses were taught by the Works Department technician and the head of the Lands and Survey Department. Right from the early days, Makerere does not seem to have had any professionally qualified teachers. On the eve of the Second World War, Makerere had evolved into an independent and international institution providing a variety of courses in the arts, science and various other disciplines.

Special Relationship with London

The war, of course, had its inevitable setbacks for Makerere but by 1945 a report of the Asquith Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies (set up by the British Government) was published and this paved the way to Makerere becoming, in November 1949, an institution of university status with the establishment of a "Special Relationship" between Makerere and the University of London. Through this relationship, which had also been established between London and other British Colonies in Africa, Makerere began to offer degree courses leading to the general degrees of the University of London. At this time Makerere relied heavily on Britain to provide the academic staff.

The Three Phases in Staffing Policy

The Makerere University Staffing Policy has undergone three basic phases since its inception as a centre for higher learning. The first phase was the expatriate phase. This was a staffing policy whereby Africans were regarded as incapable of developing to the level of academic intellectuals and hence were completely excluded from holding any university teaching posts. It may be true that in the beginning most Africans had not progressed to that level but as late as 1962, when Uganda gained its independence from Britain, Africans could only hold research assistantships in the university departments. One department, for example, had three doctorate holders working as research assistants while the head of department had a mere bachelors degree from Britain.

After independence the Africans in Makerere appealed to the newly formed Parliament. Parliament resolved to start the policy of East Africanisation of Makerere staff. Makerere at this time was still serving the three East African countries, Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Although the other two countries had started their own university colleges, Makerere had a higher reputation. The competition for teaching jobs in Makerere University was more acute than in its two counterparts because most Africans preferred to teach in Makerere which was better established.

By 1970 the three university colleges of East Africa, Makerere in

IMPROVING TEACHING

Uganda, Nairobi in Kenya, and Dar es Salaam in Tanzania broke up and each college became a full-fledged university in its own right. Makerere then adopted a staffing policy of Ugandanisation. Makerere had by this time adopted a staff development scheme whereby Ugandans who performed well in their first degrees were retained by the University, attached to a relevant department for one year and then sent out or registered locally for a second degree. After the second degree these Ugandans were appointed as full-time staff members thus gradually replacing the expatriate teachers. These events are summarised in the following table:

TABLE 1

ACADEMIC YEAR	TOTAL STUDENT ENROLMENT	NO. OF APPROVED POSTS	STUDENT/STAFF RATIO	NO. OF EXPATRIATES (other than African)	NO. OF AFRICANS (other than Ugandans)	NO. OF UGANDANS
1960-61	912	136	6.7	128	6	2
1965-66	1237	220	5.6	176	17	27
1970-71	2712	353	7.6	202	17	134
1975-76	3721	539(340)*	7.0/10.9	82	22	236
1979-80	3978	625(303)*	6.3/13.1	38	2	263

* No. of Posts filled

Source: Makerere University Report - Donor's Conference at Lake Como, Bellagio, Italy, 13-17 April 1980

From the figures it can be seen that the number of Ugandan lecturers in Makerere was growing by 1970. However, when Idi Amin's military regime came to power in 1971 Makerere saw an exodus of its staff, both expatriate and Ugandans, out of the country. Thus the period between 1971-79 was a time of decline and stagnation for Makerere University. According to Makerere University Institute for Social Research (MISR) Survey, about 196 Ugandan lecturers had left the country by 1977.

Makerere is now in the post-Amin era - a period that requires the reconstruction and the rehabilitation of Makerere. It is a period when Makerere University staff have to try to catch up with their colleagues abroad in research, new developments in their academic fields and also in new teaching and learning techniques. This is an area that has been neglected throughout the phase outlined above. But as the Vice-Chancellor pointed out at the Como Conference, Makerere is now in a period of sorting itself out. One feels inclined to agree with him in his call to all friends of Makerere:

"...to participate in the task of defining a new role and vision for Makerere in African development; for today Makerere stands at the cross roads".(1)

One of the new paths Makerere must define is how to increase its teachers' effectiveness in teaching. The paper will now turn to why it is felt that this need is strong enough to deserve attention amongst Makerere's many pressing problems at the moment.

2. The Rationale for the Centre

Looking back at the history of Makerere it is worth noting that Makerere has never had any orientation courses to equip its teachers with any teaching skills. Teaching skill has not been a prerequisite for appointment, remuneration or promotion. The current requirement to be appointed to a full time teaching post is a minimum qualification of a second degree in one's area of specialisation. There is a strong conviction amongst academics at Makerere that once one obtained a master's or doctorate degree, then one is quite capable of teaching that discipline to others. This view is not confined to Makerere alone. Richardson writing on American lecturers notes that, for example

"...there is much that is good to be said of the School. The individual who passes its courses and receives its highest honours is fairly sure to be competent in his command of the subject-matter of his speciality".(2)

However, Richardson goes on to argue that command of the subject is not enough guarantee that the graduate will be able to teach the subject to others. This view is strongly objected to by a UNESCO publication on "Planning the Development of Universities" which points out that:

"The quality of teaching is thought to be determined by the qualifications of the teaching staff - but this does not necessarily guarantee a high level of teaching if, for example, too much time is spent on research and there is little contact with students ... the assumption that a teacher can teach at the same academic/research level is questionable".(3)

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One could therefore argue that a good mastery of one's discipline is not a guarantee that the holder will communicate the knowledge to his students. It is hence necessary to equip Makerere teachers with at least some basic skills that will enable them to train the nation's manpower more effectively. Makerere University is the sole supply of the nation's highly-trained manpower. According to the Uganda Ministry of Planning and Economic Development Report for example, Makerere produced 7,000 graduates between the years 1972-79. These helped to fill the posts of expatriates and Ugandans who had left the country. The training of such people cannot be left to the trial and error methods described by Stanton: a university teacher

"...typically embarks on a teaching career with little or no technical training in pedagogy, the task to which he will devote most of his life. If he is sensitive of his failing he will spend much of his career in bumbling trial and error, seeking the pedagogical password".(4)

If one accepts the above arguments then it becomes clear that the quality of a university lecturer's teaching ability cannot be left to chance. This is more so in a country like Uganda with only one university where the teachers are few, student numbers large, resources limited and the output of high quality graduates badly needed for the country's manpower.

Several other arguments seem to stress this need for a centre to improve teaching effectiveness. One factor is that most of the experienced academic staff left the country during the military regime. Most of these were expatriates, but also included were a good number of Ugandans. According to the Institute of Social Research figures, for example, Makerere had lost 16 professors, eight associate professors, 35 senior lecturers and 137 lecturers making a total of 196 experienced Ugandan staff. The establishment is now full of young inexperienced lecturers who could benefit from the teaching skills centre.

Another factor is that the methods of teaching and assessment currently used lack creativity and efficiency. The lecture method is the commonest method used for every teaching session; examinations and course work the major assessment methods. Many other methods of teaching and assessment have been successful elsewhere and could be tried in Makerere too.

On top of these poor teaching and assessment methods are the student enrolments. These have increased in number. According to Table 1, the teacher/student ratio has risen from 7.6 in 1970-71 to 13.1 in 1979-80. This is a staggering number for staff who have not been equipped with skills needed for handling students. More pressing still is that student expectations in Makerere have changed. The Vice-Chancellor noted for example, that,

"on their part, students wish to launch community-based programmes that will take them out of the physical walls of the university".(5)

Thus it seems to be clear that Makerere University staff will find themselves continually under pressure from students, Government, the University and the community to be more accountable for their products. They will have to find ways of satisfying a new clientele of students. Students no longer, in the true African tradition, respect somebody because of his age and take his word as gospel truth. Students now openly question the efficiency and integrity of a lecturer. A new sense of militancy against poor quality teaching is now an emerging phenomena in Makerere. For example, in the 1978-79 academic year two lecturers were rejected by the students. One was transferred to administration and another confined to research. In 1979-80 three academic members of expatriate staff from Pakistan, two in the faculty of law and one in economics, were rejected by students on grounds of poor teaching performance. The university had to cancel their contracts and paid heavy compensation. The time is now ripe for Makerere to think of ways of improving the teaching quality of its staff as it reorganises the rest of the university activities. The need to train Makerere staff, therefore, cannot be overstressed. This can be summed up in the light of this UNESCO recommendation on "Planning the Development of Universities":

"The above suggestions show the necessity for Teaching Staff to go beyond the mere teaching of their subjects and that they should know more about the psychology of their students, methods of learning, the place and role of University education in society, the theory and practice of curriculum planning, the theory and practice of teaching/learning process and that consequently universities should consider providing not only scientific training for their future teachers, but also professional educational training".(6)

3. Nature of the Centre

It is not the purpose of this paper to deal with the activities of the proposed centre in detail. Rather, an attempt will be made to outline the objectives of the centre, the possible activities the centre could offer and how the programme would be evaluated. To analyse what the role of the centre would be one needs to ask oneself these two basic questions:

- a) Why should a teacher be trained?
- b) What are the qualities a good teacher should display? - in other words - in what should a teacher be trained?

The answers to both questions will give us the basis for deciding on what a centre should offer to Makerere teachers.

a) Why should a teacher be trained?

Perhaps one of the best answers is given by Pullias and Lockhart. Writing in the early sixties Pullias and Lockhart first acknowledge that there is some truism in the old cliché that "a teacher is born, not made". They argue that some individual traits that shape one's art or style of teaching may

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be inborn. But then there is the scientific aspect of teaching. This involves the acquisition of knowledge in one's subject, the psychology of the learner and the teacher himself, and the various skills in the communication process(7). There are certain skills which an aspirant in teaching should acquire if he is to make a successful teacher.

b) What are the qualities of a good teacher?

Pullias and Lockhart argue that the role of a good teacher is that of "a guide on a fascinating journey of learning". The average Makerere teacher does not regard himself as a guide but as a consultant, all knowing and as "the dispenser" of secrets the student should know. The lectures are normally read out from an old file and afterwards the teacher walks out. There is very little effort to have contact with the students who are expected to sit and listen obediently asking for clarification only here and there. However, if one accepts Pullias's argument that a teacher is a guide then it is necessary to examine the qualities a teacher should have. Thaman outlines five characteristics of a good teacher; he should,

- (i) have a high level of intellectual and physical energy with which to approach instructional tasks;
- (ii) have a mature, up-to-date knowledge of his subject;
- (iii) understand the psychology of the learner; his learning problems, learning capacity, his motivation and interests;
- (iv) be well informed about specific structural techniques and materials in his field, and have the skills to use these with his students;
- (v) be dedicated to improving his skills as a university instructor.(8)

In their study in America to find out what students viewed as the characteristics of a good teacher, Gaff and Wilson came out with similar conclusions, namely: a thorough knowledge of the subject, skill in presentation, friendly relationship with the students, and enthusiasm.(9)

A Makerere teacher should be able to depict those qualities. One can make an assumption that the teachers have no problem with the mastery of their disciplines. Indeed, according to the 1980 teaching staff list in Makerere one can notice the following data.

- (i) By the end of 1979 Makerere had about 330 teachers. (It is possible that some were special assistants who were not considered as full-time, official members of the establishment). The Academic Registrar reports only 303 teachers.
- (ii) Out of 330 teachers, 106 held doctorate degrees.(10)
- (iii) About 186 held master's degrees.

- (iv) The remaining 34 just had the first degree. (These were perhaps the special assistants who were not full staff members). It can therefore be seen that more than 80 per cent of Makerere's academic staff had higher degrees in their fields of specialisation. If good quality teaching depended on knowledge of the subject then Makerere would have no teaching quality problems. However, to cite the examples given earlier of five cases of members of staff who have been forced out by the student militancy, four had doctorate degrees, and one a master's degree. Two of them were associate professors.
- (v) Out of 330 total teaching staff, only 26 had a formal teaching qualification, either certificate, diploma or degree in education. Fourteen out of the 26 teachers with a professional teaching qualification were in the faculty of education and eight were in the National Institute of Education. Another two out of 26 were in the Centre for Continuing Education.

It can be argued from the above data that Makerere has no professional teachers. The 6 per cent of the total academic staff establishment with some form of professional qualification are engaged in areas of teacher education. Since there are no orientation courses, workshops, seminars or conferences organised by Makerere to improve teacher education, one can conclude that the University has neglected this field of staff development. There are many complaints from students, and external examiners who come in at the end of each year to mark student papers, about poorly organised courses, badly set questions, poor standard of marking etc. All these shortcomings could be ironed out by the centre.

Objectives

The objectives of the centre would therefore be, in brief, to:

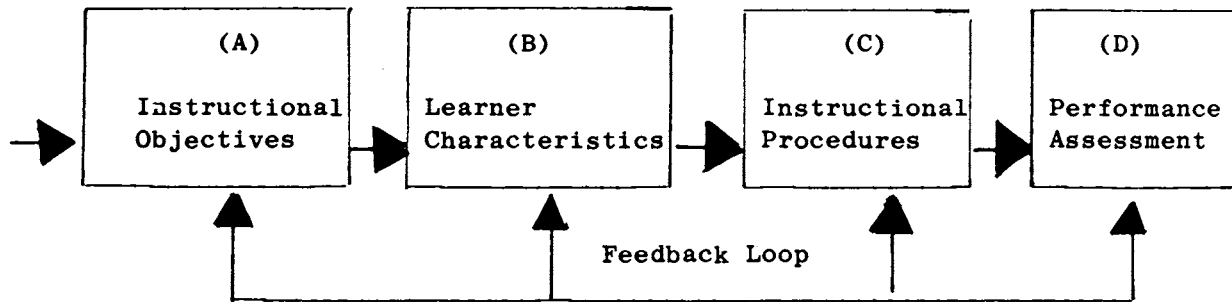
- (i) improve the quality of teaching amongst the academic staff by demonstrating exemplary performance;
- (ii) organise workshops, conferences and seminars on teaching improvement;
- (iii) invite specialists to advise and help staff in improving their teaching;
- (iv) act as a consultant to staff who need help in teaching methods, use of teaching materials, student assessment and course design;
- (v) innovate and research new ways in which university teaching in Makerere could be improved.

What the Centre would Offer

It is assumed that staff will acquire the following qualities outside the centre: knowledge of subject of specialisation, research methods and administrative techniques. The centre would then offer skills in course development, teaching methods, use of instructional materials and evaluation skills

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of how to evaluate student performance, as well as the performance of the member of staff himself. These skills are summarised by Stanton in a simple systems model:



Feedback Nature of Systems and Priorities Involved in Instructional Process

(Source: Stanton, 1970, p.29)

The nature of the courses would take three forms:

- (i) orientation courses for all new staff on teaching methods;
- (ii) inservice courses for all staff in the form of seminars, conferences, study leave, workshops, organised both at departmental and university level or outside;
- (iii) non-compulsory award courses, part-time, leading to some form of professional qualification in education.

4. Decision Making Process

To discuss the process of reaching a positive decision on establishing the centre one needs to assess the strong circumstances both in favour of and against such a decision. It is important to identify the forces against such a decision.

(a) Resistance from Academics

In its report, UNESCO pointed out that,

"Universities must produce students who are not so much educated as educable. This requires a revolution in our teaching methods and not only has this change not taken place but it is being resisted".(11)

The report goes on to point out two possible causes of resistance namely, old academics who are conservative in their approach, and those who believe and concentrate on their discipline rather than learn how to teach it. These are fundamental sources of resistance in Makerere. The old academics argue that "they have been at it" for years and know what they are doing. The "discipline diehards" argue that mastery of the discipline is a guarantee to teaching it well. The other source of resistance would be time. Arguably, the required establishment is estimated to be 625 teaching staff but only 303 vacancies are filled. The student/teacher ratio which is supposed to be 1:6.3 is more than double at 1:13.1. This means staff do twice as much work to keep the University going.(12)

However a stronger argument is economic instability. According to Makerere Institute of Research figures, there had been an increase in price in a family's weekly shopping by a factor of 17.31 between 1971 and 1977. This factor is likely to have doubled by 1981. The academic staff cannot support their families. Thus, they use most of their spare time to look for alternative sources of money to make ends meet. Some have part-time teaching jobs, some use their cars as taxis in the evenings and some work on their land to produce cheaper food. Thus, these social-economic burdens might increase the resistance of staff to taking on any extra hours of study unless it is made worth the trouble.

(b) Political-Economic

Makerere is mainly financed by the Government. Thus, most of the funds to finance the centre have to be requested from the Government. The Government is suffering from political and economic tension and is not likely to react favourably to any suggestions and innovations that are likely to cause tension amongst university staff and cost the Government money.

At the same time, Council, which is the sole decision making body of the University, is not likely to endorse a decision that is going to antagonise staff and look an expensive request to the Government.

However, there are some strong factors pressing for this change which might favour a positive decision.

- (i) Students: After eight years of political oppression of the students, the change in government has brought to the students a new spirit of freedom. Accompanied by this freedom is a sense of "academic militancy". The students are demanding better methods of presentation, assessment, better designed courses and more say and representation on the major decision making bodies of the University. There have been many boycotts of poor quality lecturers. The University and the Government are now under pressure to re-examine the quality of the courses they are offering and the lecturers they employ to teach them.

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- (ii) The Vice-Chancellor has been committed to the improvement of teaching quality. He has been constantly urging heads of departments to try and enforce quality teaching and take it into account when recommending promotions and study leave. At the Donor's Conference at Lake Como, he stressed this need and persuaded interested parties to give money to Makerere specifically for improving teaching quality.
- (iii) Financing: Some overseas donors have ear-marked money to improve the quality of teaching in Makerere. At the Como Conference for example, Dr David Cook of the Carnegie Corporation of New York had this to say:

"The Corporation was willing to offer on this occasion US\$30,000.00 divided into two parts - one part at the disposal and discretion of the Vice-Chancellor in meeting various emergencies, and the second part to assist towards the creation of a centre for the improvement of teaching and learning in the University. There was also an outstanding grant for Teacher Training and the Corporation would have no objection to proposals to convert this towards the repair and improvement of the Audio-Visual Centre in Education". (13)

It therefore appears that the idea of the centre is already on the drawing board but at the time of writing there was no indication as to what stage it had reached. It is a viable proposition and is likely to get a lot of financial support from outside. It would be up to the planners of the centre to look for ways of inducing staff to pick up the tempo of the occasion so that in rehabilitating knowledge of their disciplines they could also include teaching competence.

5. Implications for Makerere

There is some considerable evidence that universities in many countries like the USA, Britain and Australia are looking more towards the improvement of teaching amongst their academics. Makerere University has to wake up to this reality as it emerges from its eight-year period of stagnation. The time is ripe enough to start innovative ventures that will not only improve academic staff knowledge but also their teaching/learning quality. In the light of the socio-economic and political problems facing the University and the nation as a whole one might consider the following implications quite practicable for Makerere:

- a) Makerere is beginning to recruit new staff to increase the number from 303 to the required 625. The teaching ability of applicants should be considered among other qualities when recruiting.

- b) The new staff should get some orientation course in teaching and especially in dealing with the specific type of students they are going to teach.
- c) Makerere staff are very "political" in outlook and need political manipulation. For example the Vice-Chancellor could convince deans and council to appreciate the importance of the centre. If it is university policy that all staff get some training, the move will be more successful than appealing to staff on rational grounds.
- d) During this period of economic problems, the Government could give inducement to the staff by allowing them, say, an extra two increments on completion of a part-time teaching qualification. The academic staff are always proud to have an extra title in front of their names. Thus, if a range of optional programmes are given and some extra remuneration given, professional qualification awards are likely to be more popular with staff than mere orientation or short courses.
- e) Makerere is at the moment recruiting expatriate staff to relieve the regular staff of the extra burdens until Ugandans who left the country return. Some of these expatriates could be experts and consultants in teacher education who could help train other Ugandans who will manage the centre in the long run.
- f) Finally, some overseas donors are anxious to see Makerere improve the teaching quality of their academic staff. Some initial funds have been made available for a teacher improvement centre. Makerere must dance to the tune and add to this initiative to make the centre a viable investment.

One can therefore conclude, that in spite of the many problems Makerere is facing, the reality of the need to improve teacher effectiveness has dawned. Makerere cannot postpone this need for ever and the centre will have to come into being soon. With careful planning, there is large potential for an effective and viable centre to emerge on Makerere Hill.

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9. STRATEGIES FOR TRAINING NOMADIC TEACHERS IN NIGERIA*

Introduction

The topic of this case is policy concerning teacher training and is of particular interest in that the starting point is community need. We talk at length about serving the community and its needs; we seldom attempt any practical application. The case addresses particularly the two questions, how does one determine community need in education; how can colleges and universities respond by providing appropriate training? The case also raises important issues for research into teacher training, for policy concerning university/college interaction with their clients, and for staff selection and training. The concepts explored range far wider than those of education for nomadic people.

The Case Study

One of the important strategies for developing "ruga" (on-site) schools is the training of nomadic teachers. It has become necessary to train special teachers to work in on-site schools because the type of education thrust on nomadic children, whether in regular schools organised for sedentary people in Dukku, Toro, Miango and elsewhere, or in the separate schools exclusively run for them in Gardo, Tashar Mangoro and Hardo Chindo in Ningi, is not acceptable to nomadic people. The assimilation policy adopted in the organisation of these schools is entirely inappropriate for nomadic people because such educational provision is not relevant to their mode of life in terms of the content taught and the means of teaching it. Table 1 below throws some light on the problems of the educational provision made for the nomads in the Ningi Local Government Area of Bauchi State, Nigeria.

* Prepared by Dr Chimah Ezeomah, Senior Lecturer in Education, University of Jos. This case study was prepared for discussion purposes (in September 1981). It is not intended to show effective or ineffective management.

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TABLE 1

Schools and Teachers Provided for Nomads in Ningi Local Government Area of Bauchi State

	Schools		Teacher's Qualification							Ethnic Origin	
	'Ruga' On-site	Regular	Trained				Untrained			Fulani	Non-Fulani
			Grade II	Grade III	Total	%	Sch. Cert	Pry. Cert	%		
Gardo	-	1	1	-	1		-	3		-	4
Tashar Mangoro	-	1	1	1	2		-	4		-	6
Hardo Chindo	1	-	-	-	-		-	1		-	1
Total	1	2	2	1	3	27	-	8	73	-	11

The Schools

Table 1 shows that two of the three schools - Gardo and Tashar Mangoro - provided for nomadic children in the Ningi Local Government Area are regular schools, both in their structure and organisation of the classes. They were regular schools established for sedentary children in which a few nomadic children enrolled during the 1976/77 school year. But when a greater number of nomadic children enrolled in these schools during the 1977/78 school year, as a result of the campaign mounted for higher enrolment of nomadic children into the schools, these two schools were left exclusively for nomadic children. Hardo is an on-site school in one sense - it is located within Hardo Chindo "ruga" - but a regular school in curricular content and organisation. Gardo and Tashar Mangoro have permanent brick buildings while Hardo Chindo school is a temporary zinc building. The three schools enrol nomadic children from camps which are about seven or eight kilometres away. Apart from the problem of the distances of these schools from the children's camps, the schools are operated on a regular school basis where children leave home around 7.00 a.m. and return home around 1.30 p.m.

Because no cognisance is taken of the work roles of the nomadic people in organising these schools, school attendance is irregular and enrolment has declined over the years. Parents are unwilling to allow their children to attend distant schools for long hours and leave the parents with herding tasks.

Teachers

Table 1 also shows that 27 per cent (three) of the teachers who teach in the three schools had received some kind of training - Grade III and Grade II (a three and five-year course respectively in primary school teaching). While a greater percentage of them - 73 per cent (eight) - are only primary school leavers. They are all non-Fulani teachers. As people who belong to the sedentary group, and have not received any training orientation to meet the different learning style of nomadic children, their teaching is oriented to meet the needs of sedentary children. Worse still, they communicate with the nomadic children in every lesson in Hausa instead of Fulfulde.

Both government educational officials and the nomadic parents are agreed that young children of primary school age relate better with teachers who speak to them in their first language. While commenting on some of the problems encountered in the nomadic school experiment in Ningi, the Education Secretary said that one of the problems was the inability to recruit teachers who could speak Fulfulde. In an interview with some of the nomadic parents in Ningi they were asked about some of the problems their children encountered in their learning at school. The parents indicated that their children did not understand what their "malam" (teachers) was teaching because the teacher spoke to them in Hausa.(1)

From the description of the schools and the teaching staff, it is clear that the schools are organised on the pattern of conventional schools meant for sedentary children. They do not, therefore, meet the needs of the nomadic people in terms of their structure, organisation and teaching staff. This has resulted in the unwillingness of the nomadic parents to allow their children to attend regular schools in Dukku and Toro Local Government Areas and the rapid decline of school enrolment and erratic attendance in the separate schools established for young nomads in Tashar Mangoro, Gardo and Hardo Chindo in Ningi Local Government Area. It is also indicative that Cattle Fulani parents regard formal education as a frightening and alienating process.

To meet the educational needs of the nomads, the first aim of nomadic education should be to provide what the parents and their children want rather than what an educational authority thinks they should have. Let educational provisions for the pastoralists be relevant in terms of the aims, the procedures and the means of attaining them.

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Schools and Teachers Preferred by Nomadic People

Recent studies have revealed that nomadic parents prefer schools built on their "ruga" (camps) and schools that move with herders.(2) They also prefer residential and visiting teachers to teach in the "ruga" schools. They have insisted on these types of schools and teachers because they are suited to the nomadic way of life. Nomadic parents prefer the use of visiting and residential teachers for a number of reasons. In the first place, the parents are accustomed to the Koranic teachers who visit their camps to teach them how to say the Muslim prayers. Secondly, and perhaps of more importance to the parents, they want the teaching of their children to take place in their "ruga" to take advantage of the shift system in their herding assignments.

Shifts in herding work are regular features in most nomadic Fulani families. Families having more than one child encourage shifts in herding. Most nomadic families allow two children to herd in the morning and they are relieved in the afternoon by two other children. Families with fewer children send out one child to herd in the morning and he is relieved by another child in the afternoon. Larger families send out three children in shifts in the morning and in the afternoon. In the light of these observations, teachers working with nomadic children in the "ruga" (camps) can time-table instruction to meet the herding shifts of the families they are working with.(3)

"Ruga", or on-site schools, may not operate with an enrolment of large numbers of children like the regular schools. About 10 to 15 children may be enrolled at a time. The advantages of on-site schools will be many: firstly, teachers will be working with few children and dealing effectively with individual differences in children. Secondly, on-site schools will minimise irregular attendance and encourage more constant enrolment because children will be taught at times that will not interfere with their herding periods. Thirdly, parents will see the teachers every day so that in a short time trust is built up between them. Finally, on-site schools will encourage nomadic children and schools to adapt to each other.

The main thrust here is that of taking education to the nomads through the "ruga" school system. The pertinent questions to ask at this point are: what are the objectives of such education? What strategies will be adopted in training the teachers in order to achieve the set objectives?

The Aim of Nomadic Education

With the gradual realisation of the nomadic parents that education will improve their life-style by bringing about desirable changes in their work roles and their social and political lives, any education planned for them should be relevant to their life-style in a changing environment. Therefore the short-term aim of nomadic education should be that all Cattle Fulani children acquire basic functional literacy and numeracy. In practical terms,

the acquisition of functional literacy and numeracy for the nomadic children should mean the ability:

1. to read with comprehension those things that affect their occupational roles, like useful directions and instructions on health, animal treatments and other manufacturers' instruction sheets relating to animal husbandry and agriculture, and their tax receipts;
2. to write legible letters to friends and veterinary or other agricultural establishments asking for information on how to improve their herds, poultry and crops;
3. to handle important common computations such as the number of their herd, the cost of and return from their investment on improved herds, distances to be covered on their seasonal movements, interest charges on credits and rental rates on lands, measurements of land and buildings to hold their herd and family;
4. to avoid hearsay and rumours. Such functional literacy should enable the nomadic children to read with understanding national newspapers. Thereby they become aware of things happening around them. It should enable them to perform such civic duties as reading simple instructions on ballot boxes in order to enable them to vote. Primary education, which is the main concern of this study, should be counted on to answer the nomadic children's needs for literacy and numeracy and the growth in a scientific outlook.

The long-term aim of their education should be to move from functional literacy and numeracy to the discussion and development of other aspects of education that touch on their social, economic and political life. In this regard the time spent educating the nomadic children will be valuable if it can make them more adaptable to the changing needs of their society.

On the social aspect, such education should enable them to acquire functional knowledge and skills for raising a family and operating a household. These should include the protection of family health, good child care, nutrition and sanitation, cultural activities and recreation.

The economic aspect should include functional knowledge and skill for earning a living. This includes how to provide water and grass for their animals and the cure for animal diseases using modern scientific methods. Such education should help them to incorporate certain ideas about commerce and industry into their occupational roles.

The commercial training for nomadic children should be geared towards helping them to use modern methods of storage and refrigeration and to get better prices for their meat products. They must learn the economics of export, marketing of surpluses and how to acquire more sophisticated tools for their trade.

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The political aspect of their education should enable them to gain functional knowledge and skills for civic participation. They should first know their own history and the contribution of their people to the development of the Nigerian nation. They should know the present form and function of Nigerian Government, their responsibilities, privileges and rights regarding available social services, and citizenship. They should also know the aims and functions of co-operatives and their local voluntary associations.

Because of the peculiar nature of their mode of life as people constantly on the move, they have developed ways in which the education of their young is managed. This experience should be the starting point, thereby getting the nomadic children and the school system to adapt to each other.(4)

Teacher Training Strategies

To achieve the above aims, trained, competent and dedicated teachers are needed. To be a competent nomadic teacher means that such a teacher must possess a thorough knowledge of both the subject matter he is going to teach as well as a sound knowledge of the nomadic way of life. To be dedicated means the willingness of the teacher to perform his duty diligently and patiently to produce the type of nomadic children who will function according to the aims specified above. The teacher's patience will involve his ability to adapt to the living conditions of the nomads.

For any teacher training strategy for "ruga" schools to be successful the type of teachers preferred by nomadic parents must be considered. Therefore the three types of teachers to be trained are:

1. assistant teachers,
2. residential teachers,
3. visiting teachers.

Assistant Teachers

One of the problems encountered in Ningi Local Government Areas, and other countries where nomadic/migrant educational experiments have been tried, is the maladjustment of non-nomadic teachers to nomadic living conditions. In Iran, when the Ministry of Education sent out forty non-nomadic teachers to work with nomads, it became apparent that the problem of adjustment and interaction between the teachers and the nomads required a new approach. Through experience over the years, it was decided to recruit and train nomads as teachers for the tribes. In 1956 a school specially designed for this purpose was opened in Shiraz.(5)

In Australia the maladjustment of teachers to the nomadic life-style was also recognised. When it became extremely difficult to find professional

staff to cope with the real hardships, shortages and isolation of such a life style, Aboriginal teachers were used to teach Aboriginal children.(6) In Ningi, the maladjustment of sedentary teachers in the exclusive nomadic schools was noticed. The Education Secretary indicated that most non-Fulani teachers were unwilling to teach in nomadic schools. He remarked: "It's very difficult getting teachers to teach in nomadic schools in Tashar Mangoro, Gardo and Hardo Chindo, let alone getting teachers to teach in the 'Ruga'"(7) Because of this difficulty, it has become necessary to recruit and train nomadic people to work in "ruga" schools.

The first stage for the use of nomadic people as teachers should be in the assistant teacher cadre. Some of the nomadic children who have learnt to read and write should be selected and given further training to gain competence in literacy and numeracy for effective teaching. Such training should be provided in teacher resource centres for those of them who have either dropped out of primary school or completed primary school training. Those of the nomadic children still in school and who showed greater achievement than others may be given further training by residential teachers and used in peer group teaching cadres.

Residential Teachers

Ideally residential teachers should be drawn from the nomadic groups, but because such groups are not available in large numbers, resident teachers may not be members of the nomadic group. One of the conditions for selecting non-nomadic teachers to teach in "ruga" schools should be their willingness to reside in Fulani camps and their interest in working with nomadic families.

Visiting Teachers

Visiting teachers may not necessarily be members of the nomadic group. They too must be interested in working with nomadic families. Their role will be, among other things, to prepare teaching materials and make them available to residential and assistant teachers, and to supervise the work done by the teachers and their pupils.

For these two groups of teachers to perform their roles adequately, there is need for careful selection and training.

The Need for Careful Selection of Nomadic Teachers

Working with nomadic families is not an easy task, especially for non-nomadic workers. Table 1 shows that a few experienced, trained teachers are willing to teach in the separate schools established for the nomads in Tashar Mangoro, Gardo and Hardo Chindo. The reason for most teachers' unwillingness to work in rural areas is not hard to find. Rural communities lack basic amenities and the nomadic camps are even worse. Many rural foot-paths are virtually impassable, both to motorists and pedestrians. During the rainy season people trudge through large pools of muddy water, in the dry season the roads are horribly dusty. In some cases access from one nomadic settlement to another may involve crossing flooded streams or

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deep dry valleys.

In their bid to provide grass and water for their herd, it is very common to find clusters of Fulani camps on marshy ground known as "fadama". Moreover, the "fadama ruga" are mostly far away from the native sedentary settlements which provide some basic amenities. The constant movement of nomadic families from one location to another at very short notice is an added problem. This too may discourage non-nomadic people from working with them. Therefore, working with nomadic people demands interest, dedication and commitment. To be selected for "ruga" schools, the teacher candidates must be interviewed to ascertain the extent of their capability and willingness to serve as nomadic teachers. The problems of working with nomadic people should be explicitly made known to them and their feelings about the problems should be sought.

The Training of Nomadic Teachers

Essentially any teacher training programme must produce teachers who are able to work with a variety of pupils in many kinds of situations. However, because information is lacking regarding the nomadic cultural situation, regular teacher training programmes in the Northern states, where nomads are found, do not prepare the sedentary teacher for coping with nomadic situations. Therefore there is a need to train non-nomadic people as teachers to gain competence in the subject areas to be taught as well as knowledge on certain nomadic cultural areas which affect the learning style of nomadic children. The basic requirements for training such non-nomads are: requisite specific abilities for effective teaching and the inclusion of certain cultural aspects in their training.

Requisite Specific Abilities for Effective Teaching

To gain experience in nomadic culture demands extensive field work to determine the adaptability of the teacher candidates to the nomadic lifestyle, their sociability, patience and endurance.

The nomadic teacher candidates must be given the opportunity to explore their potential for teaching nomadic children through real experience with young nomads and their parents. That is, they need to be given a reality base right from the start of their training programme through involvement in discussion with nomadic parents and trying to identify with their problems, interests and needs. This will enable them to find out what the nomads want their children to be taught.

Such field experience is a time of real self-testing during which the teacher trainee will undergo considerable stress and tension. The teacher trainer must be someone who has undergone such an experience so that he/she can alleviate much of the students' stress through close expert advice. During their period of internship students should be brought together to discuss their experiences, indicate problems and suggest approaches for their solution.

Because working with small groups of nomadic children involves greater individualisation of instruction than working with large groups of children, the preparation of the trainee must reflect individualised training. The individual trainees' peculiarities should be identified by the trainer and adequate help and encouragement should be given on individual bases.

The main purpose of such field experience is to produce dedicated and enthusiastic teachers who will be able to cope with demanding and challenging situations, work closely with nomadic families and learn about them by fitting in with the timing of their lives. This will help the trainees to gain the confidence of both the nomadic parents and their children and help the children to lose their fear of non-nomadic teachers.

Cultural Areas to be Included in Training

It is important at this point to examine certain cultural values of the nomadic Fulani in order to provide a guide for the training of nomadic teachers. Culture not only influences every aspect of learning, but it also influences the ways of establishing rapport and communication and the effectiveness of educational variables, ethnic differences and teaching methods.(8)

Because of the peculiar nature of their mode of life as people constantly on the move, nomads have developed ways in which the education of their young is managed. Obviously the way Fulani pastoralists perceive themselves is directly related to the nomadic way of life. They differ from sedentary people in the way they design their life and the upbringing of their children. Their teaching strategies, which emanate from the aims of their traditional education, may also be effective in organising formal teaching for their children. In order to get the nomadic children and the school system to adapt to each other, it is important for the teacher to know their cultural values on things like their learning orientation, motivation and authority patterns.

Learning Orientation

The use of the shift system for herding work is one of the learning-teaching strategies in the cultural setting of the nomadic Fulani. Children tend to learn herding techniques from members of their family rather than from non-members of their family. The trend of the findings concerning the learning orientation of male nomadic children is that they identify more closely with members of their immediate family - fathers and brothers - than with their uncles and their fathers' friends.(9) When looking for herding labour, it is difficult for any nomadic family to employ members of other family groups.

This means that the nomadic Fulani culture does not permit a strict apprenticeship system whereby the children learn herding techniques from other nomads outside their family circle and are thereby exposed to the influence of other people. This means that much of the learning strengths of

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the nomadic children derive from the close-knit structure of their family. From birth, the young nomads are surrounded by parents, brothers and sisters who seem to have time to spend in teaching them how to care for the herd through demonstrations and oral instructions. Their exposure to other people outside their family circle is limited. This partly explains the reason for their fear of non-Fulani teachers in the nomadic schools in Ningi.

As a result of such fear, Nnorom observed that one of the obstacles to effective learning of the migrant child at school in Ningi was the poor teacher-pupil relationship. According to him "the teachers are out of touch with the nomadic children because they are ignorant of their sociability temperament and social and personal background".(10)

The implication of the close identification of nomadic children, in their learning orientation, with members of their immediate family is that they will stay longer with teachers with whom they can form some kind of identity. This could be one of the major reasons nomadic parents "preferred" residential and visiting teachers for their children. Obviously the nomadic children are sensitive to the human environment and will do well when placed in learning settings where they relate directly to their teachers and other children as a group. They will also learn effectively where the elder brother relationship situation is introduced.(11)

Motivation

Very closely related to learning orientation is the motivation of Cattle Fulani children in their herding achievement. Studies in Cattle Fulani children's motivation revealed that nomadic children are motivated to achieve more for their family and herding group than they are motivated for personal achievement.(12)

The means of motivating young nomads to achieve success are through praise and blame. Contrary to the expectation of most people that severe punishment is used by older relations to get young nomads motivated to achieve success in herding tasks, parents use praise and less severe punishments to encourage young nomads to herd well. They also motivate their sons through appealing to their sense of duty, cajoling them by telling them how well they have herded and how much they appreciate their sons' co-operation.

The implication of this finding is that the family and group feeling permeates the Cattle Fulani child's learning orientation with the result that the young nomad does not work hard in herding simply for individual praise. Cattle herding by its very nature demands collective group effort to ensure large herds for the survival of the family. In practising shifts in herding, parents encourage young nomads to work in groups and to accept collective responsibility. To strengthen such co-operation, parents praise herding groups for success achieved in herding or blame the group for herding failures instead of praising or blaming individuals. Such

motivational orientation has implications for teaching strategy. Activities which emphasise the development of the skills for all the members of the herding group instead of mere self-improvement may be more successful with Cattle Fulani children than those activities which place emphasis only on individual improvement. Activities which require co-operation rather than individually based competition will reflect the learning style of the nomadic child.

Authority Patterns

The leadership of a herding group is an important aspect of authority patterns in nomadic culture. The learning of herding techniques is not given to chance. Effective leadership is used in the deliberate effort of parents and older children to instruct the young nomads through examples and oral instruction on how to herd well.

To benefit from such instruction, it is customary for younger children to obey the herding instructions of their older relations. They are also expected to apply what they have been taught conscientiously, under the watchful eyes of their older relations. Younger children discuss herding problems and successes with their older brothers who lead the group. Through such discussions younger children learn more about herding problems and how to solve them.

The acceptance by young nomads of people performing leadership roles in their culture, has implications for formal teaching strategies. Educational activities in which older relations instruct young ones may succeed in establishing "ruga" or on-site teaching for nomadic children because structurally, the pastoral Fulbe culture makes provision for the younger children to learn from the older ones and for children approaching puberty to assume leadership roles.

Motivation of "Ruga" Teachers

In the light of the repellent rural conditions discussed above, teachers recruited to teach in nomadic schools deserve differential treatment from the Government. Apart from an enhanced salary scale, they should be provided with easy means of movement from one "ruga" cluster to another and comfortable tent living apartments.

The efforts made by nomadic teachers should be rewarded through publicising them within the community and the State. The climate in which these teachers would want to do their best should be created. This will include involving them in problem identification, assigning responsibilities and giving them the freedom to look for solutions. They should be praised for any successes and positively encouraged to provide the needs of nomadic children.

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Conclusion

The special selection and training of nomadic teachers is necessary for two reasons: firstly, to produce teachers who can live and work in harmony with conservative, hard working and persevering nomads. Secondly, to produce teachers who would not mind isolation, shortages, inconveniences of unannounced sudden movements, harsh wet and dry weather, and who would learn to provide a relevant and useful educational programme for both nomadic children and parents by drawing from a common educational frame of reference.

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