Media Technology in Education

Uganda and Beyond

Edited by

Martin A.M. Gansinger and Ayman Kole

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Foreword

Believe it or not, but there are universities that ask their faculties to not include any required reading in their curriculum. Gen Z is used to 'edutainment' and has difficulties with making sense out of an article or even holding their attention in order to go through a book. As a matter of fact, it is becoming a more common observation in personal surroundings concerning regular youths between the ages of twelve and sixteen not being able to finish a single book throughout their entire lives. For those who are actually interested in reading, the task to get their hands on a copy of old-school brainfood can become quite difficult in itself, with libraries justifying the plain absence of literature aiming at teens with the claim that "They only start to read again when they are eighteen." Strange times.

In what can be described as an overall ramification of society, media in its vast variety becomes a more important tool to be applied for educational purposes. This volume aims at providing an overview on the status quo of the challenges and opportunities of today's youth, their use and acquisition of various media formats, and the influence of media channels such as video, games, TikTok, or poetry on contemporary identity constructions.

However, to provide a glimpse into the situation at hand beyond the scope of the sugar-coated parts of the map, this book intends to establish a perspective of the corresponding realities in the global south in the form of Uganda.

The effort to examine the decentralization of public university education in Uganda is being undertaken in Chapter One. The authors put forth a structure that analyzes the process of formation of new public universities and defines the numerous institutions in detail, as well as identifying gaps to be dealt with in the future. The study used a cross sectional research design and relied on official data from reports,

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legal and statutory instruments, and official web portals of the respective universities.

Chapter Two evaluates instructional approaches and student performances at universities in Uganda by comparing approaches such as face-to-face and more recent concepts like blended learning and computer-based teaching, which were mainly pushed during the Covid years.

However, since learning is a social process, the factor of personal relationships between students and teachers is at least as important as the proper method, as demonstrated in Chapter Three. The contribution highlights the moderating role of academic resilience on the relationship between student satisfaction and academic burnout among graduate students in a society that puts you in an awkward position if you are in your late twenties without a job to support your family.

The cultural memory of education is the central concern of Chapter Four. Its establishment and preservation via the Year Book project and stakeholders such as the Board of Governors, Parent Teachers Association (PTA), Alumni Associations, Administrative and Teaching Staff, and Non-Teaching Staff is demonstrated using content analysis and qualitative interviews. As a result, each school displays a unique kind of digital memory emblematic of the multiple recollections and remembrances of its histories.

As a final contribution highlighting the seldomly visible perspective of Uganda, Chapter Five explores the impact of social media usage, religiosity, and self-esteem on relationship satisfaction among a sample of over four hundred youths, using a questionnaire that combines the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale, the Beck Anxiety Inventory, Hendrick's Relationship Assessment Scale, and Huber and Huber's Centrality of Religiosity Scale.

The missing medial representation of Afro-Turks and its impact on the identity constructions of those belonging to the ethnic heritage of the

Ottoman involvement in the slave trade is being discussed in Chapter Six. Next to looking at the situation in Turkey, the contribution similarly explores the influence of Ottoman Islam on the formative characters of the Moorish Science Temple in the United States, a central inspiration for subsequent Black Muslim movements such as the Nation of Islam or the Five Percenters.

Similarly, the discourse of exile in poetry is being discussed in Chapter Seven, that uses Mahmoud Darwish's "Contrapuntal" to underline the influence of the author's distance to his Palestinian homeland. The analysis is juxtaposed with the biography of the poet's compatriot Edward Said.

The pedagogical potential of a more contemporary medium is being explored in Chapter Eight, as it provides as detailed discussion of video games as cultural artifacts and how players' morality and ethical decision-making are being challenged through techniques such as ludo narrative dissonance or limited quick time event control schemes. The contribution outlines the highly complex and creative narrative techniques of "NieR: Automata," the ethically challenging "Metal Gear" series, and the cultural critique of Japan's collectivity-oriented social system of conformity articulated in "Persona 5."

While the latter impressively reflects the struggles of Japanese youths in search for individual expression, the closing contribution, investigates Adorno's concept of pseudo individualization regarding representations of subcultural aesthetics in TikTok videos. Hence, Chapter Nine analyses five categories of stylistic aesthetics on TikTok and attests users the consumption of formulaic, commodified popular culture rather than being presented with authentic individual expression.

When putting the finishing touch on this publication, it is not without hope that the proposed youth-oriented topics might inspire the one or the other to take their eyes off the screen, put down their phone, or exchange the joystick in their hands for a copy of this volume, since the xiv Foreword

need for critical media experts who are looking at the subject from all angles is possibly more urgent right now than ever before.

Martin A. M. Gansinger and Ayman Kole, May 2023

Chapter One Decentralization of public universities in Uganda: Process, character, and gaps

Joel Isabirye

Introduction

This chapter examines the decentralization of public university education in Uganda seeking to understand the process of formation of new universities, the intrinsic and extrinsic character of the newly established public universities, and the gaps among these universities. Established 1922 as a technical institute, Makerere University became a fully-fledged national university in 1979, and remained the only public university in Uganda until 1989. In the same year, Mbarara University of Science and Technology (MUST) was established by the Government of Uganda and this set the ball rolling for a rapid decentralization that took effect in the 2000s. Currently, Uganda has a total of ten public universities, excluding military universities, and as indicated in Table 1.

No.	University
1.	Makerere University
2.	Mbarara University of Science and Technology
3.	Kyambogo University
4.	Gulu University
5.	Lira University
6.	Soroti University
7.	Busitema University
8.	Kabale University
9.	Muni University

No. University

10. Uganda Management Institute

Source: Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) Republic of Uganda

Table 1-1: List of public universities in Uganda

The decentralization process was intended to improve the delivery of educational services at the university level. Instead of students flocking to Kampala, the capital of Uganda, to join Makerere, they would have many options around the country. Decentralization refers to a process of taking governance and programs of service delivery from the center to the regional or local governments, spaces, and communities to enhance participation of the masses in their affairs. The aim of decentralization is to bring services closer to the people to ensure that there is regional balance in the provision of services.

Public university education is a type of educational service that is provided and financed by the state. The capital and operational costs of providing these services are met by central or regional governments, depending on the existing political arrangements in a given country. A salient feature of public university education is that it should be at least partially government funded.

A brief history of public university education in Uganda

The roots of public university education in Uganda are found in the establishment of Makerere Technical School in 1922. The school was set up to impart vocational skills to Africans in the colonial territories of East Africa. Makerere Technical School did not dispose a legal instrument that guided its establishment.¹ It rather functioned as an institution set up to meet the demands for local skilled labor by the colonial government.

¹ Joseph Oloka-Onyango, "The Legal Control of Tertiary Institutions in East Africa: The Case of Makerere University," *Africa Development/Afrique et Développement* 17, No. 4 (1992): 47–66.

In 1937, the colonial Earl De La Warr Commission that inquired into higher education in East Africa recommended the formation of the Higher College of East Africa at Makerere.² This represented the first step towards developing a public university in Uganda. As the process of setting up an East African university gained momentum, Martin Luther Nsibirwa, Katikkiro (Prime Minister) of the Kingdom of Buganda, allocated land for the new institution. The territory, which was under dispute by a group of private citizens claiming ownership of the land led to the murder of Nsibirwa on September 4, 1945. However, the land remained with Makerere University.

The Asquith Report of 1949 recommended the enactment of the Makerere College Act forming the Higher College of East Africa at Makerere. Makerere and its constituent colleges in Nairobi and Dar-es-Salaam became an affiliate of the University of London. In 1962, the University of East Africa Act formalized Makerere College, Royal Technical College and University College of Dar-es-Salaam as constituent colleges of the University of East Africa, which was then created in 1963, the year in which the third East African country, Kenya obtained its independence.

1970 saw the dissolution of the University of East Africa, with the Milton Obote I government enacting the Makerere University Kampala Act which parliament provisionally passed on June 29, 1970, and finally enacted on October 5, 1970. Following a protracted guerrilla bush war from 1981 to 1986, the National Resistance

Movement (NRM) came to power. It quickly embarked on revamping the education sector by setting up the Education Policy Review Commission chaired by Professor Senteza-Kajubi.

² Earl De La Warr, African Affairs 49, No. 196 (July 1950): 250–252.

Kajubi's Commission released a report in January 1989 in which it recommended cost-sharing to be introduced at Makerere and the formation of new universities. Cost-sharing represented the first phase of privatizing public university education in the country. The government made efforts to cover tuition fees of sponsored students along with some basic costs. Students were expected to take care some of their living and academic costs.

In the same year, Mbarara University of Science and Technology (MUST) was created. In 1992, the Government White Paper derived from the Kajubi report was released. It proposed creation of new public universities out of a merger of the Institute of Teachers Education Kyambogo (ITEK), the Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo (UPK), and the upgrade of the Uganda College of Commerce (UCC) Nakawa into a university. The Kajubi Commission's report also recommended the devolution (decentralization) of education to the districts of Uganda.

Five years later, in 1997, Makerere University Business School, was formed from UCC Nakawa as a constituent college of Makerere University. In 1998, the Uganda Management Institute (UMI) was upgraded into a degree-granting institute. The passing of the Universities and other Tertiary Institutions Act 2001 signified a landmark occasion that accelerated the decentralization (devolution and de-concentration) of public universities in Uganda.

Problem statement

Decentralization of public university education in Uganda was designed to decongest Makerere University and expand the provision of higher education services in Uganda. Since this process started in 1989 and was accelerated in 2002, ten public universities are offering higher educational services to the public.

The sporadic rise in the number of new public universities has changed the landscape of higher education in Uganda, and simultaneously corresponded with mounting discontent with the services offered by these universities (Parliament of the Republic of Uganda 2016).³ Yet before this decentralization, when there was only one public university in the country, satisfaction with the quality-of-service Makerere offered to the public was high.⁴

In attempts to address the issue of low quality of service in public universities, the focus was put on identifying the gaps in the universities and coming forth with recommendations related to how those gaps can be closed. There have been little attempts to structurally examine the process of creating new public universities and the characteristics of the universities that were created to get to the bottom of the structural challenges faced by public universities in Uganda.

Objectives of the study

- 1. To analyze the process of formation of new public universities in Uganda
- 2. To examine the character of new public universities in Uganda
- 3. To identify gaps at the public universities in Uganda

A review of literature

Place and function of public universities

Public universities by nomenclature are providers of education as a public good, although there are questions of whether education is to be viewed as a public good or not. Education does not fit standard definitions of public goods but because of its inherent spill-over effects

³ Luija Marie Ezati Azikuru, David Onen, and Betty A. Ezati, "The Influence of Planning on the Quality of Teaching in Public Universities, *International Journal of Education and Research 4*, No.12 (December 2016): 121–132; Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, *Report of the Sectoral Committee on Education and Sports on the State of Universities in Uganda, November 2016* (Kampala: Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, 2016).

⁴ John Crysostom Ssekamwa, and Sam M. E. Lugumba. *Development and administration of education in Uganda*. Kampala: Fountain Pub Limited, 2001; Mukwanason A. Hyuha, "Uganda: Higher Education Modernization Needed," *International Higher Education* 90 (2017): 21–22.

on an entire nation, there is a tendency to look at it as a public good.⁵ For example, the quality of doctors and teachers produced by the education system can impact a country's health and education. The curriculum design presents a strong instrument that shapes local and national values which are not limited to democratic tolerance, patriotism, and ethics.

Guided by the conception that education is a public good, many scholars perceive the provision of public goods to be the responsibility of government, since the allocation of public goods is characterized by non-rivalry and non-excludability in consumption, which cannot be provided by a decentralized market system. According to Itaya, de Meza, and Myles,⁶ private provision of public goods is generally inefficient, and government should be a sole or complementary supplier of these goods. Nonetheless, governments the world over maintain a dual service of public and private education.

There are several reasons why national and regional governments continue to establish public universities. According to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences,⁷ public universities play a critical role in society. The role of public universities ranges from serving the national interest, contributing to the innovation economy, and providing quality educational opportunities and programs at an efficient cost. In some countries, beyond a practical need to have public universities, these

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⁵ Francine Menashy, "Education as a global public good: The applicability and implications of a framework, "Globalisation, Societies and Education 7, No. 3 (2009): 307–320; Anomaly, Jonathan. "Public goods and education." In *Philosophy and Public Policy*, ed. Andrew I. Cohen, (Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield, 2018), 105-120; Tatiana Moşteanu, and Georgiana Creţan, "Education and the Characteristics of Public Goods. Overlaps and Differences," *Theoretical & Applied Economics* 18, No. 9 (2011): 33–40.

⁶ Itaya, Jun-ichi, de Meza, de Meza, and Myles, Gareth D. "Who should provide public goods?." In *Incentives, Organization, and Public Economics: Papers in Honour of Sir James Mirrlees*, eds. Peter Hammond, and Gareth D. Myles (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000), 123–150.

⁷ American Academy of Arts & Sciences, *Public Research Universities: Why They Matter* (Cambridge: American Academy of Arts & Sciences, 2015).

institutions have served as instruments of national pride and confidence.8

The legacy value of university projects can lead nations to invest in them even when there is not determination that it can be viable as a business. Bisaso⁹ has referred to the national and regional symbolic value of Makerere University although it was set up to develop human resource capacity. There are times when new public universities may be established to combat brain drain.¹⁰

According to the National Council for Higher Education, public universities are mostly formed to provide higher education that skills the population so that they can contribute to social transformation. Occasionally, (for example Soroti and Kabale University) they have been formed because communities have lobbied for them.¹¹ The formation of public universities is sometimes based on the increasing demand from students who in most parts of the world prefer to attend public colleges and universities.¹²

Public universities are attractive to students because they offer funding opportunities. In some countries, public universities have better facilities and have clearer accreditation statuses than private universities. Students' demand for public university education keeps rising as the populations of countries grow. The formation of public universities may then serve to match population growth rates. This has

⁸ "Starting a New University? Read This First," (n.n.), sasaki.com, January 24, 2017, https://www.sasaki.com/voices/starting-a-new-university-read-this-first/.

⁹ Bisaso, Ronald. "Makerere University as a flagship institution: Sustaining the quest for relevance." In *Flagship universities in Africa*, ed. Damtew Teferra (London: Palgrave Macmillan Cham, 2017), 425–466.

^{10 &}quot;Starting a New University?."

Ogulei, John, "New Soroti University in Illegal Eviction Scandal," chimpreports.com, May 23, 2017, https://chimpreports.com/new-soroti-university-in-illegal-eviction-scandal/; Kushaba, Anthony, "Museveni Endorses Take over of Kabale University," March 22, 2012, https://ugandaradionetwork.com/story/museveni-endorses-take-over-of-kabale-university.

¹² Paul N. Courant, Michael McPherson, and Alexandra M. Resch, "The public role in higher education," *National Tax Journal* 59, No. .2 (2006): 291–318.

been the case in Asia, where many public universities have sprouted owing to the rise in population.¹³

The process of forming a public university should ideally be gradual and be implemented in phases. Creating many universities overnight can have a detrimental effect not only on the project implementation, but also on the quality of service it offers. Formation and supervision of universities globally requires specific legal frameworks in respective countries. Public institutions should be governed by a body of laws derived from national constitutions, statutes, agencies, and case law.¹⁴ Coetzee and Mbanze¹⁵ have also argued for the strengthening of the legal framework to guide certain aspects of universities' operations.

In forming public universities, defining their character is of essence. Daniels and Spector¹⁶ characterize the public university in terms of structure and mission. Structurally, public universities are owned by the public or governments, majorly funded by governments, and are at discretion where they are governed by state laws and regulations that shape their conduct. Their mission is to create affordability, accessibility, and community in access to education.

Defining the character of public universities is achieved through the vision and mission statements of the institutions. According to Cortés-Sánchez,¹⁷ mission and vision statements (MS and VS) are the most frequently used strategic planning tools that were adopted in the early 1980s by the higher education sector, becoming tools in crucial practices

^{13 &}quot;Starting a New University?."

¹⁴ Fred C. Lunenburg, "The Legal Framework for Public Education," *Focus on Colleges, Universities, and Schools* 6, No. 1 (2012): 1–9.

¹⁵ Susanna Abigael Coetzee, and C. V. Mbanze, "Merging into a private university: Law regulating the transfer of academic employees in Swaziland." *Journal of Asian and African Studies* 49, No.5 (2014): 584–596.

¹⁶ Daniels, Ronald J., and Phillip Spector, "Converging Paths: Public and Private Research Universities in the 21st Century, *University Priorities and Constraints* (2016): 183–201.

¹⁷ Julián Cortés-Sánchez, Julián, "Mission and vision statements of universities worldwide: A content analysis," *Documentos De Investigación, Facultad de Administración* 152 (2017): 2463–1892.

implemented in universities worldwide. Frequently, the legal framework and statutory instruments of public universities spell out their vision and missions. The tools help to direct the affairs and business of these institutions.

The decentralization of public universities is certainly transformative but can also have different sets of outcomes. Decentralization of education can bring about a new ecology of education administration and bureaucratization, as in the case of Taiwan.¹⁸

Public universities in Uganda

There are differing views about the progress of the higher education sector in Uganda. Government and pro-government stakeholders list the rapid growth in the number of universities and tertiary institutions as an exemplification of a sector that has greatly transformed. Critics of government and the sector underscore what they call the deterioration of standards that require a quick fix from the state or other stakeholders.

All the major regions of the country host a public university, which represents a revolution in the education sector. Enrollment numbers have clearly increased, as reflected in the graduation output in recent years as compared to 1988, when there was only one university in the country. In that year, Makerere graduated only 1,320 students. Yet in 2020, Makerere University graduated 13,509 students, while Gulu University listed 1,513 graduates. These figures represent a massive growth in enrollment and output of students who have completed university studies. On the benchmark of enrollment, significant progress has been made.

¹⁸ William Yat Wai Lo, "Decentralization of higher education and its implications for educational autonomy in Taiwan," *Asia Pacific Journal of Education* 30, No.2 (2010): 127–139.

¹⁹ Mugaga, Robert, "Makerere Graduated 13 at first graduation," observer.ug, January 17, 2010.

https://www.observer.ug/component/content/article?id=6824: makerere-graduated-13-at-first-graduation.

The benefits accruing from enrollment have been numerous. More public universities have led to an increase in enrollment and subsequent access to higher education. Due to the growth in the number of particularly public universities, Uganda has been producing more research and has nurtured many experts in different fields.

As public universities the world over struggle with lack of funding, Court²⁰ applauded Makerere University for managing to raise funding to sustain itself. The critics of Uganda's public university education sector and concerned stakeholders point out several issues that hint towards problematic aspects. One of the challenges faced by public universities in Uganda is inadequate funding, with universities only being able to afford to meet thirty percent of the cost of educating a student ²¹

Lack of funds makes it difficult for universities to deliver quality education and research.²² This circumstance, coupled with a lack of policies on research, has resulted in low levels of research output.²³ Although some studies apportion blame on government for failing to fund research, Rwothumio, Okaka, Kambaza and Kyomukama²⁴ suggest that staff at public universities lacks interest in conducting

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²⁰ Court, David, "Financing higher education in Africa: Makerere, the quiet revolution," *Perspectives in Education* 19, No. 2 (2001): 3–22.

²¹ Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, *Report of the Sectoral Committee on Education and Sports on the State of Universities in Uganda, November 2016* (Kampala: Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, 2016); Muriisa Roberts Kabeba, "Financial reforms and governance and the crisis in research in public universities in Africa: a case of Uganda," *Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies 2*, No. 7 (2010).

²² Julius Omona, "Funding higher education in Uganda: modalities, challenges and opportunities in the twenty-first century," *Makerere Journal of Higher Education* 4, No.1 (2012): 11–44; S. Asiimwe, and G. M. Steyn, "Obstacles Hindering the Effective Governance of Universities in Uganda," *Journal of Social Sciences* 34, No. 1 (2013): 17–27; Hyuha, "Uganda."

²³ Amina Nakimuli, and Abanis Turyahebwa, "Institutional efficiency in selected universities in Uganda," *Journal of Education and Practice* 6, No. 10 (2015): 90–96.

²⁴ Joseph Rwothumio, Wilson Okaka, Stephen Kambaza, and Eugene Kyomukama, "Influence of performance appraisal in determining academic staff performance in public universities in Uganda," *International Journal of Advanced Research* 3, No. 1 (2021): 20–32.

research because they do not see how it is related to their performance. Conversely, the low levels of research output act diametral to the competitiveness of the universities in bidding for research funding when these opportunities are availed.

Ssentamu, former Vice Chancellor of Makerere, is reported to have told Parliament in Uganda that there was no need for government to keep creating new universities when it could not fund or manage the existing ones, particularly Makerere. This view was re-echoed by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning's recommendation that the government should stop creating new universities and instead fund existing ones. Decline in public university funding is not restricted to Uganda. Across the world, it has been noted that the education landscape has changed drastically over the last thirty years, and this calls for public universities to look for new ways of funding.²⁵

Several stakeholders are quick to point out that public universities in Uganda suffer from low quality of education and poor quality of graduates.²⁶ It is also observed that ineffective teaching, low research output and missing publications continue to prevail, making it difficult for public universities to produce the needed human resources for national development.²⁷ This is partly attributed to the marketisation of public universities. Marketization/privatization, starting with Makerere, seemed to save public institutions from resource starvation until there were too many of them competing over a limited number of students. Competition regarding enrollment numbers had some of them admitting mediocre students.

²⁵ Piereson, James, and Schaefer Riley, Naomi, "Reimagining the Public University," *nationalaffairs.com*, Winter 2020, https://www.nationalaffairs.com/PUBLICATIONS/DETAIL/REIMAGINING-THE-PUBLIC-UNIVERSITY.

²⁶ Victoria Tamale Kaggwa, Denis Sekiwu, and Frances Esther Naluwemba, "Student expectations and quality of postgraduate education: the case for public universities in Uganda," *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal* 4, No. 21 (November 2018): 25–50.

²⁷ Rwothumio, Okaka, Kambaza, and Kyomukama, "Influence of performance."

It also led to fragmentation of courses, duplication of degrees, and elite capture, where politicians lobbied government to create new universities so that they could get mileage and jobs for people in their constituencies. The weak legal framework, which is not comprehensive and lacks financing strategies and principles of allocating public funds and accountability and operationalized quality assurance mechanisms, has been identified as a major reason for difficulties to streamline the management of public universities.

Public outcry about the low enrollment in many public universities raises the question of insufficient calculations during the planning phase. Lack of specialization between the public universities appears to have exacerbated the low enrollment of students and made it difficult for them to increase staff. However, quite early educationist Michel Lejeune, who served as the inaugural chairperson of the Uganda National Council for Higher Education (UNCHE), argued that Makerere had an advantage over other emerging public universities, because of its location in the city. This made it attractive to young students who are typically interested in studying in the capital city. Makerere also benefited from a brand name and receives the lion share of donor funding to public universities in Uganda. Perhaps, it would have been better for the decentralization process to create all new universities as constituent colleges of Makerere University.

One of the other major issues with public universities in Uganda can be found in the curriculum development. From duplication and fragmentation of courses to most of the 1,800 courses that were found by the committee not corresponding with the job market, the curriculum design is clearly inhibiting progress at these universities.²⁸ With many different courses available on the market, universities are having it difficult to attract students into mainstream faculties and colleges. The orientation of most of the public universities to science is

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²⁸ Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, "Report."

affecting enrollment forcing some of them to introduce courses from the humanities.

Nakimuli and Turyahebwa²⁹ have observed that gender disparities remain main concerns in public university administration and in enrollment respectively. There are clearly more males than females in administrative positions and among those admitted at the universities. Similarly, Lubaale³⁰ has decried the lack of inclusive education in public universities in Uganda, which has affected accessibility to higher education for disabled and marginalized Ugandans.

The Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development implores public universities in Uganda to diverse their sources of income if they are to meet their costs of operation. This advice coming from government indicates that it shall not in the short run be able to adjust funding levels to cover all the requirements of public universities in the country.

Methodology

The study used cross-sectional design in that it analyzed all the public universities at one point in time. Data was collected from analysis of secondary documents such as legal instruments and reports, in addition to examining the official web portals of each public university. The data was evaluated via thematic analysis by clustering thematic trends revealed by the data into meaningful categories. Effort was made to delineate the themes in relation to the objectives of the study.

²⁹ Nakimuli, and Turyahebwa, "Institutional efficiency."

³⁰ Grace Lubaale, "Inclusive Education Implementation in Public Universities of Uganda and Development Implications," *Research Journal of Educational Studies and Review* 6, No. 2 (2020): 29–39.

Findings

Objective 1: Analyze the process and modes of formation of Uganda's new public universities

The process of forming the universities was defined by the three steps of start-up, takeover and upgrade. Six of the public universities (Busitema, Gulu, Kyambogo, Lira, Makerere and Mbarara) were upgraded from existing tertiary institutions. Two (Soroti and Muni) were start-ups, and one (Kabale) was a takeover from private entrepreneurs who owned the university as shown below:

University	Mode of Formation (start up, takeover		
	and upgrade)		
Makerere University	Upgrade from Technical Institute		
Mbarara University of	Upgrade		
Science and Technology	School of Midwifery at the Mbarara		
(MUST)	District Hospital		
Kyambogo	Upgrade		
	Polytechnic Kyambogo (UPK), the		
	Institute of Teacher Education,		
	Kyambogo (ITEK), and the Uganda		
	National Institute of Special Education		
	(UNISE)		
Gulu University Upgrade			
	Gulu District Farm Institute		
Busitema University	Upgrade		
	Busitema Agricultural Institute		
Lira University	Upgrade		
	Gulu University Constituent College		
Soroti University	Start Up		
Muni University	Start Up		
Kabale University	Takeover		

Source: field data

Table 1-2: Modes of formation of Uganda's public universities

Legal framework

Except for Makerere University, MUST and UMI, most of the public universities in Uganda were established with the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act 2001. MUST passed as a pilot test for government to venture into university education outside of Makerere. Each university was established by a statutory instrument of the act of parliament making it a national project with a valid legal mandate to offer educational services:

University	Legal Framework	Actual Date
		of Formation
Makerere University	Makerere University Kampala	1970
	Act 1970	
Mbarara University	The Mbarara University of	1989
of Science and	Science and Technology	
Technology (MUST)	Statute 1989	
Gulu University	STATUTORY	2002
	INSTRUMENTS 2003 No. 31.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	
	(Establishment of Gulu	
	University) Instrument, 2003.	
Kyambogo	STATUTORY	2003
	INSTRUMENTS 2003 No. 37.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	
	(Establishment of Kyambogo	
	University) Instrument, 2003.	
Busitema University	STATUTORY	2007
	INSTRUMENTS 2007 No. 22.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	
	(Establishment of Busitema	
	University) Instrument, 2007	
Muni University	STATUTORY	2013
-	INSTRUMENTS 2013 No. 31.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	

University	Legal Framework	Actual Date of Formation
	(Establishment of Muni	
	University) Instrument, 2013	
Kabale University	STATUTORY	2015
	INSTRUMENTS 2015 No. 36.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	
	(Establishment of Kabale	
	University) Instrument, 2015.	
Lira University	STATUTORY	2015
	INSTRUMENTS 2015 No. 35.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	
	(Establishment of Lira	
	University) Instrument, 2015	
Soroti University	STATUTORY	2017
	INSTRUMENTS 2015 No. 34.	
	The Universities and Other	
	Tertiary Institutions	
	(Establishment of Soroti	
	University) Instrument, 2015.	

Source: field data

Table 1-3: Legal framework for establishing public universities in Uganda

Objective 2: Examine the Character of Uganda's new public universities' objectives of formation

The objectives of formation (vision, mission, objects, and function) of each public university were examined by looking at the statutory instruments that were created when they were formed.

Vision and Mission of the University

Except for Makerere, all the other universities had vision and mission statements listed on their web portals or the statutory instruments that formed them. Kabale, Lira and Soroti universities did not have their vision and mission stated in the statutory instruments, but they were