CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

The first part of this introductory chapter aims at putting the study in its conceptual, social and educational context. The country that is being studied is a very small African country that most of the people are not familiar with, let alone having heard about. The nature of Uganda's history has been turbulent, and therefore the reader needs to understand the exact circumstances prevailing at the time the study was being conducted.

In the second part of the chapter there is a statement of the problem under investigation; a list of the objectives of the study and the hypotheses developed in line with them; the rationale and importance of the study; a definition of the terms used; the delimitations, scope and assumptions of the study.

1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.2.1 CONCEPTUAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

If a student were to listen to the expressed likes and dislikes of the people around him, he would soon notice that many more dislikes were being expressed than likes. People have a tendency to express their dissatisfactions. Why are these people dissatisfied? What reasons do they give? With what are you dissatisfied in your field? (Rummel, 1964)

These are the questions that not only Rummel (1964) asks, but questions that face educational administrators and educational planners as well. If the function of school administration is to plan for and set up the channels through which the aims of education may be realised (Bedi & Kapoor, 1974), then the "realisers" of education - that is, the teachers - must be facilitated to perform their task effectively.
People enter the teaching profession in search of the satisfaction of their varied needs. Behavioural scientists have categorised the needs of a human being as physiological needs, security/safety needs, social needs, esteem, and self-actualization, in ascending order.

A teacher will only be satisfied with his or her job when s/he perceives that there is little or no difference between what s/he expects from the job and what s/he actually receives from it (Singh, 1987). Before the serious studies on workers' morale and job satisfaction were conducted, pay was assumed to be the only factor that employees could be satisfied or dissatisfied about. Mayo (1933) and his colleagues changed the picture from the one of "economic man" to that of the "social man". A further analysis that was key in this study was that of Herzberg (1968) which described job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as two independent factors: job satisfaction is caused by "motivators" that relate directly to the job itself, like achievement, recognition for accomplishment, increased responsibility and growth and development, while job dissatisfaction emanates from concern about "hygiene" or environmental factors like supervision, school policies and administration, interpersonal relationships, money, status and security. This means that factors that influence job satisfaction or motivation are derived intrinsically from the job itself and have little influence on job dissatisfaction; those factors influencing job dissatisfaction are peripheral to the job and have little effect on satisfaction and motivation. In fact, there is a neutral point at which employees are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their jobs. In this case, employees simply perform at the minimum acceptable level in order to keep their jobs. One can see this in the indifference that some teachers exhibit as they go about their job.

The term "job" is loosely used to refer to that occupation from which somebody earns a living, and more so, narrowed down to the eight-hour clock; however, a job is a whole way of life (Singh, 1986; Singh, 1987). It permeates a person's physical, social, mental, emotional, psychological and spiritual part of life, and that is why studies that relate to job satisfaction have their roots in these fields.

The different aspects that constitute one's personality do not operate in a vacuum. People behave the way they do as a result of interaction with external factors, both concrete and abstract. In the teaching profession, concrete factors are the superiors, colleagues, students, auxiliary workers, coupled with the physical surroundings and the objects in them. The abstract factors include perceptions, culture, ideologies and relationships. Studies in management have analysed these interrelationships, observing that the sum of all these
interactions makes a school what it is - distinct from all others. Halpin (1966) has defined the social interaction between the teachers and their heads as "Organisational Climate."

Ever since the concept of organisational climate came into existence, there has been a tremendous amount of literature written and studies done on it. However, during the period when investigators all over the world were taking a keen interest in organisational climate, Uganda was experiencing a time of intellectual stagnation, so to say (Hansen & Twaddle, 1988; Mutibwa, 1992). Noteworthy is the fact that very little comprehensive research was done on the Ugandan educational system during the period 1971 - 1990. In Uganda's records, real research-oriented higher degree work on educational issues only dates back to 1983, and most of this was done at the Master's level. Even at the time of writing this report, there was no study that had so far been done on organisational climate or its relationship to teacher job satisfaction in secondary schools in Uganda.

1.2.2 SOCIAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

When Sir Winston Churchill visited Africa, he was taken up by a very small and beautiful country which he called "A Fairy Tale - The Pearl of Africa", and that is the phrase by which Uganda is popularly known (Churchill, 1908). The word "Uganda" itself is a Kiswahili word "U-Ganda" meaning "The land of the Ganda." It was so named because the Ganda are the largest group of people here. Furthermore, at the time the foreigners came to East Africa, Buganda was (and still is) the largest and most powerful kingdom in the geographical area of what today is known as Uganda (Atlas of Uganda, 1967; Kiwanuka, 1971; Nsibambi, 1978; Karugire, 1980; Dodge & Raundalen, 1987).

Uganda is located on the eastern plateau of the African continent, about 2000 kilometres inland from the Indian Ocean, and it lies astride the equator between latitudes 4° N and 1°S, and longitudes 30°E and 35°E. The neighbouring countries are Kenya in the East, Tanzania in the South, Rwanda in the South-West, the Democratic Republic of Congo (former Zaire) in the West, and Sudan in the North.

Uganda covers a geographical area of 241,038km$^2$, and its population is about 20 million people, with an annual growth of 2.5%. The majority of the population comprises peasants (88.7%). Ideal weather conditions prevail for most of the year - one of the most conducive in
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Africa - ranging from the warmth of the lowland areas to the coolness of the highlands. The average temperature is 26°C with a mean maximum of 18°C-35°C and mean minimum of 8°C-23°C depending on the part of the country. The country is endowed with fertile soils and a dense natural interconnecting network of rivers, lakes and swamps. There is one salt lake, one crater lake and 5 fresh water lakes that include Lake Victoria, the second largest fresh water lake in the world, which is also the source of the legendary River Nile. Uganda receives adequate rainfall ranging from 500mm-2500mm and has a relative humidity of 70%-100%. Wet seasons are from December to February and June to August.

Uganda boasts of unique natural biological and physical tourist attractions (cf. Churchill, 1908; Austin, 1973; Collison, 1981; Dodge & Raundalen, 1987; Corbluth, 1988). These range from rare animal and plant species to the eight national parks and the spectacular mountains and landscapes (including the Rwenzori "Mountains of the Moon" and the semi-temperate Kigezi Highlands known as "The Little Switzerland of Africa"). There are also the breathtaking Owen, Bujagali and Murchison water falls, coupled with numerous attractive beaches. Part of the tourist menu are the Ugandan people with their rich traditions, culture and hospitality - in Churchill's (1908) words, "An Island of Good Manners."

Uganda is a member of the British Commonwealth. It got its independence from Britain on 9th October 1962. When the colonial machinery was withdrawn, there was a shortage in skilled manpower to run the system which had been left behind, and so the process of training Ugandans for the different tasks began. However, in 1971 General Idi Amin staged a coup d'état; this was the beginning of a politico-socio-economic nightmare, from which the country could be said to have only begun to recover in the 1990s (Karugire, 1980; Bwengye, 1985; Dodge & Raundalen, 1987; Hansen & Twaddle, 1988, 1991, 1995; Museveni, 1997). In Maxwell's (1995) words, "The period from 1971 until the late 1980s was characterised by institutional breakdown, rapid economic decline, and civil strife." Then, those who were forced to stay did so, but a large number left for safer or greener pastures, leading to massive brain drain. Nevertheless, since the ushering in of the National Resistance Movement (NRM) government led by Yoweri Kaguta Museveni in 1986, the country has made rapid progress and it enjoys a relatively stable political and economic atmosphere in Subsaharan Africa (Museveni, 1997). Today it is said to have the fastest growing economy on the African continent (also, cf. Indo-Uganda, 1998).
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The Organisation for African Unity (OAU), of which Uganda is a member, strives to bring African nations together in all aspects of life. Uganda is also a member of the revived East African Co-operation which comprises Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania (Treaty for East African Co-operation, 1967; Dodge & Raundalen, 1987) and also a member of the largest regional economic block - the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA) - which comprises 22 countries.

After years of successive coups d'état, Uganda now has a functional constitution and a democratically elected government whose term runs for five (5) years (also, cf. Mutibwa, 1992; Hansen & Twaddle, 1995). The system of government has been termed "Movement"; it is supposed to be non-partisan and broad-based (NRM Ten-Point Programme, 1985; Museveni, 1985). The supreme law-making organ is the parliament. The country is divided into 40 administrative units known as Districts, which are empowered to carry out much of the administrative work delegated to them as a result of the recent decentralisation. There are also five non-political kingdoms whose major task is to promulgate the cultures of its members (cf. Kiwanuka, 1971; Nsibambi, 1978). Kampala, the capital city, has a population of about 1 million people. Jinja, in the east of the country, is a major industrial town.

Agriculture is the driving force behind Uganda's economy. Agricultural activities are based on crops, livestock, fisheries and forestry resources. Agriculture contributes 66% of Uganda's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 99% of export revenue. It employs over 80% of the labour force, and is dominated by small farm holders (also, cf. Hansen & Twaddle, 1988; Todaro, 1984; Kato, 1996). Only tea and sugarcane are grown in large estates. Coffee is the single largest earner of foreign exchange and a major source of income in rural areas. At the moment, Uganda is the number one coffee producer in Africa. Other major cash crops are tea and cotton. The fishing and livestock sectors are recovering rapidly.

The Ugandan shilling has enjoyed stability over the past eight years, and it is fully convertible with other currencies. The management of the exchange rate has been fully liberalised and forex bureaux cater for transactions over the counter. Privatisation and the attraction of investors have been one of the major features of the NRM era (also, cf. Hansen & Twaddle, 1991).

Uganda enjoys substantial freedom of the press and the media, with a large variety of newspapers, magazines, radio and television broadcasts both in English and the local
languages. Uganda has a literacy level of about 56%. English is the official language. Although there is no national language, Luganda is very widely spoken and Kiswahili is spoken as well as understood by a number of people.

The area now known as Uganda is occupied by people of diverse ethnic origins and cultural backgrounds (also, cf. Mbiti, 1969; White, 1975). The relation between ethnic affiliation and the area of residence is changing because of the movement of people, particularly to Buganda in search of economic opportunities. However, membership in the ethnic community is still very significant. The language of communication in the home and kinship and marriage ties are still very much regulated by intra-ethnic customs, which in Uganda are very complex (Dodge & Raundalen, 1987). The Atlas of Uganda (1967) lists 43 different tribal and ethnic groups, falling into four main categories: Bantu (19), Nilotic (6), Nilo-Hamitic (8), Sudanic (3), and others (7). However, it can be said that there are 5 main language groups, some having several dialects. These regional languages are Luganda, widely spoken in the Central Region; Luo in the Northern Region; Ateso/Akarimojong in the East; Runyakitara which is the common name used for Runyakore-Rukiga and Runyoro-Ruroro in the Western and South-Western parts of Uganda, and Lugbara in the North-West. Kupsebiny stands out on its own in Kapchorwa District. With such a diversity of tribes with different cultures, national unity becomes a problem that the leaders have to consistently contend with (cf. Rodney, 1972; NRM Ten-Point Programme, 1985; Dodge & Raundalen, 1987; Mudoola, 1993; Museveni, 1985, 1997). Another factor which has further complicated the process of nation-building in Uganda is religion. Strong religious animosities stemming from the historical past have tended to hinder the development of a national ideology of collective survival (Rodney, 1972; Mudoola, 1993; Dodge & Raundalen, 1987). The majority of people have Christian affiliations (Protestants and Catholics), followed by about one-third Muslims and the rest still adhere to traditional African beliefs.

Other challenges facing Ugandan leaders include educating the populace; addressing equity problems, especially as far as the distribution of resources and the discrimination against women are concerned; planning for education and keeping people working at their jobs within the country, especially since there has been a history of brain drain. Some of these issues are discussed in more detail later on.

1 The concept of "tribe" has been used by anthropologists and other social scientists to distinguish between people in Africa who speak different languages and have different cultural traits, although that term is not applied to European peoples of similarly different ethnic origins (Dodge & Raundalen, 1967).
MAP OF UGANDA SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF TRIBES
Map of Uganda showing Buganda and Busoga Regions.
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The Buganda and Busoga Regions

The definition of the geographical designation of "region" in Uganda is subject to what one desires to look at. There are the big divisions that are officially defined as regions in Uganda and these encompass several tribes. These are Central Region, Northern Region, Eastern Region and Western Region. Buganda and Busoga are smaller divisions (regions) within the Central and Eastern Regions.

In Buganda Region, the major local language spoken is Luganda, since Buganda is the traditional home of the Baganda people. The capital city, Kampala, is located in this area, and therefore there are many people from different tribes who have settled there. Buganda is the largest, as well as geographically and economically the most viable political unit of Uganda. Buganda Region comprises 10 districts: Kalangala, Kampala, Kiboga, Luwero, Masaka, Mpigi, Mubende, Mukono, Rakai and the recently-created Sembabule district.

Busoga Region is chiefly inhabited by the Basoga people, and the major local language spoken there is Lusoga. Although some areas in Busoga are urbanised, the region contains some of the least urbanised areas and some of the poorest people in the country. Busoga has four districts: Jinja, Kamuli, Iganga (which is the district with the largest population in the country) and the newly-created district of Bugiri.

The society in which the Ugandan teacher works is a diverse one. Although it is set in a very beautiful geographical area, it has experienced very difficult political and economic times. Uganda today is at an important period of recovery from the wounds of its past, and it is on the road to national reconstruction. The outcomes of studies such as this one are the one of the focal strengths of Uganda's recovery and its path to progress.

1.3 THE UGANDAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The purpose of this section is to give a brief overview of the educational arena by first looking at the advent of formal education in Uganda; understanding the goals and objectives of education in Uganda; the different aspects and levels of the educational system; teacher education; the Ugandan teacher today; administration of secondary education, and current issues in the educational field. These different aspects of the system place today's teacher in
a situation that is uniquely different from any other that has been, and is yet to come. Even
as we study the teacher's working environment and his/her attitude towards the teaching job,
the whole issue of the interaction between these factors needs to be understood in the
context of what has been going on, and perhaps what has been envisaged for the future.

Many people have taken an interest in the history of education in Uganda, but this study
mostly utilised the work of Sekamwa and Lugumba (1973) to retrace the steps that education
has taken since it was introduced in Uganda. The Education Policy Review Commission's
[EPRC (1989)] contributions have also been largely used here, especially concerning the
current educational practices in Uganda. Other major sources used in this section are: Lewis

1.3.1 THE ADVENT OF FORMAL EDUCATION TO UGANDA

Education has always been regarded as the means by which a society passes on both values
and skills to the future generation. In pre-colonial times, there existed various forms of
education within the different tribes that are found in Uganda. For many of the tribes, certain
"groups" of knowledge - which today would be recognised as subjects - were compulsory, and
these could be considered to be what comprised a tribe's formal education. When the White
Man came with clearly defined curricula and class levels, the definition of formal education
changed, and it is this definition which has been used in this study.

Till 1925, practically all education was in the hands of the Protestant and Catholic missions.
The missionaries had some sort of institution in the majority of districts comprising Uganda,
which was a British Protectorate at that time. However, while they did their best to improve
educational facilities, their overzealous approach to religion made their institutions produce
educated Roman Catholics or Protestants rather than educated Ugandans. Their effort was
focused on making their converts literate so that they could refresh their religious knowledge
in their homes by reading books provided by the missions. With time the missionaries
recognised the need of a form of education designed to help build the character of the pupils,
and to prepare them for a wider world in which they would live.
1.3.2 THE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION IN UGANDA

According to the EPRC (1989) Report [also, cf. NRM Ten-Point Programme, 1985], national goals should be translated into practical and feasible aims of education directed to meeting the needs of the individual, the community, and the nation at large. Different aspects of the six major aims of education in Uganda are emphasised at different levels of the school system. Briefly, these are (i) the promotion of understanding and appreciation of the value of national unity, patriotism, cultural heritage and beneficial international interdependence; (ii) the inculcation of moral, ethical and spiritual values in the individual and to develop self-discipline, integrity, tolerance, human fellowship and respect for public property; (iii) to inculcate a sense of service, duty and leadership for participation and public accountability in civic, social and national affairs; (iv) to promote scientific, technical and cultural knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for development; (v) to eradicate illiteracy and to equip the individual with basic skills and knowledge to exploit the environment for self-development, better health, nutrition, family life and capability for continued learning and (vi) to contribute to the building of an integrated and self-sustaining national economy. Even as we study the organisational climate of schools and job satisfaction of teachers, the goals of education in Uganda are a focal point, and therefore we ask ourselves whether schools are working towards the realisation of these goals.

In 1924, Trustees of the Phelps-Stokes Fund (USA) sent a team of ten educational experts to tour Tropical Africa. In its report, the Commission pointed out that much of the weakness of the education system in Uganda was due to the absence of a Government Department of Education and Government Inspectors of Schools. It was therefore recommended that the Protectorate Government should set up a Department of Education without further delay. The Commission was concerned that the missionaries had failed to relate their educational activities to the needs of both the pupil and the community as a whole; therefore it stressed the needs of the pupil, and the needs of the community. Noteworthy here is that this, in fact, has continued to be the emphasis of the EPRC which has continued to lament the decline in the quality of education in the country. Furthermore, the Phelps-Stokes Commission was very critical of the free use of high-sounding names for schools whose actual standard was far below what the name would suggest, and it therefore recommended that a new classification be undertaken with Makerere University at the top. It seems that this very issue will have to be readdressed because of the numerous high-sounding private schools that are now mushrooming in Uganda.
1.3.3 THE DIFFERENT ASPECTS AND LEVELS OF THE UGANDAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The education system that was set up in 1938 has undergone some modifications, but its basic set-up is still in operation. The main examining body at the primary and secondary school levels is the Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB).

1.3.3.1 Primary School Education

From 1938 to the early 1960s, primary school education provided a six-year course, and English was the medium of instruction from Primary 5. The seven-year structure of primary school education has been in operation since the 1963 Castle Commission Report (EPRC, 1989). The compulsory subjects taught at this level are English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. In addition, handicrafts, computer and home science are included as co-curricular activities depending on the school and the availability of resources. The major objectives at this level are the basic and functional literacy for children in the age group of 6-13.

1.3.3.2 Secondary School Education

Originally, Junior Secondary School comprised Primary 7, Primary 8 and one more class. It was later replaced by the four-year post-primary Ordinary Level ('O' Level) which comprises Senior 1 to Senior 4, and its terminal examination is the Uganda Certificate of Education (U.C.E.). Different subjects are offered by different schools, but English and Mathematics are compulsory. In order to obtain the U.C.E. certificate, one has to sit for at least eight subjects. The EPRC (1989) observed that Senior 1 and Senior 2 cover a great deal of revision work from Primary 7 plus some introduction to secondary school work, while the actual and meaningful teaching of secondary level subjects usually starts in Senior 3 - and its emphasis is the passing of the U.C.E. There is very little emphasis put on vocational subjects and most of the secondary schools are inadequately equipped with facilities for teaching science subjects. Therefore, the Commission recommended that three types of secondary schools be established, namely: (i) General Secondary Schools offering mainly academic subjects with one vocational subject; (ii) Comprehensive Secondary Schools offering a multi-purpose
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curriculum; and (iii) Vocational Secondary Schools offering a range of specialised vocational subjects.

Initially, Senior Secondary School offered a three year course, but today this level runs for two years, and is called Advanced Level ('A' Level) or Higher School Certificate (H.S.C). Successful completion of H.S.C. qualifies one for the Uganda Advanced Level Certificate of Education (U.A.C.E.). At this level, students have to sit for a minimum of three principal subjects and not more than four subjects, together with the compulsory subsidiary General Paper. It is at this level that the students begin to specialise either in the Science subjects or in the Arts subject.

In Uganda, there is a wide range of schools from which one can obtain secondary education. There are secondary schools that are single-sex, co-educational, government-aided, privately-run, single-shift, multiple-shift, boarding (residential), day (non-residential), schools that offer only Ordinary ('O') Level, those that offer only Advanced ('A') Level and those that offer both levels.

1.3.3.3 Higher Education

In Uganda, the terms "Tertiary" and "Higher Education" are used interchangeably to refer to the advanced level of education offered beyond the full course of secondary education.

From the early 1920s, Makerere College provided higher education for East Africans. It was held in high esteem, and the training it offered made a mark on its students (cf. Dodge & Raundalen, 1987). It was renamed Makerere University College, and in 1970 when it became a full-fledged university, it was named Makerere University Kampala. Owing to an unfavourable political and economic climate, the years 1972 - 1986 saw a stagnation in the otherwise fast upward trend that the university had taken. Nevertheless, since 1987 every effort has been made to provide more and more facilities for programmes to meet Uganda's manpower needs and requirements. Many new faculties have been introduced, as well as many new programmes within the old faculties. Many more people are now able to obtain higher degrees in many more fields than before, and facilities have improved greatly, mainly as a result of donations from overseas. The number of students and staff have shot up and the university continues to enjoy the prestige, in respect of standards, that it has always enjoyed, and remains the prized goal of all Ugandans aspiring for higher education.
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Today, tertiary education is offered in universities, polytechnics, institutes, colleges, and other such institutions that are affiliated to them. The objectives of higher education are somewhat different from those of the other two levels in that they aim to produce high level manpower and they serve as a storehouse of knowledge and centre of excellence through research and the publishing of books, journals and research papers.

1.3.3.4 Technical and Vocational Education

The major aims of technical and vocational education include the production of craftsmen, technicians and other skilled personnel to meet the demands of industry, agriculture and commerce. Unfortunately, there has been a negative attitude towards this type of education which is treated as an inferior type of education, traditionally reserved for those who lacked resources to go in for the academic type of programmes (Epeju, 1996). One of the major challenges facing educationists today is how to change this negative attitude towards this type of education, and to attract the best students with aptitude for such education. This is especially so since the problem of unemployment is getting out of hand, and even when the school leavers are willing to go to rural areas as time and again they have been advised, they lack the appropriate skills for the life and needs of the rural environment. The students who have completed courses at technical institutes expect to undergo further apprenticeship training in order to meet the requirements of industry as skilled workers. It would be useful for students to learn some business management techniques of small enterprises at technical institutes, but at present there are no post-secondary institutions which offer integrated technical and business management courses.

Currently, Technical Schools are post-primary institutions which award a Uganda Junior Technical Certificate (UJTC) at the end of a three-year course. Technical Institutions then admit the general secondary school leavers with UCE and UJTC holders who have adequate field experience. At the next level, Uganda Technical Institutes (UTCs) admit students holding UACE with science subjects from the Advanced Level of general secondary education as well as holders of the Full Technical Certificate (FTC). Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo (UPK) offers both an Ordinary Diploma and a Higher Diploma in technical subjects.
1.4 ADMINISTRATION AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

For a long time, the ownership and management of schools remained in the hands of the mission groups. Indeed, until Uganda's independence in 1962, the Protectorate Government confined its role in primary and secondary education to making grants to the missions, teacher-training, and undertaking general overall supervision.

The 1942 Education Ordinance spelt out rules that would govern the management of schools which received Government grants-in-aid. There was to be a Board of Governors (BOG) to control the educational policy of these schools subject to any general directions from the Director of Education in consultation with the Advisory Council for African Education, with religious matters being subject to directions from the supreme denominational authority. In some schools today, the influence of religious bodies is still pronounced.

Boards of Governors operate in much the same way today as then (also, cf. Sekamwa, 1996b). There were to be 3 government nominees, and 5 members elected by the chairman and nominated members. One third of the members retired at the end of every school year but they were eligible for re-election. The Headmaster is required to present business to the Board and attend all its meetings, although he has no vote. The Board has to meet at least once every year.

The Headteacher is personally responsible for the academic, social and internal organisation and conduct of the school. However, the teachers are also expected to fully participate in the administration of the school, and in cases where this is not so, the teachers complain. The major devices that enable the smooth running of schools largely comprise staff meetings, the students' prefect body and general assemblies for the students. All members of the school are expected to adhere to school rules and regulations. The Bursar's office deals with school accounts. In some schools there are offices of Director of Studies and Examinations Master/Mistress, and all schools have a Games Master/Mistress. There are various subject departments, and clubs also have various teachers as their patrons.

One observation about secondary school administration in Uganda is that it is no exception to the world trend: women are under-represented in this area. However, it is hoped that with
the education of girls and the emphasis on women taking up administrative posts, this trend will change.

The administration of the school falls under that of the Ministry and District levels. At these higher levels, there is a Minister of Education and Sports, and this is a cabinet post. The Minister of Education and Sports is responsible for the administration of the Ministry, and is directly responsible to the President. Under the Minister of Education and Sports is the Permanent Secretary, which is a civil service post, and the Permanent Secretary organises and operates the Ministry. There are several divisions in the Ministry of Education and Sports: the Financial and Establishment Division, the Higher Education Division, the Schools and Colleges Division under which the Chief Education Officer falls, the Schools' and Colleges' Inspectorate Division, and the Planning and Statistical Division. All these work hand-in-hand to ensure the smooth running of educational services in the country.

1.5 THE UGANDAN TEACHER

1.5.1 TEACHER EDUCATION

Before the coming to Uganda of the missionaries and colonial administrators, "the homestead was the school, the fireplace the classroom and every where human activity took place was the laboratory" (Sekamwa & Lugumba, 1973). There were three groups of teachers then. The parents had to make sure that children grew with the knowledge of essential skills, customs and social behaviour within that particular community. The second set of teachers was the community itself; every adult person was responsible for condemning wrong social attitudes and behaviour, and showing a child the right thing to do, even if that child was not theirs. The third group was that of the professional teachers. These were men and women who possessed rare technical skills and medical knowledge within each group of people. The skilled iron smith or potter or knowledgeable medicine man or woman would teach his/her children the skill they had, and also other children who were sent to them to be brought up with such skills and knowledge. These three groups of teachers taught the young about how their group travelled from afar to occupy that area where they settled; the reasons for having left the original land; how their leaders fought and won or lost battles; the life of the land and the flora and fauna of their area. The coming of the missionaries saw these teachers
gradually pushed into the background, and now children were being taught about the River Thames, the English Channel, the American Mississippi, the Asian Ganges, the four "fantastic" European and American seasons, and how the Europeans had invaded and overpowered the natives of America. Besides these, the missionaries taught reading and writing, which were entirely new skills, and now what the Africans had learnt before in block style was given Anglo-Saxon names like History, Geography, Arithmetic, Religion, Hygiene, etc.

The aim of the missionaries was to spread churches as quickly as possible, but the teaching of the doctrine about God had to go hand-in-hand with the founding of schools whose primary aim would be the spread of secular knowledge connected with Christian principles. So the establishment of a church was followed by the establishment of a school. Slowly by slowly, the missionaries began to recruit Africans who would help them in their task. Initially, they chose the most brilliant and promising boys to teach the slow learners, and as they became more proficient, the missionaries would leave them at that station or send them to pioneer new outpost stations. These were the first teachers as we know them today.

After the establishment of the Education Department and the appointment of a Director of Education in 1925, the Government began to take an interest in the training of teachers. One of the first main requirements of the Education Department was that each missionary group should establish formal teacher training schools with qualified staff to train primary school teachers (secondary schools did not begin to operate seriously until the 1930s, and even then, they were staffed by Europeans). Each missionary society responded by setting up Teachers' Schools (or Normal Schools as they were often referred to), and these schools served linguistic areas as the teachers were to teach predominantly in the vernacular of the given areas.

Makerere College began running a teachers' course in 1925. It was this teachers' course which gave birth to the prominent Faculty of Education (now the School of Education) at Makerere University, Kampala. By 1929 students began to come from the rest of East Africa to attend the course at Makerere.

During the 1940s, the education of the teacher underwent major changes that were aimed at raising standards in the whole educational system of the country. The students joining the teachers' colleges before 1940 were in two categories: the vernacular teachers who taught Primary 1 to Primary 4 in the vernacular languages, and were trained at vernacular training
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centres; then there was the category of teachers who were attending a teachers' course at Makerere College for three years after their junior secondary school education, and these taught Primary 5 and Primary 6. It was out of this group of teachers that a few African Headmasters for some primary schools were first appointed.

In 1946, the missionaries started Junior Secondary teachers' courses (Grade 3) at three centres, and the Government began one in 1948. By 1962, only the Government-founded college (Mbarara) - which had then been moved to Kyambogo - conducted Grade 3 teacher-training courses. When Junior Secondary School was abolished, the Grade 3 teachers became staff for the upper primary school classes. However, Kyambogo no longer produces Grade 3 teachers; it is the Uganda Teachers' Colleges (U.T.Cs) that do this training.

When Makerere College began to grant degrees to students in 1953, the Faculty of Education extended its diploma course to postgraduate students who wanted to teach. Whereas the first group of students with the Higher School Certificate (HSC) level of general education spent two years in teacher training, the postgraduate students spent one year. In 1963, the diploma course for non-graduates was phased out at Makerere College and transferred to the then National Teachers' College, Kyambogo.

The Faculty of Education continued (and continues) to run the diploma course for one year for those who were interested in teacher training after getting their degrees. This is the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (P.G.D.E.). The course that Makerere University now runs is the Bachelor of Arts/Science with Education (B.A./B.SC. + ED), which is a 3-year course consisting of the three standard university terms, plus a fourth term which is practical teaching. These students take two subjects either in the Arts or Science Faculties concurrently with the Diploma in Education. They then go on to teach in secondary schools.

The diploma for non-graduates at the Institute of Teacher Education, Kyambogo (ITEK) [formerly the National Teachers' College, Kyambogo] continues to breed certain undesirable consequences in the education system. This diploma allows its graduates to teach competently up to Senior 4 level. However, Sekamwa & Lugumba (1973) stipulate that research has shown that where these diploma holders are paired with graduate teachers, they are accepted reluctantly by the students whom they teach, who erroneously feel that they should only be taught by teachers with degrees. Secondly, the diploma graduates themselves do not feel secure and at ease in a school where their colleagues who hold degrees do not treat them quite as their equals, and are likely to delegate to them responsibilities of an inferior nature; besides, they are paid less money than the degree
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holders and are even given less attractive houses in a school. Sometimes this creates problems in professional relations between the two groups of teachers. Thirdly, to safeguard themselves, these diploma holders naturally seek opportunities to get entry to Makerere University or to another university through a government bursary or scholarship. This practice has meant that the government pays twice for such people’s education.

The Role of Kyambogo

In order to better the courses for teacher education and to help construct a progressive curriculum for schools in the country as well as trying out teaching materials and text books for schools, the National Institute of Education (NIE) was set up in 1949. However, for a long time, it was not clear as to what was the difference between the Makerere Faculty of Education and the NIE, and what their respective roles were: both were on the same spot and shared a library, teaching rooms and offices, and both were engaged in training teachers. In 1986, the Institute of Teacher Education, Kyambogo (ITEK) began to work hand-in-hand with the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC), and took over what the NIE was doing. It also embarked on training degree students in addition to the diploma students.

ITEK is responsible for the approval of syllabi used in 64 Primary Teachers’ Colleges and 10 National Teachers’ Colleges, and therefore it is in charge of quality in the teachers’ colleges. It is the only institution of higher learning that has consistently addressed primary education. During the 1980s and 1990s, ITEK diversified the courses it offered in order to address identified needs. The Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree is now offered as an upgrader course for those who hold a Diploma in Education and have taught for at least 3 years; there is now the Diploma in Teacher Education (DTE), the Diploma in Secondary Education (DSE), and the Diploma in Special Education (DSPE). However, the preparation of teaching of Special Education is now taking place at the Uganda National Institute of Special Education (UNISE) which is a separate institute from ITEK, although it is also located on Kyambogo hill. Kyambogo has the potential to develop into a University of Teacher Education, and plans are already underway to accomplish this.

To sum up, education, school and teachers as we know them today were introduced by the missionaries. The system of education has kept on undergoing changes but it has basically remained the same for the last 75 years or so. For teacher education, ITEK continues to play a major role in producing the required staff for both primary and secondary school levels.
1.5.2 EXPRESSING TEACHERS' NEEDS

When the teacher as we know him/her today appeared in Uganda, s/he enjoyed very high prestige among the community because it meant that s/he had not only mastered the White Man's knowledge but was also able to pass it on (Sekamwa & Lugumba, 1973). The teacher then emerged as a leader and a consultant in the community because s/he showed people how they could better their lives. Today, the situation is quite different, and a number of factors have led to this. Teaching is not considered to be a profession like other professions are; the teachers' code of ethics is no longer emphasised; the teacher is no longer held in high esteem, and the conditions under which s/he works are extremely deplorable. These issues are discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

So, what have the teachers done about this? During missionary days, the teachers at some point felt that the missionaries were treating them paternalistically (cf. Sekamwa & Lugumba, 1973). The missionaries kept a keen eye on the teacher in school and out of school; the African teachers were not paid their salaries during the school holidays, and they were assigned very many duties outside their official ones. However, as time went on, the teachers realised that once they had a certificate they could teach anywhere, and it no longer mattered whether or not they had a recommendation from a particular former employer. That was the beginning of the independence of the teachers from the missionaries. With this independence came the rise of the private schools, the first of which opened in 1925. The 1940s saw the gradual increase in private schools (Sekamwa & Lugumba, 1973).

Whereas till the late 1980s the private schools opened had all the basic necessities for opening up and operating a school, many of those which are mushrooming today lack these basics. A good number of them are not registered. The ones which are established in good faith (as opposed to purely financial reasons) have relieved the government of the burden of providing school for the increasing number of children who need to go to school. However, many government schools have lost very good teachers to these private schools which many times offer much higher salaries than do the government schools.

Apart from setting up private schools, the teachers realised that they needed to speak with one loud voice in order to be heard. There were very many divisions based on tribal animosities and denominational differences. The first attempt at bringing teachers together into one organisation in 1942 was by some teachers working at Nabumali High School near Mbale. They formed the African School Teacher Association (A.S.T.A.), and their example was followed by the teachers around Kampala in 1944 who named their association "the
Uganda African Teachers Association” (U.A.T.A.). In 1953 the Mbale group dissolved their association and joined the U.A.T.A. In 1958 the name of the association was changed to Uganda Teachers Association (U.T.A.) when it was realised that there were many teachers of other races, especially Indians, who would benefit by becoming members. Although the Government openly declared that it recognised only one teachers' association - the Uganda Teachers Association, there are still some teachers' associations that run along more specific lines, for example, the Uganda Christian Teachers’ Association.

Briefly, the aims of the UTA are: (a) to unite all teachers in Uganda; (b) to promote and maintain the interests and welfare of its members; (c) to render the teaching profession attractive to the rising generation of Uganda; (d) to maintain a high standard of qualification, to raise the status of the teaching profession, and to ensure that all the posts in the educational services in the country are open to members; (e) to enable members to receive fair treatment in whatever part of Uganda they may be and under whatever institution they may be working; (f) to make representations to the Government and local authorities to invoke their aid for safeguarding and promoting the moral, social and economic life of the members, and (g) to affiliate with local, national and international bodies connected with or interested in the education of the child.

1.6 CURRENT ISSUES IN UGANDAN EDUCATION

(i) In the 1920s, the question of what the medium of instruction in Uganda should be was a lengthy debate. To some people, Kiswahili seemed to be the answer; although there have been recommendations that Kiswahili be taught in schools, the language has still failed to take root in the community, unlike the cases of Kenya and Tanzania. This is because of the unpleasant associations that have accompanied the Kiswahili language in Uganda over the years: Indian masters used Kiswahili when addressing their Ugandan juniors, and often this was in an abusive way; indeed, even the indigenes resorted to Kiswahili when exchanging unpleasant words, and whenever they went out to rob. This was partly because Kiswahili was considered to be the language of the army and was therefore associated with force and brutality. Nevertheless, Kiswahili was taught in Teso, Lango, Acholi and West Nile before 1940 and today a number of schools offer it as an examinable subject.

(ii) Another major debate that has been going on in the country has been the issue of a national language. Many people are of the view that it is desirable for Uganda to have at least one national language as a basis for national unity, the facilitation of communication
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and literacy throughout the country, and the effective communication across regional borders. This seems to point to Kiswahili, but as has been mentioned earlier, Kiswahili has its own problems. The second choice would be Luganda since a large percentage of Ugandans already know some Luganda because they come to the capital for various reasons, and the effect of Luganda in Eastern Uganda has been very great. The Western part of Uganda would learn Luganda easily since their languages (Bantu) are related to Luganda. That would leave out areas in Northern Uganda. Moreover, there has been a reluctance to turn a tribal language into a national language, the argument being that this promotes inferiority-superiority complex, not only for tribes, but also for ethnic groupings. As this is being worked out, the EPRC recommends that various languages be taught at different levels: in primary school, the mother tongue being used as the medium of instruction in all educational programmes up to Primary 4; the area language to be taught as an examinable subject in primary schools; the teaching of Kiswahili to be strengthened at secondary school level in order to prepare for the training of teachers of Kiswahili (also, cf. P'Chong, 1996).

(iii) Uganda has introduced **Universal Primary Education** (UPE), and 1997 witnessed the first group of its beneficiaries. At present, free education is being offered for four biological children per family. However, many people are critical of the whole venture because the necessary infrastructure to implement the programme is not in place: apart from the insufficiency of funds to supply stationery to the pupils and pay the teachers, there are not enough buildings to accommodate the sudden overload of children. This has resulted in the conclusion that the actual purpose of the programme and the whole aim of primary education has been defeated since apart from the fact that the non-paid demotivated teachers are unwilling to teach, those teachers who are willing to teach in spite of everything cannot actually teach effectively owing to the very large numbers of pupils that have been forced on them.

In many cases in Uganda, the girl-child is discriminated against when it comes to education, especially in the rural areas where parents see the girl-child principally as a home maker, or in some cases, an income asset when it comes to giving her away in marriage. On the other hand, the poorest in the rural areas genuinely do not have enough money to educate all the children in the family, so they would rather spend the money on the boy-child whom they believe will help the family in future since he is expected to be an income earner rather than merely a home-maker. Therefore, it is hoped that UPE, which has been regarded as a way of addressing the inequity in the schooling of boys and girls, will tilt the balance in favour of the girl-child. Furthermore, for the last five or so years, girls have been given an extra one-and-a-half points when they are being considered for entry to the tertiary level. However, the
effect of this on the entry at tertiary level has not been felt much since the number of girls who succeed in reaching that level is still very low; more so, psychologists have begun to criticise this practice as counter-active to the message to girls that they are just as good as boys when it comes to academics.

(iv) Geographical location of educational facilities is one of the most important aspects of educational planning in Uganda today. The EPRC (1989) noted: "global priorities fixed by national plans have often failed to take into account inequalities among regions, different social groups and urban and rural areas." The current pattern of school mapping shows that there are either too many schools in close proximity to each other or too few in areas of real demand for secondary education. This is poised to cause a problem especially with the floods of children who will be coming in from the primary section as a result of the UPE. Furthermore, the teachers who wish to go and serve in areas of real need cannot do so because of the limited vacancies there.

Since the three categories of pre-colonial Uganda were phased out, one major question that continues to haunt educators is, "What kind of Ugandans should schools and universities help to produce, and how should they go about producing them? These questions do not have easy answers for educational planners.

(v) In Uganda, the period 1972 - 1992 was one of mass exodus of Ugandans both for political and economic reasons. Whereas the earlier part of this period witnessed the departure of Ugandans from all professions, the latter part was characterised by an unprecedented mass exodus of teachers and doctors who were on high demand in Southern African countries. Although this exodus has somewhat decreased because of the prevailing political stability, the problem now is that there has been an unprecedented upsurge of privately-run schools. Since many of these schools are offering better salaries than government-run schools, teachers are running to these private schools. Furthermore, other private sectors have also taken a big percentage of teachers since teachers have proved to be responsible people with the required academic qualifications and other skills needed in these working places. Thus keeping teachers in the teaching profession is one of the big challenges to educational planners at the moment. It is hoped that studies such as this one will go a long way in finding solutions to some of these problems.
1.7 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem under investigation is "A Study of the Relationship between Organisational Climate and Teacher Job Satisfaction in Secondary Schools of the Buganda and Busoga Regions of Uganda."

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Secondary School: Institution providing education at the level immediately following primary school education.

Secondary School Teacher: A certified or non-certified (licensed) person employed in an official capacity for the purpose of guiding and directing the learning experiences of students in a secondary school.

School Organisational Climate: The state or condition that characterises the school organisation, resulting from the social interaction between Headteachers and teachers, and amongst teachers.

Teacher Job Satisfaction: A teacher's self-reported quality, state or degree, attitude or perception and acceptance of the difference between what s/he expects from the teaching job and what s/he actually receives therefrom.

1.9 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The investigator aimed to study:-

1. The organisational climate of schools in Buganda and Busoga Regions.

2. The organisational climate of government rural schools and government urban schools of the two regions.
3. The organisational climate of private rural schools and private urban schools of the two regions.

4. Gender differences in perception of organisational climate.

5. Perceptions of organisational climate of teachers of various age-groups.

6. The job satisfaction of teachers of the two regions.

7. The job satisfaction of teachers of government rural schools and government urban schools of the two regions.

8. The job satisfaction of teachers of private rural schools and private urban schools of the two regions.


10. The job satisfaction of teachers of various age-groups.

11. The relationship between the organisational climate of schools and job satisfaction of the teachers in the two regions.

12. The relationship between organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction in the schools located in each region.

13. The correlation between the dimensions of organisational climate and the subscales of teacher job satisfaction.

1.10 HYPOTHESES

In order to realise these objectives, the following hypotheses were designed:

1. There exists a significant difference in organisational climate between schools in the Buganda and Busoga Regions.
2. There is no significant difference between the organisational climate of government rural schools and government urban schools of the two regions.

3. There exists a significant difference in the organisational climate of private rural schools and private urban schools of the two regions.

4. There exists a significant difference between male and female teachers in their perception of organisational climate.

5. There is no significant difference between teachers of various age-groups in their perception of organisational climate.

6. There exist significant differences in the job satisfaction of the teachers of the two regions.

7. There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers of government rural schools and government urban schools of the two regions.

8. There exists a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers of private rural schools and private urban schools of the two regions.

9. There exists a significant difference in the job satisfaction of male and female teachers.

10. There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers of various age-groups.

11. There exists a significant positive correlation between the organisational climate of schools and the job satisfaction of the teachers in the two regions.

12. There is no significant difference between the two regions in the relationship between organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction.

13. There exist significant correlation between the dimensions of organisational climate and the subscales of teacher job satisfaction.
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1.11 RATIONALE FOR AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

In the wake of the current trend of Uganda's politico-social recovery and its development as one of Africa's currently fastest growing economies, the issues of school organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction are crucial ones. The private sector is competing with government for qualified, experienced personnel; in order to prevent teachers from leaving the teaching profession, they will have to be kept satisfied with their jobs, and a conducive working climate will have to be provided. Secondly, accountability is being demanded of all calibres of administrators both in input and output matters; noteworthy is the area of human resource management as evidenced by the number of courses that have been introduced in the country of late. Thirdly, with the advancement of technology and therefore easier access to information on how administrative theory and practice are progressing each day, those working in schools will also demand better working environments and fuller job satisfaction; as Heflich (1994) puts it, "Effective schools research has also directed attention to school climate and to the effect that environments have on those who inhabit schools." Fourthly, by introducing UPE, education is being availed to many more children than before. The secondary school cycle will inevitably be affected by this change, because it will be required to increase its intake to absorb those coming in from the primary schools. Since more secondary school teachers will be needed to manage the increased work load, teacher job satisfaction at this level will be an issue that the country cannot afford to ignore any longer.

Whitmore (1994) says, "In order to develop programs which attract, motivate and retain teachers, it is necessary to identify the factors perceived by teachers as causing job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction." The current study reveals that a more Open school organisational climate is associated with higher levels of teacher job satisfaction in schools in the Buganda and Busoga regions; administrators and educators therefore need to create a more Open climate if they are to have teachers who are more satisfied with their jobs.

The importance of this study lies in answering some of the questions that educational administrators have concerning the following:-

(a) the nature of organisational climate in the schools of the Buganda and Busoga Regions of Uganda;
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(b) what kind of organisational climate favours teacher job satisfaction;

(c) the degree to which secondary school teachers in the Buganda and Busoga regions are satisfied with their jobs;

(d) what aspects of the job that these teachers are satisfied or not satisfied with.

As has already been noted, there is no comprehensive study that has so far been done on school organisational climate in Uganda. The studies that would have any relevance to this study have been done at the Master's level and these have only been related to motivation and job satisfaction. These studies have been in regard to post-primary institutions in the districts of Hoima and Masindi (Kasaija, 1991), primary schools in the Busia sub-district (Mumbe, 1995), lecturers in National Teachers' Colleges in Uganda (Ogomorach, 1994), staff in Uganda Colleges of Commerce (Ogweng, 1995), Makerere University academic staff (Byaruhanga, 1997), Makerere University administrators (Juma, 1995), and the Institute of Teacher Education Kyambogo (Oceng, 1997). Organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction are issues that affect teachers of all kinds: those in government schools, and those in private schools; those in urban areas, and those in rural areas; those who are certificated, and those who are licensed. The choice of the Buganda and Busoga regions has several advantages, some of which are that these areas contain respectively the most urbanised and least urbanised areas of the country; they constitute a very large percentage of the country's population as well as land mass. These factors, coupled with the size of the sample means that we have here a very good mix of teachers. The knowledge obtained from this study can therefore be applied to other areas of Uganda as well as other parts of the world that have similar settings.

1.12 SCOPE, ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

1.12.1 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This was a study about organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction. Although the major theme was the relationship between these two variables, each of them was studied in its own right.
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The study was limited to the Buganda and Busoga Regions of Uganda. The teachers whose answers were used in the study were those teaching full-time in one particular school. All mainstream secondary schools, that is, those not exclusively offering vocational subjects, were eligible to be part of the study.

1.12.2 ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The underlying assumption of this study was that the teachers who gave their opinions did so honestly.

The investigator was limited by time and finances, and so she did not get as large a sample as she had initially hoped to, although the data collected was sufficient to draw meaningful conclusions. Responses from 400 teachers were used in the study.

Although all efforts were made to record and process the data accurately, it cannot escape the limitations of human error as well as sources of error inherent in any statistical technique employed.

In recapitulation, the problem under investigation was "A Study of the Relationship between Organisational Climate and Teacher Job Satisfaction in Secondary Schools of the Buganda and Busoga Regions of Uganda." Several concepts are related to this problem, and the investigator briefly introduces them in this chapter.

The study being undertaken involves people - Ugandan teachers. Teachers live in and are a part of society; in this chapter the investigator describes the kind of society in which the Ugandan teacher is living. The Ugandan educational system under which s/he operates is also described, and his training and efforts to better his lot are explained. The issues currently facing educators are briefly discussed.

The objectives of the study were to examine organisational climate, teacher job satisfaction and the relationship between the two in the Buganda and Busoga Regions of Uganda. The value of this study lies in the fact that the issues of organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction can no longer be ignored; Uganda is at a time when reforms in educational sector are rapidly taking place and the teachers who are the actual deliverers of educational programmes need to have their various needs met if they are to work well and stay in the profession.