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THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN

AN EMERGENT COUNTRY: MALAWI, AFRICA

1960-1967

A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Education

The University of Southern California

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

by Harold Marius Lange
June 1973

This dissertation, written under the direction of the Chairman of the candidate's Guidance Committee and approved by all members of the Committee, has been presented to and accepted by the Faculty of the School of Education in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Date June, 1973

Problem

Guidance Committee

Chairman

Myrow S. Olson

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#### CHAPTER I

#### THE PROBLEM AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The African tribe never has been static, . . . and it owes its survival to its adaptability.

Colin M. Turnbull,

The Lonely African (73:249)

#### Introduction

In the last twenty years many African nations have received independence from an external government. These new emergent nations were dependent on education to provide the training and leadership necessary for them to meet the challenges of independence (6:1). One of these new nations was the country of Malawi, which received its independence from Great Britain in 1964 (126:5).

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem was to set forth a documentary record of the processes and principles in the development of higher education in an emerging nation. As new nations received their independence, many of them were without sufficient educational and training facilities to train their own people to become self-sustaining. The country of Malawi, Africa, was chosen as an example of how one new nation met the problem of providing higher education.

Until the time of independence in Malawi, most education was provided by Christian missions. The highest level of education was the secondary school (96:98-99). Development of higher education was undertaken when independence was received. Statements concerning higher education were found in newspapers, government publications, and other printed materials.

#### Background to the Study

Malawi, formerly known as Nyasaland, was a British Protectorate from 1891 until receiving independence in 1964 (100:2). The country was a member of the Rhodesia and Nyasaland Federation, which was formed in 1953 (86:778) and dissolved in 1963 (56:159).

In 1883 a consulate was established at Blantyre "accredited to the Kings and Chiefs of Central Africa" (97: 159). On May 14, 1891, a formal protectorate was declared. At the suggestion of the first Commissioner, Harry Johnston, the new protectorate was named "British Central Africa" (60:196). In 1907 the name was changed to "Nyasaland" (97:161).

On July 6, 1964, Ngwazi Dr. H. Kamuzu Banda became Prime Minister of independent Malawi. "Now we are independent," he said, "we will have to do our own swimming and our own thinking" (190:10). In 1966 the official name was changed to the Republic of Malawi; and at the same time,

the new nation became a member of the Commonwealth of Nations (180:4).

The first school was established in the country by Scottish missionaries in 1876 (28:119). The missionaries felt the Gospel and education were suitable weapons to fight the evils of slavery and ignorance (201:2). A study of education in East Africa known as the Phelps-Stokes Commission of Inquiry in 1924 resulted in the establishment of a Ministry of Education in Nyasaland in 1926 (138:23).

The Central African Council under the Chairmanship of Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders recommended in February, 1953, that a university be established in Salisbury, Southern Rhodesia, to serve the territories of Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland, which were to become the Federation (196). With dissolution of the Federation, Malawi faced independence without the benefit of a university to provide higher education.

The low priority placed on education in the Protectorate of Nyasaland by the British government was indicated in the Nyasaland: Report for the Year 1960 (96), where the topic of Education came under the heading of "Social Services." The opening statement read as follows: "The Nyasaland Department of Education is concerned only with the education of Africans up to and including secondary level." Non-African education and the higher education of Africans were the exclusive responsibility of the Govern-

ment of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (96:98).

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to set forth the processes and principles in the development of higher education in an emergent nation. Malawi, Africa, was the country chosen to illustrate how these processes and principles were utilized to develop higher education. Malawi was determined to establish a system of education that would meet the needs of the people in the immediate future (105:1).

#### Importance of the Study

The documentation of the development of higher education in Malawi has added to the understanding of the struggle to establish higher education in an emergent nation. This study was of special significance to the University of Southern California, because that university held the contract through the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) to assist and staff what became the Polytechnic branch of the University of Malawi (159:4). As the result of this contract, fifteen Malawian men and women came to the University of Southern California for study. One student earned a master's degree and fourteen students earned the bachelor's degree (156:11, A/53).

#### Procedure for the Study

The procedure for this study was a documentary study. Much of the material used as reference was accumulated by the researcher while working in the country of Malawi on contract with the University of Southern California as a staff member of the Malawi Polytechnic Project.

### Delineation

Historical articles concerning the development of education in Nyasaland and Malawi were contained in mission magazines, historical books, and materials located in the Malawi National Archives. Recent developments of education were contained in Government publications, newspapers, magazines, and official reports. Many people who were involved in the development of education were interviewed, and their comments were recorded on tape. Expatriates from various countries, including the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States, contributed to the furtherance of education in Malawi. To contact all the people who assisted in the development of education would have been impossible. Locating all the documents prepared by supporting countries was an impossibility. therefore, became necessary to delimit the scope of this study to the materials which were accessible.

#### Delimitations

It would have been desirable to write on the total

development of education in Malawi. Due to the immensity of the task, this study was confined to setting forth the early foundations of the educational system to the time of independence and to the development of higher education.

#### Limitations

Many developments in higher education have taken place in Malawi since the researcher returned from assignment. A second visit to the country to determine firsthand what development had taken place would have been desirable. However, the cost of such a trip and time available made this type of investigation unfeasible. Consequently, the study relied upon recently published materials rather than additional direct contacts.

#### Questions to Be Answered

- Some questions about higher education in Malawi which were to be answered follow:
  - 1. What is the need for higher education in an emergent country?
  - 2. What type of education should be provided?
  - 3. To how many persons should the country provide higher education?
  - 4. What method should the new country use to finance higher education?
  - 5. What kind of assistance could an emergent countries?

#### Notes on Spelling

As Malawi was a former British protectorate, the spelling used in the schools and in all official documents is of the British pattern. In the normal text of this study, standard American spelling has been used, except in a direct quotation or in the case of a formal name, such as the Further Education Centre or Ministry of Labour.

Variant spellings have been used for African place names by different writers and at different periods of time. In general, the more up-to-date spelling has been favored, using Mozambique, instead of Mocambique, and Zambezi, instead of Zambesi, for example.

#### Definition of Terms

Malawi does not have the benefit of a <u>Dictionary of Education</u>, such as that authored by Carter V. Good (20).

Terms of education are similar to those used in the United Kingdom. Various sources were consulted to establish the meaning of the following terms. Where no direct definition could be found, common usage as expressed by writers was employed.

<u>A level.--"A"</u> level refers to the advanced level of the General Certificate of Education (GCE). The examination for this certificate is usually taken at the end of the sixth form (4:1).

Aided or assisted schools. -- A primary school which is operated by a mission group or other organization and receives financial support from the government, usually in the form of the teachers' salaries, is known as an aided or assisted school.

Apprenticeship. -- The apprenticeship program is a training program for young persons in various trades, including on-the-job training given by an employer and theoretical instruction at a training institution (105:1).

Asian. -- The Asian population consists of people originating from India and Pakistan, who became mainly storekeepers and professional people (57:144).

Bantu. -- Bantu refers to African people, a blending of Hamitic and Negro stock, and united by a common language type rather than physique (57:124).

Boma.--Boma is a Swahili word meaning a fence or stockade. It is a term which has come into general use to identify the government district administrative centers, most of which were at first provided with some type of defense (31:130).

Bursar.--The bursar is the treasurer of an educational institution, such as a college (20:70). His duties are heavily loaded with dispensing monies, such as student

stipends.

Chancellor. -- The chancellor is the titular head of the University of Malawi (104:61).

City and Guilds of London. -- A syllabus for various trades which outlines the materials to be taught in a course is published by the City and Guilds of London, and is the standard syllabus for all trade classes in Malawi (114:2).

Commons room. -- The commons room is a room designed for the convenience of the staff of a school or college for relaxation, mail room, and work room.

Coloureds. -- Coloureds is a name given to a group of people of mixed blood in southern Africa, which developed through intermarriage of Asians, Bantus, and Europeans (3:118-119).

European. -- A European is anyone of the Caucasian or white race regardless of his native country, be it England, Canada, United States, Portugal, or Australia, living in the country of Malawi.

Expatriate. -- Expatriates are foreigners who are working in the country (42:11).

External examinations. -- External examinations are

prepared and conducted by an external examination body, such as the Cambridge Examination Board.

Form. -- The word form refers to the year of secondary school which a student is attending, such as Form I or the first year of secondary school (227).

Further Education Centre. -- A trade-training center based on the Further Education concept of England was established in Malawi, and was later developed into the Malawi Polytechnic. Further education is a general term used in England to describe full or part-time education for those who have completed secondary education (4:287).

GCE.--GCE is the term commonly used to refer to the General Certificate of Education (2:66).

General Certificate of Education. -- The General Certificate of Education is awarded on a subject basis at Ordinary, Advanced, and Special levels. The examinations for these certificates are prepared by the Cambridge Examination Board (4:299).

<u>Headmaster</u>.--The headmaster is the administrator in charge of a primary or secondary school (229).

<u>Hostel</u>.--A hostel is a housing facility where students receive food and lodging.

Inspector. -- An inspector is an experienced educator employed by the Ministry of Education to supervise and offer educational guidance in the schools (20:628).

Local Education Authority (LEA). -- The Local Education Authority is a local geographical unit empowered to provide stipulated educational facilities (20:629).

Local hire. -- A local hire is someone working in the country who receives the same rate of pay as a native citizen and is usually an expatriate.

M.P.--M.P. is an abbreviation for Member of Parliament.

Marks.--Marks is the term used in student evaluation to indicate level of accomplishment.

Minister of Education. -- The Minister of Education is the political head of the Ministry of Education (20:629).

Ministry of Education. -- The Ministry of Education is the national educational authority of Malawi, and is presided over by the Minister of Education, who is a member of the President's Cabinet. The Ministry of Education has no jurisdiction over the university (20:629).

O level.--"O" level refers to the Ordinary level of the General Certificate of Education (GCE). The examina-

tion for this certificate is usually taken at the end of Form IV (227).

Permanent Secretary. -- The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education is the professional head of the Ministry of Education. He is permanently attached to the Ministry, and under the Minister of Education formulates and directs the policies of the Ministry subject to the sanction of the Minister of Education, and exercises general supervisory and advisory functions in relation to the work of the Ministry (20:629-630;249).

<u>Post</u>.--Post is a term used to indicate an assigned place of work. The common expression is that a person has been posted to a particular position.

Primary school. -- A primary school currently consists of the first eight years of formal education, Standard I through Standard VIII. In the early mission schools two years of education termed Substandard A and Substandard B (Sub A and Sub B) usually preceded Standard I (217).

Principal. -- Principal is the title given to the top administrator in educational institutions other than primary and secondary schools. The title is used in each branch of the university and also in technical schools and teacher training schools which do not have university status (229).

Registrar. -- A registrar is an educational officer who is a keeper of records, such as attendance, marks, and accomplishments (104:61).

School leaving examination. -- The school leaving examination is administered to pupils at the leaving of a particular level of education (20:210). In Malawi this is given at the completion of Standard VIII.

Secondary school.—A secondary school is constituted by the years following primary school, and each year is designated as a form. The normal secondary school includes Form I through Form IV, culminating with the "O" level examination. One secondary school in Malawi includes Form I through Form VI, which prepares for the "A" level examination (249).

Senior staff. -- The term senior staff is used to indicate all administrators and teaching staff members who possess a master's degree or a higher degree or those who have had long years of experience.

Standard. -- The term standard is used to designate a year of primary education. Primary education consists of Standard I through Standard VIII (239).

Stream. -- A stream is a group or class that starts an educational program and follows it to completion. A

stream usually consists of thirty students. A school may have a single stream, double streams, or even three streams (227).

Substandard.—In early mission schools, the first two years of education were referred to as Substandard A and Substandard B (Sub A and Sub B). They were then followed by Standard I. The first four years of education were usually taught in a vernacular language. English was then introduced in the fifth year or Standard III (228).

Teacher training levels. -- Classifications of T.4,
T.3, T.2, and Diploma are used to indicate the level of
teacher training. These terms indicate the duration of the
training (110:50). Appendix C gives the number of years of
training required for each level.

<u>Vice-Chancellor.--</u>The vice-chancellor is the chief administrator of the University of Malawi with overall responsibility for the five locations (104:61).

#### Statement of Assumptions

Assumptions which were pertinent to this study follow:

- 1. The resource materials consulted were considered a valid source from which to make a documentary record.
- The opinions of persons interviewed and who played a part in the development of education in Malawi

were valid from their point of reference.

3. The assembly of a written record of the development of higher education in Malawi has been a contribution to the understanding of the process of development of higher education in an emergent country.

#### Summary of Chapter I

Chapter I states the following purposes:

- 1. To give a statement of the problem, which was to set forth the processes and principles in the development of higher education in an emergent nation.
- 2. To set forth the background leading to the development of higher education in the emergent nation of Malawi.
- 3. To explain the purpose of the study, which was to establish a documentary record of the development of higher education in the emergent country of Malawi.
- 4. To express the importance of higher education in an emergent nation.
- 5. To outline the procedure of the study, which was primarily a documentary study.
- 6. To delineate the scope of the development of education in Malawi.
- 7. To delimit the study to setting forth the early foundations of the educational system to the time of independence and to the field of higher education in Malawi.

- 8. To limit the study to utilization of materials which were available through personal acquisition, interviews, research, and library loan.
  - 9. To list questions to be answered.
  - 10. To provide a definition of terms.
  - 11. To formulate a statement of assumption.

#### CHAPTER II

# ORGANIZATION, METHODS, AND RESOURCES FOR THE STUDY

"I will try."

Motto of Overtoun Institute,
Livingstonia Mission (36:118)

#### Purpose of Chapter II

Chapter II presents the organization of the study, details the method used for the study, and describes the resources available for the study of the development of higher education in a newly emergent nation, Malawi, Africa.

#### Organization of the Study

Malawi, the country selected for the study, did not have a system of higher education when it became an independent nation in July, 1964. Chapter III gives an overview of the geographical setting and historical background of the country to the time of independence. The Christian missions were the first western influence in Malawi, and provided all formal education, but only on a very elementary level, until the 1920's when Great Britain, the colonial power, started to give minimal assistance. The contribution of the various missions is outlined to show the

status of the educational level at the time of independence. The struggle for self-government was included, as this had a direct bearing on the development of higher education.

There was a strikingly similar educational structure in most African countries in the 1950's with a wide base of lower primary education and a sharply decreasing availability of education at higher levels (46:53). Chapter IV gives some background of the need for institutions of higher learning in emerging nations and traces the planning which accompanied independence.

Chapter V describes the development of higher education in Malawi. The planning, organization, financing, building, staffing, and operation of higher education is stressed. This includes the studies financed by the United States and Great Britain (195;197) to identify the educational needs and relates the assistance from various nations in the establishment of the University of Malawi with its five constituent colleges.

Chapter VI summarizes the development of higher education in Malawi and compares how that development paralleled the development in other emergent African nations. Questions are answered concerning the educational problems that new nations faced and how they provided proper training for their people to take their place in the world community. Conclusions are drawn concerning the development of higher education in Malawi, and some recommendations for

further development are proposed.

#### Method of the Study

Shortly after arrival in Malawi on assignment, the researcher discussed with Dr. Irving R. Melbo, Dean of the School of Education, University of Southern California, the idea of collecting material to document the development of education in Malawi. Dean Melbo requested an outline of the scope of the intended study, and based on the submitted outline, he gave his approval to collect materials (270).

The second step was to arrange with the Charge d'Affaires of the United States Embassy, Republic of Malawi, for an interview with the Minister of Education, seeking his approval to visit schools and collect materials. The Minister of Education readily gave his approval, and a letter of introduction was provided by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education to be used when visiting educational institutions (111).

#### Resources for the Study

Resources utilized in the study included personal interviews, Government reports, mission records, school files, and published books. The historical background of early Africa is documented in A Short History of Africa by Roland Oliver and John Fage (54), A History of Central Africa by P. E. N. Tindall (72), Vasco da Gama and His Successors by K. G. Jayne (29), Portugal in Africa by James

Duffy (16), and Aspects of Central African History, T. O.
Ranger, editor (59). David Livingstone's exploration of
Central Africa was the impetus for the establishment of the
first Christian missions and schools (28), and books on
Livingstone are cited: Livingstone and the Exploration of
Central Africa by H. H. Johnson (30), Livingstone and
Africa by Jack Simmons (69), Livingstone's Africa by David
Livingstone (44), and others (11,67).

A. J. Hanna wrote <u>The Beginnings of Nyasaland and North-Eastern Rhodesia: 1859-95</u> (22); Sir Harry H. John-ston, Nyasaland Protectorate's first Commissioner and Consul-General, wrote <u>British Central Africa</u> (31); and Fred Moir told of the country's first commercial enterprise in <u>After Livingstone: An African Trade Romance</u> (50).

Other books on more recent developments in Nyasaland, including education, have been written by men who
have lived and worked in the country. Livingstone's Lake:
The Drama of Nyasa (60) was written by Oliver Ransford, a
Government Medical Officer in Nyasaland for several years.
Frank Debenham's Nyasaland: Land of the Lake (14) was published under the sponsorship of the United Kingdom's Colonial Office to give an authoritative and readable picture
of the dependent territory. Guy Clutton-Brock, Dawn in
Nyasaland (9), and Griff Jones, Britain and Nyasaland (32),
wrote on the political activities in the country. CluttonBrock worked in a village mission cooperative and was

active in pressing for independence, and Jones served as a Government administrative officer for ten years. Lakeside Pioneers (19), a socio-medical study of Nyasaland, was authored by Dr. Michael Gelfand, Professor of Medicine in the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland.

John G. Pike, a hydrologist with the Department of Hydraulics in Malawi, and Gerald T. Rimmington, formerly an Education Officer in the Malawi Ministry of Education and Development, co-authored Malawi: A Geographical Study (57). Pike also wrote Malawi: A Political and Economic History (56).

Malawi Past and Present: Studies in Local and Regional History, edited by B. Pachai, G. W. Smith, and R. K. Tangri, is a collection of papers presented at the University of Malawi History Conference, June, 1967 (55).

#### Literature on Missions

The work and accomplishments of the missionaries to Nyasaland were recorded in books, minutes, diaries, and Government reports. The first missions, Free Church of Scotland, Church of Scotland, Universities Mission to Central Africa (Anglican), Dutch Reformed Mission, and others, worked cooperatively, and references are made to each others work in their books. Some of the early writings include Daybreak in Livingstonia by James W. Jack (28), Laws of Livingstonia by W. P. Livingstone (45), The History of

the Universities Mission to Central Africa by A. E. M.

Anderson-Morshead (1), A Time to Remember: The Story of
the Diocese of Nyasaland by Mary McCulloch (49), The Romance of Blantyre: How Livingstone's Dream Came True (26)
and The Building of the Blantyre Church: Nyasaland (18881921) (25) by Alexander Hetherwick, and William Murray of
Nyasaland by M. W. Retief (62).

The Nyasaland Journal, now known as the Society of Malawi Journal, published articles of historical and scientific interest. "A Short History of the Universities' Mission to Central Africa" by Canon F. Winspear (194) and "The Story of the Dutch Reformed Church Mission in Nyasaland" by J. Lou Pretorius (191) appeared in the Journal.

This Africa Was Mine by Emily Booth Langworthy (41) gives an account of the work of her father, Joseph Booth, and the various missions he promoted. Independent African, by George Shepperson and Thomas Price (68), is the story of John Chilembwe and origins, setting, and significance of the Nyasaland native rising of 1915. This heavily documented work included the educational activities of several missions.

The contributions of the White Fathers, Montfort

Fathers, and Marist Brothers of the Roman Catholic Church

are contained in <u>The Catholic Encyclopedia</u> (81,84), <u>The New Catholic Encyclopedia</u> (78,80,83,85), and <u>Virtue's Catholic Encyclopedia</u> (82). Articles from the magazines, America

(179,181) and <u>Catholic Digest</u> (184) are cited. Considine in <u>Africa: World of New Men</u> (10) and Kittler's <u>The White</u> Fathers (39) were used as resources.

All of the missions were generous in loaning or making available their records and files, and some of these had been deposited in the Malawi National Archives at Zomba. An assessment of the general contribution of all church groups in Malawi is given in a short publication of the Malawi Christian Council, The Church in Malawi, edited by Y. R. Musopole (201).

#### Education Reports and Materials

Since the missions provided nearly all of the education until the time of independence, Government reports on education were reports on mission education. The Nyasaland Education Code, 1910, was authorized by the Educational Board, Missions of Nyasaland, and printed by the Blantyre Mission Press (202). One of the earliest Government reports, but not an official publication, was The Handbook of Nyasaland, second edition, published in London In 1932 A Handbook of Nyasaland was pubin 1910 (71). lished for the Government of Nyasaland (139). A Department of Education was formed in 1926 (55:65), and the Department's first report contained the first Education Ordinance (136). These reports were printed by the Government Printer in Zomba, and were issued annually. Copies of the

early reports are located in the National Archives. Minutes of the Board of Education (132) and of the Advisory Committee on Education (134,135,136) were consulted.

The Colonial Office issued annual reports, Nyasa-land: Report for the Year 1950 (90) for example, and these were printed by Her Majesty's Stationery Office. These reports had a section on education in the chapter on Social Services (94:100). Other Government publications included Report of the Native Education Conference (137), Report on the Jeanes Centre (145), and Report of Committee by the Secondary Education Committee in 1946 (140).

Roderick J. Macdonald has written a doctoral dissertation entitled "History of Education in Nyasaland: 1875-1945" at the University of Edinburgh in 1969 (269). He had access to early mission publications available in libraries and archives in Scotland and England, and he quoted extensively from those materials as well as from interviews with retired missionaries and former education officers. The chairman of his dissertation committee was Dr. George Shepperson, co-author of the Independent African (68).

# Literature on Struggle for Independence

The African population of Nyasaland was opposed to the formation of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, which was forced upon them against their will. This gave

added impetus to press for independence as the only reasonable escape from the domination of Southern Rhodesia. erence to the political struggle is found in Dawn in Nyasaland by Guy Clutton-Brock (9), who was imprisoned along with the African leaders during the disturbance of 1959. Edwin S. Munger reported for the American Universities Field Staff Reports Service on "The Tragedy of Nyasaland, Background to Violence, Murder Plot Charges and Detentions" (200) and "President Kamuzu Banda of Malawi" (199). Roy Welensky gave the Federation's view in Welensky's 4,000 Days: The Life and Death of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (75). Also pertinent are Phillip Mason's Year of Decision: Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1960 (48) and Robert I. Rotherg's The Rise of Nationalism in Central Africa (63). Biographies of many of the African leaders who eventually became heads of their countries when independence was received are given in African Profiles, edited by Ronald Segal (65).

#### Resources on African Higher Education

The materials cited in this study on higher education are in two categories: those books of a general nature which are appropriate to the many African countries that received independence and developed systems of higher education and the materials that pertain uniquely to the development of higher education in the country of Malawi.

In ten years, from 1956 to 1966, thirty-one independent states were formed out of colonial territories (47:175).

(See Appendix A.) Fred Burke in Africa's Quest for Order wrote:

To many Africans in responsible government positions, the future is viewed as a race between education and national disaster . . . It is therefore understandable that men like Julius Nyerere, Sékou Touré, and Hastings Banda look to the outside world for assistance in meeting these immediate and critical needs. (5:72)

Loken commented that most African countries were anxious to protect a high standard for secondary education, and required a university degree as a minimum qualification for secondary teachers (46:63).

Books on the status of African education and planning for the development of higher education include Cowan, O'Connell, and Scanlon's Education and Nation Building (12), Hanna's Independent Black Africa: The Politics of Freedom (23), Herskovits' Human Factor in Changing Africa (24), and The Educated African, edited by Helen Kitchen (38). Haines (21), Ashby (2), Belasco (3), and Lewis (42) have also discussed these matters.

Malawi had the benefit of educational studies made through cooperation of the governments of the United Kingdom and the United States as independence became certain.

Education in Nyasaland: Report of Preliminary Study Team (195:2), Education for Development: Report of the Survey

Team on Education in Malawi (195), and Bruce J. Hahn's

Technical Education in Nyasaland: A Report to the Agency for International Development (197) were welcomed by the Ministry of Education, who had anticipated needs of education (229). The Survey Team emphasized "No nation can meet its minimal obligations and perform its essential services without university-trained talent" (195:246).

In documenting the development of the University of Malawi and its five constituent colleges, recorded interviews with education officers and school personnel were used. The researcher taped more than fifty interviews during the time he was collecting material. Some of the most helpful ones in this portion of the study were interviews of I. H. C. Freeman, Registrar, University of Malawi (229); Charles J. Leven, Technical Education Officer, Ministry of Education (235); Father Callisto Mkona, Education Secretary General, Catholic Secretariat of Malawi and member of the Provisional Council of the University of Malawi (239), A. M. Davis, Chief Education Officer, Ministry of Education (227), and Robert G. Moses, Chief-of-Party, USC-USAID Team, Malawi Polytechnic (240).

The University of Southern California under contract with the U.S. Agency for International Development issued reports of the progress of the Malawi Polytechnic project. There were ten semi-annual reports plus a final report (150-158). The University of Massachusetts issued Terminal Report: Bunda College of Agriculture (212) when

their contract terminated in November, 1970.

The Malawi Government's Department of Information issued publications to inform the people about their higher education facilities, such as: Malawi: Land of Promise (104), Malawi: Land of Progress (102), Facts from Malawi (100), and University of Malawi (127). The magazine, This Is Malawi featured educational articles. "Inauguration of University of Malawi: Vice-Chancellor's Address" (185) appeared in This Is Malawi.

News articles in the Blantyre <u>Times</u> and <u>Malawi News</u> (165,161) reported special events in the development of the University.

## Summary of Chapter II

Chapter II presented the organization of the study on the development of higher education in the emergent nation of Malawi, Africa, and described the researcher's collection of materials while on assignment in Malawi. The resources utilized for the documentary study included books written by expatriates, missionaries and Government officers, who detailed their activities in the country and wrote concerning the missions' efforts in education, the struggle for self-determination, and conditions in Malawi in general. There were also books that were appropriate to the needs of the many African countries that received independence and developed systems of higher education.

These included Burke's <u>Africa's Quest for Order</u> (5), Herskovits' <u>Human Factor in Changing Africa</u> (24), and others.

For the development of higher education in Malawi, the study relied primarily on Government reports and publications and personal interviews with education officers and mission personnel.

#### CHAPTER III

# HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF MALAWI TO THE TIME OF INDEPENDENCE, INCLUDING

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION

'Africa for the Africans' has been our policy from the first, and we believe that God has given this country into our hands that we may train its people to develop its marvellous resources for themselves.

Scottish Blantyre missionaries in Life and Work in British Central Africa, January, 1895 (68:326)

## Purpose of Chapter III

This chapter gives a brief geographical and historical setting for the country of Malawi and shows the development of the educational system to the time of independence.

## Geography of Country

The country of Malawi is a part of the Great African Rift, that begins down in the eastern Transvaal, Republic of South Africa, and runs all the way up the body of Africa and to the Red Sea, the Dead Sea, and the Jordan Valley in Asia Minor (7:48). Malawi may be considered to be wholly a rift territory in two separate, but related, sections; an upper rift occupied by Lake Malawi (formerly known as Lake Nyasa) and a lower rift occupied by the Shire River, which drains the lake (57:12).

This land-locked country, lying entirely within the tropics, has an area of 45,747 square miles in a strip of land 520 miles long, varying in width from 50 to 100 miles. Lake Malawi occupies 8,900 square miles, and is Africa's third largest lake. The lake is 360 miles long, and is 50 miles across at its widest part (104:9-11).

The seasons in Malawi are divided into the dry and the wet. The main rains occur from November to March; the late rains during April and May; and the dry season from June to October. The distribution of rainfall varies from under thirty inches per annum to over 100 inches per annum (57:66-70).

Just over six million acres were under cultivation in 1966, with a further potential of approximately seven million acres (104:9).

## The Name Malawi

The name Malawi is a modern derivation of the term Maravi used by early travelers to cover an agglomeration of peoples living north of the Zambezi River on either side of Lake Malawi. The term was also used to designate peoples who were once members of the Maravi confederation, and who shared a common history, culture, and religion. Variant spellings were Marave, Maraves, and Malawi (70:30).

Maravi or Malawi, meaning reflected light or flame, probably was derived from the effects of sunlight on Lake Malawi. It is possible that it referred to the glow made in the night sky by the many forges the early people built, for they were industrious iron workers (60:22).

#### The Tribal Groups

The early people who occupied the country of Malawi were from the Maravi and Yao clusters (51:294-295). The tribes included the Yao around the south end of the lake, the Manganja in the Shire Highlands, the Nyanja on Likoma Island and the Shire Highlands, and the Sena in the lower Shire river area. Along the west side of the lake were the Chewa, Tumbuka, Henga, Tonga, and Konde (70:ix,32,51;76:24-25).

All the people of the area formerly known as Nyasaland are of the Bantu family (76:27). Bantu incursions into Malawi began early in the Christian era. Bantu people were a blending of Hamitic and Negro stock and were united by a common language type. Coming from the Congo Basin, these people brought with them the simple hoe and shifting cultivations. Groups were still moving into Malawi in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries (57:124).

Late arrivals in the Malawi area were the Ngoni groups who had broken away from the rule of Chaka of the Zulu tribe in Natal. In 1835 the Ngoni under the leader-

ship of Zwangendaba crossed the Zambezi river and entered the area west of Lake Malawi (8:8,20). On the death of Zwangendaba in 1845, the Ngoni divided. After considerable wandering one group led by Mombera settled in the area west of Lake Malawi. Another group under Mpezeni settled in the highlands near present Fort Jameson, while a third group settled in the Dedza highlands under the chieftainship of Chikusi (72:62-65;61:3-4;70:100).

## The First European Arrivals, the Portuguese

The influence of Western Europe in Central Africa began when the Portuguese reached the east coast of Africa in the last years of the fifteenth century (16:75). In 1487 Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and ten years later Vasco da Gama undertook his voyage to India. On the way da Gama called at a number of places on the East African coast. The inhabitants were not surprised to see them, for they were accustomed to the visits of the Arab traders (29:45,46).

Records indicate that the Portuguese traversed the area presently known as Malawi. Jaspar Bocarro carried samples of silver from Tete on the Zambezi river to Malindi on the East African coast, going through the country ruled over by the Maravi, crossing the Shire river near the Ruo junction (30:35). The records left by the early explorers were far from accurate, and it remained for David Living-

stone to bring the lake country to life (60:50-51,57).

#### Livingstone in Africa

David Livingstone, a native of Blantyre, Scotland, was trained in medicine and served as a probationer in the ministry. He had a desire to do missionary work in China. However, he met Robert Moffat, a missionary home on leave from Bechuanaland in Southern Africa. After several talks with Moffat, Livingstone asked if he "would do for Africa." Moffat's reply was memorable: "I said I believed he would, if he would not go to an old station, but would advance to unoccupied ground, specifying the vast plain to the north, . . . where no missionary had ever been." Livingstone was ordained as a missionary, and in December, 1840, he sailed in the George for South Africa (69:1,8-9).

After reaching Moffat's station, Kuruman, South Africa, Livingstone made plans to push further north to found a new station. On January 2, 1845, he married Moffat's oldest daughter, Mary (69:27). They worked at various locations, but Dr. Livingstone became interested in exploring the country in search of a more healthy site. He sent his family to England, and set out in 1852 to explore the Zambezi river valley. He traveled from Victoria Falls through Portuguese territory to Loanda on the west coast of Africa, and back along the Zambezi river to Quilimane on the east coast (44:55;54:142).

On the way down the Zambezi, Livingstone came to a river which flowed from the north, which he called the Shire (69:69). The name Shire was taken from the Chinyanja word chiri, a steep bank (31:60). Further beyond was said to be Lake Maravi (44:417). He determined to search for the lake. During his travels in this area he became aware of the slave trade conducted by the Portuguese and the Arabs along the east coast of Africa (67:13). Upon reaching Quilimane he took passage to England where he was given a hero's welcome as an explorer (44:433-434).

During his visit home, Livingstone made his famous appeal for missionaries to Africa:

I beg to direct your attention to Africa. I know that in a few years I shall be cut off in that country, which is now open; do not let it be shut again! I go back to Africa to try to make an open path for commerce and Christianity; do you carry out the work which I have begun? I LEAVE IT WITH YOU! (69:79)

#### Universities Mission to Central Africa

The enthusiasm created by Livingstone's speech led to the founding of a new missionary body, first as the Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, and Durham Mission, and later known as the Universities Mission to Central Africa (UMCA), which was an Anglican group (69:79-80). The UMCA mission was led by Livingstone from the mouth of the Zambezi (1:15), to the location at Magomero. A church was begun, but never finished. The staff began to learn the language in preparation for teaching. Europeans and Africans suffered from

lack of food, and Europeans suffered from fever. A decision was made to abandon the location, because of the unhealthy conditions and the deaths of party members (194:15, 16). Zanzibar, the center of the East African slave trade, was selected as the new mission site. In August, 1864, the mission party landed at Zanzibar, from where they hoped to carry the gospel back to the people of Lake Nyasa and the Shire river at a more suitable time (49:20-31).

#### The Livingstonia Mission

The next assault on the area of Lake Nyasa was carried out by the Foreign Missions Committee of the Free Church of Scotland (28:28). Rev. James Stewart of Lovedale Mission, South Africa, in 1863 while in England challenged his church's General Assembly:

I would suggest as the truest memorial of Livingstone the establishment . . . of an institution at once industrial and educational, to teach the truths of the Gospel and the arts of civilised life to the natives of the country; and which shall be placed on a carefully selected and commanding spot in Central Africa, where, from its position and capabilities, it might grow into a town, and afterwards into a city, and become a great centre of commerce, civilisation, and Christianity. And this I would call LIVINGSTONIA. (28:26)

It was resolved to establish the Livingstonia Mission of the Free Church of Scotland (28:28). The mission was a joint venture of the Free Church of Scotland and the Reformed Presbyterian Church, and the established Church of Scotland sent an advance agent, Henry Henderson, along to

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locate a site for a separte mission (66:183). Dr. Robert Laws of the United Presbyterian Church was asked to serve as medical officer. Seamen, a blacksmith, a carpenter, and an agriculturist made up the Livingstonia Expedition (45: 39-40). Precise and comprehensive instructions as to conduct, work, and policy were given to each member of the party. Even the exact spot to locate the mission was indicated—the northeast corner of Cape Maclear (45:42-43).

The mission party entered Lake Nyasa on October 12, 1875 (28:53). The rainy season was near at hand, and a camp was quickly established at Cape Maclear. A school was started, and they had their first convert by 1881, but the cost had been high. After five years of work, expenditure of £20,000 and five European lives, it was decided to relocate the mission at Bandawe on the west shore of the lake, further to the north (45:183-184).

#### Albert Namalembe

Albert Namalembe was the first to be baptised in the Livingstonia Mission (182:158). Albert was left at Cape Maclear, which was regarded as an outstation when the mission was moved to Bandawe (28:141). He took full charge of the school, remaining faithful to his profession throughout his life, being respected by all who knew him, both natives and Europeans (182:158).

#### Overtoun Institution

Bandawe turned out to be even more unhealthful than Cape Maclear (60:143). A suitable site was found at Kondowe on a plateau 4,300 feet above sea level and 2,900 feet above the lake (28:339). Dr. Laws had worked at Bandawe for thirteen years, and it was in 1894 that he conceived the idea of a training school along the lines of a university college, similar to the South African Lovedale Institute. The Overtoun Institute, as the training side of the mission was called, was built entirely by the missionaries, and was responsible for the creation in Nyasaland of an industrial class of Africans (19:50-51). Ransford wrote that Livingstonia flourished, pouring out a constant stream of teachers, artisans, preachers and young politicians who were destined to become the rulers of the lake (60:144).

## William Koyi

In 1876 William Koyi was among the additional staff sent to the Church of Scotland Mission from Lovedale (66: 185). Koyi spoke a Zulu language, similar to that of the Ngoni in Nyasaland (45:122), and through his assistance, a school was eventually opened in Mombera's area, the first among the Ngoni (28:151).

## African Lakes Corporation

Corporation

As early as 1876 the Livingstonia Committee saw the need to free the missionaries of the labors of commerce and

procurement of supplies required to keep the mission functioning. The Livingstonia Central African Company Ltd. was incorporated in June, 1878 (45:144). The object of this company, better known as the African Lakes Corporation, was to assist missions and other Christian agencies in East Central Africa (28:215-216).

The corporation was managed by two Scottish brothers, Fred and John Moir. Headquarters for the company were erected about a mile from the Blantyre Mission on land purchased from the Chief Kapeni (50:46). The company assisted in suppressing the slave trade through its steamers and land transport. It pioneered in planting, which provided payable exports (50:179).

## Blantyre Mission

As soon as the station at Cape Maclear was underway, Henry Henderson, representative of the established Church of Scotland, located a mission site in the Shire Highlands between Ndirande and Soche mountains. Blantyre was the name given to the mission in memory of Livingstone's birth-place (26:22). In July, 1878, Rev. Duff MacDonald arrived to supervise the mission, relieving Henderson who felt his task was completed. MacDonald soon learned the language, and in a short time was able to speak, preach, and prepare elementary lessons for school (26:30). Rev. David C. Scott spent seven years writing The Encyclopaedic Dictionary of the Mang'anja Language, and completed it in 1889. The dictionary was later republished and edited under the title

A Dictionary of the Nyanja Language, and was acknowledged as among the foremost dictionaries of the African tongues (26:36).

#### The Dutch Reformed Church Mission

The Dutch Reformed Church Mission to Nyasaland was led by Andrew Charles Murray. On the advice of Dr. Laws, the mission was located south of Bandawe at Mvera near the village of the Angoni headman, Chiwere, in 1889. In July, 1890, the first school was started at Mvera by an African teacher, Tomani, who had been trained at Cape Maclear. Another school was started at Ndindi. After a few years more schools were opened, and the numbers rapidly increased, until at one time there were over 1,000 bush schools (191:15).

## Joseph Booth, Founder of Missions

Another mission influence came to the Nyasaland area in the person of Joseph Booth, who had lived in Australia and had Baptist background. Filled with restless energy, Joseph Booth was to have direct influence in the establishment of four European mission stations in addition to influence over several native workers (68:29,213).

## Zambezi Industrial Mission

Joseph Booth arrived in 1892 and founded a mission at Mitsidi near the Blantyre mission known as the Zambezi Industrial Mission on self-supporting, self-propagating lines (41:8-9,16). Mr. Booth nearly despaired to find a dependable native boy for household chores and to take care

of his small daughter, when a young Yao lad who had learned some English at a mission school arrived with a note: "Dear Mr. Booth, you please carry me for God. I like to be your cook-boy" (41:39). This John Chilembwe later founded the Providence Industrial Mission, and became an important figure in the history of the country and the main character of the book, Independent African, by Shepperson and Price (68).

#### Nyasa Industrial Mission

By 1894 Mr. Booth began to concentrate his energies on the area around Likubula station, near Blantyre, which he had founded for a group of Australians known as the Nyasa Industrial Mission (68:54,63,77).

## Baptist Industrial Mission

In early 1895 Joseph Booth visited Great Britain, and he appealed to missionary-minded Baptists for the establishment of the Baptist Industrial Mission of Scotland at Gowa. This mission was organized on the principle of self-support as had been his previous efforts (68:64).

About 1900 a young Ngoni chief, Makwangwala, shifted his whole village to be near this mission in order to take advantage of its school (68:144).

Mr. Booth made a trip to the United States in 1897, accompanied by his first convert, John Chilembwe, who remained for education at Virginia Theological Seminary and College at Lynchburg, Virginia (68:113).

## Seventh Day Baptists Mission

Booth came in contact with Seventh Day Baptists while in the United States, and when he returned to Nyasa-land in 1899, he was the agent of "The Sabbath Evangelizing and Industrial Association" (68:118). He established Plainfield Mission at Cholo, about forty miles south of Blantyre, on 2,001 acres of partly cultivated land, and he soon had laborers planting coffee (68:134).

## Seventh-Day Adventist Mission

By 1901 Jospeh Booth had attended the Seventh-Day Adventists General Conference in the United States, and sold the 2,001 acres at Cholo to them for a mission. Thomas Branch, an American Negro, took charge of the mission.

Pastor Branch observed that the Africans in those days were quite indifferent to religion, but were keenly interested in securing an education (273:5-6). Needed teachers were hired from other missions. Peter Nyambo from the Blantyre Mission was one of the first teachers. Joseph Booth took Nyambo to England, where he continued his education. Starting in 1904 he traveled in various countries as a missionary for the church. In 1908 he returned to Nyasaland and served at the Seventh-Day Adventist mission until 1910 when he returned to his home area of Ncheu district (68:204).

In 1907 the name of the mission was changed from Plainfield to Malamulo, the Cinyanja word meaning commandment or rule (79:739). Matandani Industrial Training

School, situated on a two-hundred acre estate about eighty miles northeast of Blantyre was opened in 1908 (79:760).

#### John Chilembwe, the Independent African

John Chilembwe returned to Nyasaland upon his completion of studies in the United States accompanied by Rev. Charles S. Morris, an American Negro Baptist. Chilembwe, under their auspices, was to set up his own mission in British Central Africa (68:116).

#### Providence Industrial Mission

Arriving at Mbombwe, Chiradzulu, in 1900, John Chilembwe began work on his little church and school, the Providence Industrial Mission (PIM), which was the first mission effort by an African (68:127). Chilembwe was joined in 1901 by Rev. Landon N. Cheek, an American Negro Baptist minister, and Miss Emma B. DeLany, also an American Negro (68:136-138). Chilembwe was influenced by the school plans of American Negroes, especially the work of Booker T. Washington of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute in Alabama. However, his school followed the normal British pattern of the seven standard elementary course (68:100, 172). New teachers were added to the staff, and the teaching stressed respectability and deportment on the European model, and the simple curriculum included basic agricultural teaching (68:139-140,146).

In 1907 Daniel Malekebu, a PIM mission boy of about

fifteen, made his way to the coast and then to America. He started fifth grade in Selma, Alabama; attended National Religious Training School in Durham, North Carolina; and graduated from Meharry Medical College in Nashville, Tennessee, in 1917. Then he went to Moody Bible Institute in Chicago for one year. Daniel Malekebu was the first-known native of Nyasaland to receive a medical degree (237).

In <u>The Handbook of Nyasaland</u>, 1910, the PIM was not mentioned in a table of details, yet missions of lesser numbers headed by Europeans were listed (71:200). By 1912 Chilembwe could report to his American headquarters that there were 906 Africans under his education program. In addition, Mrs. Chilembwe gave a practical touch to the women's side of the school by providing classes in sewing (68:171).

#### The Native Rising of 1915

Early in 1915 a "native rising" led by John Chilembwe occurred in the Shire Highlands (45:352). Chilembwe's Providence Industrial Mission had land near the A. L. Bruce Estates at Magomero where W. J. Livingstone was manager (68:131). It was the policy of Mr. Bruce not to permit schools on his estate (45:353). W. J. Livingstone had ordered a PIM church on the estates destroyed, and the treatment of the natives in his employ was often unduly harsh (45:353).

The natives' discontent and Chilembwe's leadership culminated in an attack on the Bruce Estates on Saturday evening, January 23, 1915 (68:267,279). W. J. Livingstone and two other males were murdered, and three women and five children were carried away. The women and children were treated kindly and returned unhurt (45:353). Chilembwe and several of his followers were killed attempting to escape (45:353;68:316-317).

The rising, though rarely mentioned in open discussions of educational problems in the Protectorate between 1916 and 1930, had a definite place in the history of education among Africans. It was not until 1926 that the Providence Industrial Mission was allowed to reopen under the auspices of the National Baptist Convention and its representative, Dr. Daniel Malekebu (68:391).

#### Roman Catholic Missions

From the beginning of the sixteenth century, Portuguese priests were established in the fortresses of Sofala and Mocambique on the East African coast, and they followed the steps of the traders into the interior (16:89).

## The White Fathers

Nyasaland was regarded by the Catholics as part of a vast mission field which included the Protectorate and the Eastern and Northern provinces of Northern Rhodesia (84:172). The Nyasa Mission, created in 1889 (19:82), was

under the care of the White Fathers (84:172). The White Fathers, led by Father Lechaptois, settled in the territory of Mponda, the Paramount Chief of the Yao, near the present site of Fort Johnston. Because of the slavery problem, lack of supplies, and disputes between Britain and Portugal over the territory, they were compelled to leave after a year (78:108). The missionaries moved to Mambwe between Lake Nyasa and Lake Tanganyika (84:172).

In 1901 the White Fathers, accompanied by a small party of Priests of the Company of Mary, returned to Nyasaland to renew mission work. That year Father M. Guilleme, later Bishop Guilleme, visited the country to find a suitable site for a mission. He chose a spot, Ciwamba, near present Lilongwe (19:82).

Mission stations were started at Mua on the fringe of the Ntakatake district in 1902 and Kachebere, near Fort Manning in 1903. They intended to build a line of missions from the southern end of the lake west to connect with their missions in Northern Rhodesia (239). By 1932 the White Fathers had a number of dispensaries, a college for classical education, and a leper colony at Mua under qualified White Sisters (19:84).

One of the first seminarians at Mua in 1921 was

Cornelius Citsulo, ordained a priest in 1934. Twenty-three

years later he was consecrated Bishop of Dedza (1957), the

first Nyasalander to become a Bishop (187:68). Another

well-known Catholic, who is a popular vernacular author, is William Chafulmira. One of his books, <u>Banja Lathu</u> (<u>Our Family</u>), was first published in 1942. It became a best seller at once, and has gone into nine editions (10:181).

#### Montfort Fathers

The Montfort Fathers arrived in Nyasaland in 1901 to work in cooperation with the White Fathers. They were assigned the portion of the Protectorate lying to the south of Lake Nyasa as their sphere of influence. Their first station was located at Nzama, near Ncheu (239).

The work of the Montfort Fathers extended across the Shire Highlands and into the Lower Shire river area (83:108). By 1932 they had thirteen stations including Nguludi, Nzama, Neno, Utale, Nankunda, Blantyre, Chikwawa, Limbe, Port Herald, Zomba, Mlanje, Mwanza, and Nsipe. They conducted 890 schools, including a boarding school for half-caste and native girls at Limbe. Nguludi had a normal school for training teachers, with 240 enrolled, and a seminary for training future priests with sixty-five accommodations (139:399). Bishop Auneau spent half a century building up a superb school system. When His Excellency died in 1950, he left behind almost one thousand village schools as his legacy to Nyasaland (10:181).

A Congregation of African Sisters undertook all forms of apostolate: schools, hospitals, visits to the

sick, church and domestic work (187:69).

#### Congregation of La Sagesse

Nursing sisters, who were members of the Congregation of La Sagesse ("Daughters of Wisdom"), arrived in Nyasaland in 1904. The certificated nurses worked in the hospital. Those who were certificated teachers gave their service to mission schools (139:397-399). Originally, the sisters were all French, and the first American sister arrived in 1934. After World War II a greater number of sisters arrived, and schools were expanded (214).

#### Marist Brothers

On September 21, 1949, the first two Marist Brothers arrived at Saint John's Teacher Training College at Lilongwe. They were Brother Dominic, principal, and Brother Andrew, assistant. They took the school over from the White Fathers (244;260). Brother John Charles Morin arrived at Zomba Catholic Secondary School to join the staff in October, 1952, to familiarize himself with the affairs of the school, so that he could eventually take over the Headship. He was followed a year later by Brother Raymond. Brothers Cyril and Peter Xavier arrived in 1964 when the staff became entirely Marist (213:10;221).

## South African General Mission

The South African General Mission (SAGM), an inter-

denominational mission with home councils in London and New York, founded its first Nyasa station in 1900. The station was located at Lulwe in the extreme southwest of the Lower Shire District on a ridge of the Kirk Range mountains. In 1909 another station was opened at Chididi, eight miles west of Port Herald (217). The main purpose of the mission, as with others, was evangelism, but their labors embraced elementary education, a certain amount of agriculture, carpentry, building for men and boys, and beadwork for girls. Some medical work was done by the staff, with a dispensary being open daily (139;396). This mission worked primarily among the Sena people (217), and they pioneered education for the blind (271).

## British Churches of Christ Mission

The British Churches of Christ started work in Nyasaland in 1908 when G. H. Hollis settled near Blantyre (74:98). The main work was located at Namiwawa near Zomba with outstations spread to the south across the Palombe plain to Mlanje. In 1930 the Churches of Christ took over the operation of the Baptist Industrial Mission of Scotland at Gowa. By 1932 the mission had forty-two schools under leadership of missionary-trained teachers (139:40).

## African School Leaders

Missionary groups from outside Nyasaland were not the only ones to start schools. Two African men,

Rev. H. M. Phiri and Rev. C. C. Chinula, provided leadership in establishing schools (246;224). Rev. Amon Mwakasungula, a classmate of Rev. Phiri, started new schools for the Livingstonia Mission (241).

#### Rev. H. M. Phiri

H. M. Phiri attended Overtoun Institute at Livingstonia. In 1910 he returned to Linga, his home village
near Kasungu, to be headmaster of the local school (246).
In 1916 he went to Rhodesia to work, where he met his
nephew, Hastings K. Banda, who was later to become first
President of Malawi (246;199:6). The two men traveled to
South Africa where they worked in the mines and came in
contact with members of the African Methodist Episcopal
Church from the United States. Rev. Phiri related that the
AME men agreed to send H. K. Banda to the United States for
education, and Mr. Phiri was to return to Nyasaland as representative of the African Methodist Episcopal Church.

Rev. Phiri returned to Nyasaland in 1924 and started the work of the AME church. His first school at Mdabwi Mission was reported to the first Director of Education, R. F. Gaunt, in 1926 (246). An immediate grant of eight pounds by Government placed the school in the assisted category. Rev. Phiri was instrumental in starting twenty elementary schools, some located across the border in Northern Rhodesia. The schools that continued to operate

after independence were taken over by Government. Mdabwi school was still in operation in 1966 (246).

#### Rev. C. C. Chinula

Rev. C. C. Chinula of Sazu, near Mzimba, established and operated schools in his area with no outside assistance. He had been educated at Livingstonia, and began teaching for the mission in 1908. Having some theological differences with the church, he separated himself from their services in 1935 and began his own mission (224).

It was necessary to establish a school, because he was appealing to people who had been put out of the church, and therefore were not permitted to send their children to school. It was common in the schools of that day to introduce English in the fifth year. Rev. Chinula introduced English in the first year, and his method was to use short sentences that could be used in conversation (224). An attempt was made to have his school closed by the Education Department, which he felt was instigated by the Church of Scotland Mission. When his case came before the District Commissioner, he was told that his schools could continue, and that he would receive Government aid (224).

#### Rev. Amon Mwakasungula

Rev. Amon Mwakasungula, Headman of Kasoba area,
Karonga, started bush schools for the Free Church of Scotland Mission in his area. He became a school master at

Ngerenye in 1908. In 1926 Mr. Mwakasungula returned to Livingstonia for study, and he was then posted to Mlambia to evangelize and start bush schools. The school structures were of poles and grass roofs, and were used for prayer services in the afternoon. Rev. Mwakasungula recalled slates were few, and students often wrote on the ground (241).

## Other Churches of Christ Missions

Individual Church of Christ missionaries from the United States went to Nyasaland following World War II.

These missionaries conducted a limited amount of schools and concentrated their work on distribution of religious literature and in the training of indigenous workers (232; 248;226).

## Assemblies of God Missions

The first Assemblies of God mission station was located at Mbula in the Karonga district of northern Nyasaland in 1945, when workers entered from the Territory of Tanganyika. In 1948 mission stations were opened in the Central and Southern Provinces at Dowa, Dedza, and Limbe (219). A Bible training center was established at Dedza, and a printing shop was located at Limbe, where literature was printed in the vernacular (86:584).

## Church of the Nazarene

The Church of the Nazarene missionaries arrived in Nyasaland in 1957. The first mission site at Chipoka, the end of the rail on the west side of Lake Nyasa, proved to be an unhealthful location (230), and a more suitable location was found on the Midima road out of Limbe toward Mlanje. A Bible college was erected at this site for the purpose of training native ministers (231).

#### Southern Baptist Mission

The first Southern Baptist missionaries arrived in Nyasaland in August, 1959. They established mission stations in the cities of Blantyre, Zomba, and Lilongwe, with churches in the rural areas. A printing facility and training school for native workers were located at Lilongwe (215).

#### Missionary Conferences Held

A missionary conference was held at Livingstonia in 1900, and seven churches and societies sent thirty-three delegates (45:301). At the end of the century there were ten missions working in the country, having under their management nearly 300 primary schools, one teacher training school (UMCA), and one superior institution (Livingstonia) (55:63). Some of the new arrivals felt a need for further consultation and planning, which led to the suggestion of a second conference (55:63).

A second conference was held at the Church of Scotland Mission, Blantyre, in 1904, and was attended by between fifty and sixty missionaries (45:328). They drew up an educational code for the use of all missions, and appointed an Education Board (55:63). There was talk of colleges and a university for natives, but it was felt that the missions must stick to primary education. Native teachers wanted to learn English, and it was decided English should be taught at the training school for teachers at Mvera (62:82).

#### Education Code Revised

The Education Board met in Blantyre in May, 1905, and drew up a revised educational code for the missions of the whole Protectorate. This code was described as follows:

In this [code] provision has been made for education of every possible grade, from the primary village school to the Central Training Institution, Educational, Commercial, Technical, Medical and Theological which will be affiliated to its fellows as the Central African United Educational Institutions—finally to merge in a Central African College and University. (55:64)

This scheme was adopted by the missions, and presented to His Majesty's Government in the form of a request for a grant-in-aid. The Government first provided grants to missions in 1907, totaling £1,000; increased grants in 1920 to £2,000; and in 1924/25 granted £3,000 (138:23).

At the third General Missionary Conference at Mvera in 1910, the education of women and girls was considered,

and the Educational Code was further revised for general adoption (55:64). The Government Secretary's Office, Zomba, gave approval of the Revised Educational Code, but reserved the right to require amendments to the code at any time, after consultation with the board. There were four classifications in the new code:

Vernacular Anglo-Vernacular Lower Schools Anglo-Vernacular Upper Schools and Manual.

The code dealt with such topics as teacher qualifications, attendance, promotion, course outlines, and provided for a Certificate to be awarded upon completion of work (202:1-17).

## Phelps-Stokes Reports

In the pre-World War I period, the colonial governments left the African educational programs almost exclusively to the missionaries. While there were instances in which commercial interests offered a modicum of training for young Africans, the majority of schools were financed and operated by religious groups. Government interest in, and supervision of, African education remained practically non-existent until the close of World War I (64:4-5). As a result of this condition, a study of educational needs in Africa was recommended by the Foreign Missions Conference of North America, and the necessary financing was provided by the Phelps-Stokes Fund (33:xii). The Phelps-Stokes

Report of 1922 covered a study of education in west, south, and equatorial Africa (33:xvii-xviii). The second report, Education in East Africa, was commissioned by the Trustees of the Phelps-Stokes Fund at their meeting, November 21, 1923. Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones, known for his interest in Negro education in the United States, served as chairman of both studies (64:52).

The Phelps-Stokes Commission visited Nyasaland in 1924 (250:425). Although the commission appreciated the missions' efforts toward education, it was emphatic that Government was failing in its duty with regard to the provisions of funds, control, and organization of education (138:23). The estimated revenue of the Protectorate for 1923-24 was £278,000. Up to £111,800 was contributed by the natives in hut taxes. The expenditure for education was £3,000, while expenditure for military, police, and prisons was £46,572 (34:197).

Recommendations of the commission included the following:

- 1. The appointment of a Director of Education and organization of a Department of Education.
- 2. The establishment of an Advisory Board of Native Education with representatives of Government, settlers, and missionaries, and as soon as possible, provide native representation.

- 3. The provision of additional finance by Government.
- 4. The provision of sympathetic supervision and friendly visitation of all schools by Government and mission officers.

The commission also stated it was necessary to keep in mind the educational needs of those who had completed the training of the highest schools of the colony. Provision should be made for students who would profit by education in the advanced schools of neighboring colonies. The Native College at Fort Hare in South Africa was recommended (34:215-218).

## First Director of Education

In November, 1925, Mr. R. F. Gaunt was appointed as the first Director of Education in Nyasaland. On his arrival on April 30, 1926, the Education Department came into existence (55:65). In 1927 the first Education Ordinance was enacted (128:7).

## Jeanes Training Centre

At the Native Education Conference held at Zomba in 1927, Governor, Sir Charles C. Bowring stated that he hoped it would be possible to find funds for the erection of buildings necessary for the establishment of a Jeanes school (137:7). As an outcome of the recommendations made by the Phelps-Stokes Commission, Government had decided to

establish a school for training visiting teachers or supervisors to work on the same lines as "Jeanes" teachers in America (145:1). The Jeanes Training Centre owed its inception in 1928 to the generosity of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, who guaranteed a grant of £1,000 a year for five years on condition that Government would contribute at least an equal amount (133:7). The Centre was planned to give two years' training to groups of twentyfour selected African mission teachers and their wives. It was intended that the selected candidates should afterwards serve as supervisory teachers for the primary schools of their missions. With the help of their wives they would assist in rural uplift.

The Centre was located on the Zomba-Fort Johnston road, ten miles distant from Zomba, on the Domasi river (145:1-2). With the exception of one village school, the Jeanes Training Centre was the only Government school in the country, and it was the policy of the Government to regard it as the nucleus of a system of higher education (145:9).

## Africans on Advisory Committee

In 1933 Mr. Levi Z. Mumba was appointed as the first African member of the Advisory Committee on Education.

Governor, Sir Hubert Young stated Mr. Mumba should be of great assistance in expressing the views of natives on

their educational future (134). Mr. Charles Matinga joined Mr. Mumba as the second African on the Advisory Committee in 1937 (136). These two representatives worked very hard for the establishment of a Government-managed Secondary School for Africans (55:68).

At a meeting of the Consultative Board of Federated Missions held at Mkhoma in 1937, it was proposed that a Government-supported secondary school be established. A six member Board of Governors with representatives of six missions was suggested (259). Levi Mumba and Charles Matinga made notes to Government on the proposal putting forth the view of Africans on the matter. They noted:
"Why not make aims of secondary education envisaged for Nyasaland fit in with that of Makerere College? It's unfair to aim at giving less quality and quantity than given to other Africans in South and West Africa" (259).

## Blantyre Secondary School

After several proposals a building grant was paid by Government to the Church of Scotland, Blantyre, and Blantyre Secondary School was opened in October, 1940 (218). Each of the following missions was entitled to appoint one member to the Board of Governors to direct the school:

- 1. Universities Mission of Central Africa.
- 2. Livingstonia Mission of the Church of Scotland.
- 3. Blantyre Mission of the Church of Scotland,

whose representative should also represent
African-controlled Missions.

- 4. Dutch Reformed Church Mission.
- Group consisting of Zambesi Industrial Mission,
   South African General Mission, and Churches of
   Christ Mission.
- 6. Seventh-Day Adventist Mission (142).

Thomas Price of the Blantyre Mission and later coauthor of <u>Independent African</u> was the first chairman of the Board of Governors, Blantyre Secondary School (218).

#### Catholic Secondary School, Zomba

In the report of the Education Department for 1940 there appeared the following statement:

The Roman Catholic Bishops have submitted proposals for a Catholic Secondary School to be erected on an excellent site just outside Zomba. The scheme provides for joint control under a Board of Governors as in the case of the Blantyre school, and it is intended that the courses of instruction be similar. The total capital grant required is ₹4,675 and the proposal is still under consideration. (213:4)

Government approval was granted, and Rev. Father A. Isherwood of the Nguludi Normal School was selected as first principal (257). In January, 1942, the Cathlic Secondary School, Zomba, took in its first seventeen students (213:5).

#### Malamulo College

In 1948 the Seventh-Day Adventist Mission withdrew

from Blantyre Secondary School operated by the Christian Council, and began its own secondary school at Malamulo (262). The school at Malamulo had been known for many years as the Malamulo Mission Training Institute, and was renamed Malamulo College in 1963 (79:339).

#### Dedza Secondary School

A Government-sponsored secondary school at Dedza was approved in 1950 with twelve academic and twelve technical students to be admitted in February, 1951 (90:10). By 1954 there were 132 students with about fifty taking technical courses (261:9). A second classroom block had been erected for the academic students; there were five workshops for the technical students; and two hostels were in use with the third under construction (261:5). In 1955 the technical stream was discontinued, and in 1957 the clerical stream was transferred from Dedza to the Artisan Training Centre. In 1958 the curricula of Dedza Secondary School were extended to include preparation for the Higher School Certificate or Advanced Level General Certificate stream by officially establishing a Sixth Form (261:9).

## External Scholarships

When Levi Mumba asked the Nyasaland Government to pay part of his son's secondary school fees in South Africa, the Government reluctantly advanced £13-10-0 for the first academic year. The Chief Secretary commented: "Such cases

will continue to be rare for some time to come, fortunately I think, since the slower the progress—in the direction of higher education for the African—the better" (63:52-53).

The Colonial Office reports each year included information concerning the number of external scholarships awarded to Nyasaland recipients. For the year 1950 eight full university scholarships were provided by Government, one at Makerere in Uganda and seven at Fort Hare in South Africa. Eight Colonial Scholarships were awarded by the Secretary of State and held in Britain; one at Loughborough Co-operative College and seven at the Colonial Department of the Institute of Education, University of London. The Government of India offered one full scholarship to Nyasaland for an African wishing to take a course of higher studies in India (90:10).

#### Federation

#### Federation Established

The year 1953 was a time of unrest in Nyasaland. The Protectorate was forced into a federation with Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia by the ruling Europeans and the British Parliament. Africans from Nyasaland were well aware of the treatment given to Blacks in various areas, because for many years they had worked in the mines, on the farms, and in the homes of Europeans in Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, and South Africa (9:42-43). At stake

was the issue of wages, which were always less for Blacks than Europeans; a spread of the Apartheid system of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia; and the extension of the color bar--certain areas of work and privilege being reserved for Europeans only (9:63,94).

#### Education under Federation

There was unrest in the schools and on the estates (91:5). The number of teachers completing training in 1953 was 199, down from 250 in 1952, and 270 in 1951. In order to make teaching more attractive, conditions were improved during the year by substantial increases in salaries, bringing them in line with salaries of Government employees. Increases in monthly allowances and improvements in housing were also provided (91:88).

In that same year, the name of the Jeanes Training Centre was changed to Government Teacher Training Centre, Domasi, as the sole function was now training teachers (91: 83).

European, Asian, and Higher Education were taken over by the Federation in 1954, the first full year of Federation (92:1). The bulk of African education was in Mission hands, so the Education Department was comparatively small (93:88).

# Expansion of Secondary and Technical Education

In 1955 Nyasaland was visited by the Educational Adviser to the Secretary of State for the Colonies and two of his assistant advisers. Following their advice and with financial assistance by the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, proposals were approved for expansion of secondary and technical education. Preliminary work was begun on enlarging Dedza Secondary School and building a new secondary school in the Northern Province at Choma, near Mzuzu In 1957 the Artisan Training Centre in the (93:90). Blantyre-Limbe area was being developed to give two years' pre-apprenticeship training to be followed by three years' apprenticeship in industry with part-time release instruction at the Centre (183:70-71). By 1958 the Centre had an enrollment of 130 pupils; 119 apprenticed to building and mechanical trades, and eleven were clerical trainees (94: 102).

#### University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland

As the result of the recommendation of the Commission on Higher Education for Africans in Central Africa,

A. M. Carr-Saunders, Chairman, in February, 1953 (196), a
university was planned to serve Central Africa (86:482).

Teaching began at the University College of Rhodesia and
Nyasaland in March, 1957. Situated in Salisbury, Southern

Rhodesia, on 500 acres of land presented by the City Council, the college had a Faculty of Arts and a Faculty of Science. The minimum entrance requirement was at least two passes at Advanced Level in General Certificate of Education or the equivalent, and was open to men and women of all races. There was one residence hall for women and two for men. In 1957 there were seventy full-time students (86:481-482). While plans had been made for up to ten Nyasaland pupils to attend schools annually in Northern and Southern Rhodesia (132:4), only two were enrolled at Salisbury during 1958, one in a post-graduate course and one in Agricultural Science (94:102).

### Movement for Independence

## Opposition to Federation

By 1957 there began a movement in Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia for outright independence as the only way to break the domination of Southern Rhodesia and the dreaded Federation (40:391). The Church of Central Africa Presbyterian (CCAP) spoke out against government suppression of freedom (9:136,138-139). There was unrest in the schools, and at Dedza Secondary School the total student body of 142 pupils was expelled, and Blantyre Secondary School was closed for two weeks (9:50-51). Dr. Hastings K. Banda returned to Nyasaland in 1958 to work toward independence, and he was received by his African people as a

"Moses returned from exile" (200:331). Prime Minister, Sir Roy Welensky, leader of the Federation, said he made a "most unwelcome reappearance" (75:83).

African opposition to the Federation continued to mount, and an Emergency was declared on Tuesday, March 3, 1959 (48:203). Four hours after the announcement of the Emergency, over one hundred influential African leaders, including Dr. Banda, were arrested (75:127), and they were detained until 1960 (104:29).

#### Commission of Inquiry

The Report of the Nyasaland Commission of Inquiry,
Patrick Devlin, Chairman, July, 1959, reviewed the developments leading up to the disturbances, and outlined conditions in the country as the Commission found them during
the survey (99). After considerable negotiations, and
mainly owing to the resolution of the new British Colonial
Secretary, Iain Macleod, Dr. Banda was released on April 1,
1960. He immediately took over the leadership of the
Malawi Congress Party, formed while he was in prison (65:
101).

### Review of the Constitution

While Dr. Banda had been in gaol, an Advisory Commission was convened to review the Constitution of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The Report of the Advisory Commission on the Review of the Constitution of

Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Monckton of Brenchley, Chairman, concluded that the Federation could not be maintained in its present form, but recommended that the three territories of Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland remain linked in some form of Federal Association (88:111). A minority report stated that the Federation should not be continued without consent of all the people, and that the majority report did not deal effectively with constitutional advancement in the territories (88:139-156).

#### Elections in Nyasaland

Plans were made for popular elections in the Nyasa-land Protectorate (143). On August 16, 1961, a general election took place, and the Malawi Congress Party scored an overwhelming victory (65:101). Dr. Banda was determined on secession from the Federation, and in November, 1962, a constitutional conference was held in London to settle the future of the territory. At the end of the conference, on November 23, unanimous agreement on the constitution for a self-governing Nyasaland was announced. On February 1, 1963, Dr. Banda was sworn in as the first Prime Minister of Nyasaland (65:103). The Ministry of Education was instituted in September, 1961, and the Hon. H. W. K. Chiume was the first Minister of Education (106:1).

# An Inquiry into African Education

#### Economic Survey

A motion was put forth by African members of the Legislative Council of Nyasaland in 1958 to establish an inquiry into African education. As the Jack Economic Survey was then in progress, it was decided to delay the education study until the results of the Jack Survey were available (138:1). A Report on an Economic Survey of Nyasaland, 1958-1959, Professor D. T. Jack, Chairman, was released in June, 1960 (87), and some recommendations on education were made (87:168-183). This report indicated that expenditures in Nyasaland on African education amounted to 181,021 in 1948 and had increased to 1981,254 in the year ended June 30, 1957. In the year 1957-58 the Government for the first time provided more funds for African education than any other Government service (87:182).

### Phillips Report

The Committee of Inquiry into African Education

Report, Professor J. F. V. Phillips, Chairman, was published by the Ministry of Education in January, 1962, while the report was still under active consideration by Government (138:Preface). The Phillips Report made many recommendations for education at all levels: primary, secondary, higher, teacher training, technical, agriculture, and adult (138:266-292). A new education ordinance aimed at bringing

the control of education more in accord with the realities of the time was proposed by the Commission, and was adopted into law in March, 1962 (98).

The Phillips Report stated that high priority must be given to the expansion and improvement of the secondary school system with a view to raising the output of students qualified for university entrance. No students from Nyasaland were expected to be completing courses at the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1964 (138:71).

#### School Enrollment

From 1963 to 1965 primary education was reduced from eight years to seven years and secondary education was extended from four years to five years. This was done to increase the output of secondary school students.

Appendix B gives the enrollments for the years 1958, 1960, 1962, and 1964. The primary enrollment showed a sharp drop of 91,820 in 1964 compared to 1962, because Standard VIII had been eliminated. Secondary enrollment showed an increase of 3,826 in 1964. The increase in secondary enrollment was due in part to the additional year of secondary education. It was the policy of the Ministry of Education to develop secondary education as rapidly as possible. All former junior secondary schools were developed into full secondary schools. All secondary schools except two were increased to double stream entry. Seven new day

secondary schools were built, each with double stream entry (106:15).

#### School Staff

To provide the teachers necessary to accommodate the increased enrollment in secondary schools, staffing was mainly by expatriates, together with a number of local nongraduates, most of whom had either an upgrading course or had undertaken an overseas course. The expatriates included Government teachers recruited from Britain and the Commonwealth, missionary teachers and members of religious orders, volunteers from the Voluntary Service Overseas in Britain (VSO), graduate volunteers from Britain, certain teachers (mainly married women) recruited locally on temporary terms, and volunteers from the United States Peace Corps, who provided a contingent of forty-two teachers in 1963 (106:17).

Teacher training enrollment, Appendix C, showed an increase of 368 during the period 1958 to 1964. In 1960 a vigorous weeding out of first year students and a limiting of class size to thirty per class was carried out. This resulted in a net increase from 1958 to 1960 of fourteen places in teacher training (141:25).

At the end of 1960, records showed that twenty-seven African post-secondary graduates were working in Nyasaland (96:102).

#### Survey of Educational Needs

The Education Survey Team, sponsored by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and led by Dr. Eldon Johnson, visited Malawi in 1963. Education for Development: Report of the Survey Team on Education in Malawi was issued in April, 1964 (195). The report covered those areas of education not covered by the Phillips Report, particularly higher and post-secondary education (107:1). The survey team stated that Malawi urgently needed university education (195:46).

#### Transfer of Control

There was no university education available in Malawi in 1964 (89:20). Transfer of schools from the Federal Ministry of Education to the Nyasaland Government was made in December, 1963. It was decided that European schools should remain exclusively for Europeans (106:7). It was felt by Government that adequate educational facilities had to be provided if expatriates were to be attracted to work in the country (227:235).

# Summary of Chapter III

The first Christian missions were sent to Nyasaland as the direct result of David Livingstone's explorations of Central Africa. The University Mission to Central Africa, The Livingstonia Mission of the Free Church of Scotland, the Blantyre Mission of the established Church of Scotland,

and the Dutch Reformed Church Mission all established schools, and these and other mission groups provided the major portion of education in the country until the approach of independence.

In 1924 the Phelps-Stokes Commission visited Nyasa-land, and the recommendations in the report, Education in East Africa (34), were responsible for the establishment of a Department of Education in 1927 and the Jeanes Training Centre in 1928 (34,145). It was the policy of Government to regard the Jeanes Training Centre as the nucleus of a system of higher education (145:9).

The first secondary schools established in Nyasa-land were the Blantyre Secondary School under the proprietorship of the Christian Council in 1940 and the Catholic Secondary School, Zomba in 1942, with Government furnishing building grants. The first Government-sponsored secondary school was located at Dedza in 1951.

By 1957 there was a movement in Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia for outright independence to break the domination of Southern Rhodesia in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (40:391). In November, 1962, an agreement for a self-governing Nyasaland was announced in London, and Dr. Banda was sworn in as the first Prime Minister on February 1, 1963.

The Education Survey Team, sponsored by the United States Agency for International Development, issued their

recommendations in April, 1964, in Education for Development: Report of the Survey Team on Education in Malawi.

The survey team stated that Malawi urgently needed university education.

#### CHAPTER IV

# DEMAND AND DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE EMERGING NATIONS

There are those who complain that the discovery of Africa and the African personality and community by Africans is taking place at too fast a pace. Such people should be reminded that Africa is many years behind the rest of the world and that in these circumstances we cannot afford the luxury of wasting time. They might well remember the old but true adage that 'he who is behind must run faster than he who is in front.' In the case of Africa we do not have only to run faster but we have, at the same time, to try to avoid the mistakes and pitfalls of those who 'run before us,' a considerable addition to our task. Lest any believe we are really running too fast, let me recall to them that colonialism has existed in Africa for over four centuries.

"African Freedom," an Address by Tom Mboya, Kenya (27:39)

# Purpose of Chapter IV

This chapter gives some background of the need for institutions of higher learning in emerging nations and traces the planning which accompanied independence.

# Early African Education

Except for the University of Sankore, which flourished at Timbuctoo in the sixteenth century (12:281), the
history of formal education in most of Africa is relatively
short. The foundation was laid by the Christian missions,

which raised the aspirations of the countries where they were located (46:51-52). The church had been the education of Africa (181:200). When Dr. Arthur S. Adams, President of the American Council on Education, supported by a Carnegie Corporation travel grant, visited African countries in 1958, he observed that "the foundations for present-day Nigerian education were clearly laid in the missionary schools of a generation or two ago" (178:282).

# Special Relationship of African and Metropolitan Universities

Europeans established schools in Africa to train the personnel needed to support European administrative and economic projects (23:4). The priority given to education by missions was exhibited when the Church Missionary Society established a training school for ministers in Sierra Leone, West Africa, in 1827 (24:252-253). By 1876 this school was known as Fourah Bay College, and became an affiliate with the University of Durham, England (12:28). The association with Durham allowed Fourah Bay to train candidates for degrees granted by Durham. This association established a tradition which came to have an important place in African higher education.

There were no institutions of higher learning in Portuguese or Spanish Africa, but in British, French, and Belgian territories, the quality of degrees was guaranteed by metropolitan universities. Except at Fourah Bay,

British Commonwealth Colleges had their degrees guaranteed by the University of London (24:253). London supervised staff and recruitment, controlled degree structure and syllabi, and evaluated the standard of examinations (12:29).

# Advantages and Disadvantages of Special Relationships

The association of the African university with the European university lent the prestige of the older institution, helped to attract a staff of adequate caliber, and provided a tried degree structure. The drawback to association with a metropolitan degree structure was that it did not fit the needs of undeveloped countries. A single subject honors system was too narrow for a wide range of student needs. Subservience to a foreign institution cost the new universities much political goodwill, and forced them into defensive attitudes for being so closely allied with the former colonial powers. Former British colonies where universities were founded have gently broken connections with London. They retained the same staffing and continued research (12:29).

## Colleges Founded in South Africa

In South Africa four colleges were founded before 1900, from 1955 to 1896. Ten colleges or universities were established after 1904. Colleges which were once open to all races were later segregated by groups, such as European,

non-European, Coloured, and Indians (38:vii-viii).

### Need for Universities Recognized

Following World War II colonial governments resolved that their colonies should move toward independence. They anticipated that the demand for skilled manpower would arise and felt it was unlikely that enough African students could go abroad to acquire the needed skills (12:28). Great Britain moved forward when the Asquith Commission Report of 1943 was published, urging the creation of universities overseas as a prerequisite for independence (12:284). Colonial administrators were not enthusiastic about founding expensive institutions, which would turn out African graduates who might cause them difficulties, and even eventually take their jobs (12:28).

# Africans Demanded Higher Education

The second World War accelerated the demand for higher education. Those Africans who served in the Armed Forces during the war learned new skills, and raised their horizons for a higher standard of living (21:293). Africans had observed that the Europeans who were educated did no manual labor, but enjoyed higher status and greater remuneration (24:224).

Many African societies had a class structure based on age, descent, or other considerations, which required a reinterpretation from customary cultural patterns to social

stratification on basis of literacy (24:224). Highly educated African families almost invariably lived in urban university centers. They had little in common with the illiterate bush people, and were inclined to seek out other educated young people (5:69). A college education automatically placed a young man among the country's elite (77:18). Emerging nations had to face the question, "How can differences and disparities be prevented from developing between persons of vastly different educational levels?" An elite society was needed if this meant persons with higher skills, who inevitably received higher financial remuneration and wielded more power (12:32).

### More Universities Provided

Although no clearly defined pattern was followed by the British government, they did provide University Colleges in Basutoland, Ghana, Nigeria, and Uganda by 1950 (38:vii-viii). France established the University of Dakar in Senegal in 1950, and Belgium sponsored Lovanium University in the Congo in 1954 (24:253). Even with the limited opportunity for higher education, enough educated people were produced to demand self-government and to shoulder the responsibilities involved (21:300).

# African Countries Received Independence

The fight for independence in Black Africa was, with few exceptions, non-violent. The transfer of sover-

eignty was smooth to the point of being uneventful. The first Black African territory to win independence was Ghana in 1957 (23:18). Starting with the Sudanese Republic, in ten years from 1956 to 1966, thirty-one independent states were formed out of colonial territories (47:176). A listing of the countries is given in Appendix A.

#### Status of Education at Independence

Literacy was enjoyed by a small portion of the total African population at the time of independence (21:148). Most Black African countries had literacy rates under 20 per cent, and over one-half of their children under seventeen were not in schools (23:5). In Kenya 600 of every 1,000 native youngsters of primary school age started school. Only 150 of the group continued beyond the fourth grade, and only fifteen of the 1,000 ever began secondary school. Between 75 and 80 per cent of all Ghanaian children of elementary school age attended school. In 1957 there were only 2,000 places available in Ghanaian secondary schools for the 32,000 youngsters who had completed primary education (179:562).

Education became the largest single budget item in Black Africa (23:5). The outline of the educational structure in most African countries in the 1950's was strikingly similar. The pyramid was set with a wide base of primary school, with sides that narrowed quickly and rose sharply

through secondary school and higher education levels. Relatively large numbers of places were available in primary schools, but barely one out of twenty primary students continued through secondary schools. Only a small fraction of the secondary school students attended a university at home or abroad (46:53). Expansion of facilities and procuring of staff was limited by high costs (46:54). The shortage of teachers was most critical at the secondary level (46:162).

As independence approached, the need for large numbers of Africans with at least secondary level education created a demand for expansion of education (46:54). Commerce and industry were anxious to obtain the services of local graduates (42:10). Most African countries were anxious to protect high standards for secondary education. A university degree was a requirement as a minimum qualification for teachers in many countries. Staffing problems were dependent upon the output from universities (46:63).

# Problems of Finance, Staff, and Planning

For reasons of national prestige, many newly independent nations were reluctant to seek official help from the former imperial power in dealing with educational problems. Local educational systems were closely patterned after those of the former ruling powers, making it difficult to accept assistance from elsewhere. The difficulty

of staffing was met to some extent by recruiting expatriates. There were not the same political objections to hiring them as teachers as there were to employing them in administrative posts (42:11).

Higher costs were incurred for expatriate staff as housing, passage to and from the home country, and leave pay had to be provided (12:30). Vigorous efforts were made to replace expatriates with nationals. The major staffing problems were in specialized fields, such as physics, engineering, and science (46:64).

Suitable residential housing for students was expensive due to high construction costs. Unit costs were high, especially in the first years due to low staff-student ratio. It required about ten years to reach a cost per student comparable to that of an established university. While capital costs were high, most of the recurrent costs were borne by the new nations, even though financial resources were scarce (12:30). Many African countries spent nearly one-fifth of their total income on education (6:1).

To many Africans in responsible Government positions, the future was viewed as a race between education
and national disaster. They somehow had to turn hundreds
of thousands of uneducated young men and women into dedicated, technically competent and efficient civil servants
(5:72). Educational planning became very much the instrument of political as well as educational decisions (147:14).

#### Assistance from Outside Sources

Some countries tried to meet their staffing requirements through the aid of international organizations (42:11). Men like Julius Nyerere, Sékou Touré, and Hastings Banda all turned to the outside world for assistance in meeting immediate and critical needs. The Ford Foundation and other bodies have done much to raise the standard of education in Africa and to increase teaching personnel and facilities. The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was aware of the critical race between education and social and political chaos (5:72). The United Nations Expanded Technical Assistance Program by mid-1953 had provided more than 2,000 experts to assist the economic development in eighty-two countries and territories. The effort in Africa was small, but growing. In 1954 the number of African countries benefiting increased from four to fourteen (21:377).

By 1954 the International Labor Organization had thirty-one instructors on the staffs of technical and clerical training centers, giving instruction in metalwork, carpentry, machine shop, and secretarial trades (21:378). Universities had paid little attention to manpower planning. Pressure was put on the universities by political leaders to take more students, while little attention was given to the distribution of students in various disciplines, and Government scholarships bore little sign of thorough

planning (12:32). Where development was planned on the basis of manpower surveys, the emphasis was on the value of the technician and technologist. The most potent influences in this area were the arm of the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the U.S. Agency for International Development, and the United Nations Special Fund. The purposes of these agencies were to assist in making surveys of material resources and to encourage research programs (42:12).

The United States Peace Corps provided more than 4,000 volunteers in twenty-one African countries in 1965-66. More than two-thirds of the volunteers worked in education, the area where African leaders urged progress the most. Many volunteers assisted in agricultural extension, rural community development, health, and public works programs (77:193-194).

### Students Educated Overseas

Nearly five thousand African students attended

American universities and colleges during the academic year,

1962-63. This was a 25 per cent increase over the number

the year before. African students who studied in the

United States carried back to their developing country a

knowledge of American engineering skills and principles of

constitutionalism and federalism. Other African students

attended West German universities. Israel opened a school

to teach Africans the techniques of democratic planning and economic development. The major base for overseas higher education for young Africans continued to be the metropolitan countries of Great Britain and France (5:72-73).

#### Summary of Chapter IV

Chapter IV gave some background of the needs for institutions of higher learning in emerging African nations and traced the planning and development of higher education which came about due to independence.

Christian missions provided most all of the education in Africa in the early years (181:282). Colonial governments provided only enough education to meet their commercial needs. When universities were established by a colonial power, they were in a special relationship with a metropolitan university (24:252-253;12:28-29). The need for universities was recognized by some imperial powers following World War II (12:28). Africans who had served in the armies of colonial governments had recognized the benefit of higher education, and demanded that educational opportunities be made available in their own country (21:293).

Independence was granted to many countries in the late 1950's and the 1960's (47:176). The opportunity for elementary education was on a relatively wide base, but it narrowed sharply through secondary education. Higher education was non-existent in some countries. Education

became the single largest budget item in African countries (23:5). Most emergent nations sent their students overseas, primarily to the former colonial power, for higher education (46:53).

There was a shortage of teachers and trained workers for government and industry when independence was received (42:10;46:54). A dichotomy existed, because new nations were reluctant to seek financial assistance for education from the former colonial power, yet the existing education system was patterned after the former ruler (42:11). Educational planning was the instrument of political planning (147:14).

Many countries were dependent upon outside financial assistance to build their educational system. Organizations such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, UNESCO, Carnegie Corporation, Ford Foundation, the Agency for International Development, and the U.S. Peace Corps gave assistance. The bulk of the assistance came from the former colonial power (5:72;42:11-12;77:193-194). Newly emergent nations continued to send students overseas for training in engineering and medicine, even after they had established their own universities (5:72-73).

#### CHAPTER V

#### DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

#### IN AN EMERGING NATION:

#### MALAWI, AFRICA

I am frequently asked, 'And how is the university doing?' . . . We are young, and we are small, but we are beginning to touch the life of the country at many points and at many levels. I must therefore reply, 'well, thank you', and leave you to decide how far my reply is convention and how far it is exact.

But fortunately I can reply also in another way. Nearly 230 of this year's graduates and diplomates are shortly going to present themselves to the Chancellor and to you. They are the answer to the question 'How is the university?', and what I know of them enables me to say again, not as a conventional reply but with exactitude, 'How is the university?', 'well, thank you'.

Vice-Chancellor Ian Michael, University of Malawi (210)

# Purpose of Chapter V

Chapter V describes the development of higher education in an emerging nation: Malawi, Africa. The planning, organization, financing, building, staffing, and operation of higher education in Malawi is stressed. The University of Malawi, and its constituent schools, was responsible for most post-secondary education. The Ministry of Education and other governmental and private agencies

conducted adult education and training.

### Desire for a University

The desire for learning and the will to work for it were strong in Malawi. The search for the way to knowledge was given direction by Malawi's dynamic leader, Ngwazi Dr. H. Kamuzu Banda (102:57). After the declaration of the state of Emergency in March, 1959, Dr. Banda was imprisoned in Gwelo, Rhodesia. During the period the man who was later to become Malawi's first Prime Minister and President planned his country's future. One of his dreams was that Malawi should have a university of its own (104:61).

# University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland

# Establishment of University

The University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, located at Salisbury, Rhodesia, was incorporated in 1955 by Royal Charter, as an affiliate of the University of London (38:228). The Colonial Development and Welfare Fund advanced \$3,500,000 as capital funds, and the Central African Government was to provide recurrent funds (21:151). The local people were determined that it should have a multiracial character (17:214), and it was a real source of hope for the future. A serious blow at its independence and value was struck in December, 1958, when an African scholar, the first due for appointment to the staff, married a white

Canadian. For this reason, the decision to appoint him was revoked. The chief weakness of the college was the small proportion of African students; thirty-six out of a total of 168 in mid-1959 (43:106). No system of education which was based on race segregation could contribute to the establishment of a united society (43:107).

#### Nyasaland Students Received Little Benefit

From its inception under its special relationship with the University of London, the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was obligated to demand the minimum standard of entry as required by the metropolitan university, which included two subjects at the principal subject level of the Cambridge Overseas Higher School Certificate or the Advanced Level of the London General Certificate of Education or its equivalent. This requirement imposed on Nyasaland the necessity of providing sixth form work. In 1955 an arrangement was made with the Governments of Northern and Southern Rhodesia for their schools to take up to ten students from Nyasaland for a sixth form course leading to the Higher School Certificate (138:69-70).

At the beginning of 1958, the Government secondary school at Dedza opened a sixth form to prepare pupils for the Higher School Certificate (94:101). Dedza was the only school in Nyasaland that could provide Africans with the necessary Cambridge senior certificate to meet the entrance

requirements of the University College (43:177). The arrangement with Northern and Southern Rhodesia for Nyasa students to study in those countries ceased when Dedza Secondary School offered sixth form (138:70).

The Malawi Congress Party of Nyasaland discouraged students from attending the University College on grounds that it was used to publicize Federation (38:228). At the time of Inquiry into African Education in 1962, there were only nine Nyasaland students at the University College in Salisbury. There were thirty-six students at other universities, including six in the United States (138:70-71).

# Political Implications of a University

The Commission of Inquiry recognized that the University College was considered politically unacceptable among Africans, and the Commission's efforts to emphasize the independent status of the University of London and the University College were not accepted by most of those who gave evidence on the matter. The Commission reasoned that Salisbury could have met the needs of Nyasaland for the next ten years (138:72).

The Ministry of Education was working one year in advance of the Phillips Report, which was considered incomplete, because it stopped at secondary level. The main exception to implementation of the Phillips Report was the introduction of day secondary schools, perhaps as a rush in

politics. The administration avoided the cheap popularity indulged in by other emerging countries of proclaiming universal primary education, which would have wrecked the country financially. The ratio of primary students going to secondary education was 1:14, while the new government wanted a ratio of 1:10, and spread the range of education to post-secondary. New government leaders expressed a need for a university and technical education (229).

The "Malawi Congress Party Manifesto of 1961" stated that the country must have a university (229). Livingstonia in the Northern Province, "a most remarkable institution," almost certainly the first place in British Africa to use hydroelectric power (17:43), was a favorite choice for a national institution (229).

In the early 1950's Africans eager to help themselves began to collect funds for ar "Nyasa College," but in the days of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the University College in Salisbury was the only institution of higher education permitted. Later, and before Government had taken any formal action to establish a university, a "Malawi University Association" was formed to collect funds from the man in the village (127).

### Funds for a Polytechnic

The Department of Education, working on faith but supported by the new government, started negotiations in

1961 with USAID--the American fairy godmother according to Eric Ashby--for development of a polytechnic on the basis that independence was forthcoming (2:81;229).

On June 4, 1962, an order was signed by Mr. Clark S. Gregory, the USAID representative in Central Africa, which provided \$\darksymbol{4}\$ 370,000 for Nyasaland's new polytechnic school (98:2).

# Preliminary Assessment of Educational Needs

The government of Nyasaland [Malawi] had requested external assistance in determining its educational needs for social and economic progress (195:2). Through cooperation of the governments of the United Kingdom and the United States and personnel chosen by the Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas and the American Council on Education, a team of three visited Malawi from May 2 to May 21, 1963. In London they completed a report in early June entitled Education in Nyasaland: Report of Preliminary Study Team. On the basis of that report which supported the feasibility of a complete survey, plans for a further study were begun (195:2).

#### University of Southern California Awarded Contract

The University of Southern California (USC) was

During the transition period immediately preceding independence, the name "Malawi" came into usage. "Malawi"

awarded a contract by USAID in October, 1963 (150:iii).

Duties were outlined as follows:

The general objectives of the contract are to "provide technical assistance in the establishment of a new Polytechnic School which will be a comprehensive institution in which general, commercial and technical education can be made available on a full-time or parttime basis . . . [for] nationals who may or may not have attended secondary schools." Emphasis is to be on "vocational, trade, commercial and technical skills accompanied by selective up-grading in basic academic skills." (150:4)

#### Study of Educational Needs

#### Full Survey Team Constituted

USAID under contract with the American Council on Education sponsored the team to make a complete study of Malawi's educational needs. There were four team members and four consultants with expertise in primary education, secondary education and teacher training, technical education, and educational finance (195:1-2).

Dr. Bruce J. Hahn, Chief-of-Party designate of the Polytechnic Project (150:1), was the technical education consultant (195:iii).

# Objectives of Survey

The survey had two objectives: (1) to make a comprehensive assessment of the needs for educational institutions and curricular emphasis and (2) to make proposals for

was used in the remainder of this documentary so far as possible.

an educational plan required for economic development for the next fifteen years (195:1).

The survey gave balanced attention to the educational needs of all age groups, with a view to achievement of a closely integrated system of education. Attention was given to the Manpower Survey completed under Carnegie Corporation auspices and to the Malawi government's plans for social and economic development (195:1).

#### Activities of Survey Team

Interviews were held in Malawi with persons in highest government offices, in civil service, in the professions, in all types of school positions, and in all parts of the country, from Chiromo in the south to Livingstonia in the north (225). Every possible courtesy was received by the team, from His Excellency the Governor and the Honourable Prime Minister to citizen and student. Special mention was given to Mr. A. B. Chavura and Mr. M. A. Chongwe, whose services in facilitating travel and interviews were indispensable. The team officially terminated its visit on December 5, 1963, and reassembled in Washington, D.C., from January 31 to February 4, 1964, to draft the final report (195:2-3).

#### Reports Issued

Education for Development: Report of the Survey
Team on Education in Malawi was released in April, 1964.

Release of the report was welcomed by the Ministry of Education, as it coincided with the views of their advisors who had anticipated the needs of education (229). "In the modern world, Malawi urgently needs university education. No nation can meet its minimal obligations and perform its essential services without university-trained talent," the report stated (195:46).

Dr. Hahn prepared USC's report of his work with the team, Technical Education in Nyasaland: A Report to the Agency for International Development, dated February 20, 1964 (197). Dr. Hahn reported:

The writer deliberately circulated alone among Malawi people in the markets, the streets, on highways and trails. He often walked their bicycle paths and rode with them in their crowded buses, sometimes conversing with them when they displayed a knowledge of English. He met only good will, friendly treatment and helpfulness.

This cooperation and cordiality in high places and low, not only was appreciated but more important, is convincing evidence of a favorable special and political climate for the success of our projects in technical assistance. (197:4)

# Recommendations for Location of University

The survey report recommended that the nucleus of the university should be readily accessible to the majority of the population, near good transportation facilities, suitable for expansion, and in the mainstream of national life. Consideration should be given to two locations where post-secondary education was already emerging in populous

and easily accessible centers, Blantyre and Lilongwe (195: 49).

That recommendation was a blow to government officials who wanted to promote Livingstonia. Education ministry authorities felt Livingstonia was too remote, lacked transportation, roads, communications, accommodations, and utilities. Those drawbacks would have made it difficult to recruit staff (229).

# Legislation Required for University

Recommendation was made that legislative steps be taken to establish the university as quickly as possible with the customary provisions and safeguards. A small Provisional Council was to be created to lay the foundation, after which a larger Permanent Council should be established with representatives of educational and lay interests, perhaps from business and the professions, and from governmental bodies, and with inclusion of the Vice-Chancellor, representatives of the Senate, and two or three persons of educational distinction from outside the country. The necessary administrative officers should include a Vice-Chancellor, Registrar, and Bursar or Finance Officer (195:49).

#### University Governance

The report stated that the ordinance should guaran-

tee that the university be governed on an autonomous basis. The university could best discharge its responsibilities to the nation if insured the proper measure of independence. The appropriate and desirable balance provided that:

- 1. The university shall be a self-governing body.
- Council members shall be appointed with overlapping terms.
- Control of finances shall be lodged in the Council.
- 4. The faculty, through the Senate or Academic board, shall determine all academic matters. The functions of the Council and Senate should be complementary; the Council to provide the financial, physical, and administrative framework and the Senate to advise on all academic policies (195:47).

# Unitary Structure of University

The Education for Development report stressed the need for one unitary national university. Fragments of existing educational facilities to be brought together were the following;

- 1. the Junior College at Livingstonia;
- 2. the Polytechnic planned for Blantyre, to include the existing Further Education Centre and the College of Commerce;
  - 3. the Institute of Public Administration at

Mpemba;

- 4. the Soche Hill College, Limbe, for training secondary teachers;
- 5. a College of Natural Resources, incorporating the contemplated College of Agriculture at Bunda;
  - 6. a new College of Arts and Sciences; and
- 7. all subsequent additions in higher education (195:48).

# Staff, Students, and Course Offerings

Further recommendations referred to the faculty, which would be few in number, but well qualified. Top priority should be given to prepare promising young Malawians for junior university posts. Attention should be given to the manpower needs of the country, and students should be admitted to the first-year course in 1965. The appropriate level of admission should be after twelve years of education and suitable performance at "O" level of the General Certificate of Education, as there were not sufficient sixth-form students available.

It was proposed that the first year be spent emphasizing general studies. The course offerings should be modest in number, and designed to meet urgent national needs for government services, teaching, agriculture, private economy, specialized training, and preparatory for graduate training overseas (195:51-53).

# Certificate, Diploma, and Degree Structure

The USAID report recommended that a four year degree be offered. After the first year of general studies, courses should be narrowed down and intensified in an area of study. A diploma course of three year duration should be offered for secondary teaching and in agriculture. Curriculum should be formulated to allow diploma course students to proceed to a four year degree where appropriate. A two-year certificate was proposed for public administration (195:53-54).

#### Selection of University Site

Mr. I. C. H. Freeman, Permanent Secretary for Education and formerly Director of Education (188:38), discussed the results of the USAID survey with the Prime Minister, Dr. Banda, in March, 1964. Dr. Banda was keen at first to go to Livingstonia, which was highly anticipated by many people. Mr. Freeman suggested Blantyre as the site of the Arts and Sciences campus and overall administrative offices of the university. Housing and accommodations would be more readily available. Chichiri High School could be used by getting money to build a new primary school at Kanjedza and integrate Chichiri's primary grades with those at Kanjedza, and move the Chichiri secondary classes to the upper part of the campus. Release of the USAID report recommending the university be located in a

populous area, either Blantyre or Lilongwe, helped to decide the location (229). Plans were made for a permanent site in Zomba in 1968 when the capital was to be moved to Lilongwe (188:38).

#### Independence

As a result of the overwhelming victory of the Malawi Congress Party in 1961 (251:311), and the constitutional conference in London in 1963, self-government was assured for Malawi (65:103). On July 6, 1964, Malawi became independent. Malawi became a republic on July 6, 1966, with Ngwazi Dr. Hastings Kamuzu Banda as President (250:423).

# Establishment of University of Malawi

#### Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor Selected

Sir Christopher Cox of the Department of Technical Cooperation of the United Kingdom arrived in Malawi to give advice on establishment of the university. His first observation was that a Vice-Chancellor was needed in a hurry if the university was to be opened in 1965 as desired by Dr. Banda. Sir Christopher offered to scout around and find some good people, and line them up for interview at the Commonwealth Conference, London, in July-August, 1964, which was to be attended by Dr. Banda. Of the candidates

available, Dr. Banda easily picked Dr. Ian Michael, who was employed as Professor of Education at University of Khartoum in the Sudan on a two year contract. When Dr. Michael asked about academic freedom, Dr. Banda replied that it was no problem as long as he [Dr. Banda] held the purse strings (188:38;229).

Dr. Michael came to Malawi for a "look-see" in August, 1964, and immediately sent a telegram to the President of the Sudan, asking for an immediate release (229). The Malawi Parliament passed the University of Malawi (Provisional Council) Act on October 30, 1964, and the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Ian Michael, took up the post on November 8, 1964 (104:61).

When the Provisional Council, under the chairman-ship of the Honourable J. D. Msonthi, Minister of Education, met for the first time on December 8, 1964, one of its earliest actions was to invite Dr. Banda to be the University's first Chancellor (104:61).

# Preliminary Financing for the University

The Carnegie Corporation gave a grant, and the British government provided funds to begin university operations at Chichiri. The established institutions which were to become part of the university were financed and under the control of the Ministry of Education until 1967, except the Agricultural College at Bunda, which was under

the Ministry of Natural Resources.

Negotiations were conducted with the British government for capital to support the university. Agreement had to be reached with the Malawi government for operating funds. Estimates of operating expenses had to be made without benefit of previous knowledge of university financing. The Government of Malawi had to be given an idea of the money needed for the first year of functioning. In December, 1964, Mr. Freeman produced operating estimates which ran to 1970 (229).

#### Preliminary Planning

Between the arrival of Dr. Michael and the opening of classes at the Chichiri campus, many details had to be given attention. Conditions of service for staff had to be established. A brochure on living conditions in Malawi for recruiting purposes was published. Dr. Michael was obliged to spend a good deal of his time outside of the country on recruitment (229).

Mr. John Utting had come in March, 1965. Dr.
Michael, Mr. Utting, and Sir Martin Roseveare, Principal of
Soche Hill College, selected the first Arts and Sciences
university students to be admitted in September, 1965 (229).

Mr. Freeman was responsible for two offices, Secretary of Education and organizer of the university. He had been due to retire in September, 1965, but Dr. Banda said

he was much too young a man to retire when so much work needed to be done (229). Mr. R. T. M. Wareham took over the duties of the Permanent Secretary of Education, relieving Mr. Freeman for full-time duty with the university (249).

## Staff Seconded to University

Mr. Freeman was seconded to the university and five of the most experienced education officers were borrowed from the Ministry of Education to assist in the organization of the university (104:61). These people included Mr. R. Merritt, Chemist, Dedza Secondary School; Mr. D. Jenks, Physicist, Soche Hill College; Mr. M. Pinchin, Zoologist, Dedza Secondary School; Mr. J. Heppell, English, Ministry of Education; and Mr. A. Hutcheson, Geographer, Ministry of Education (146;229).

Mr. R. G. Harris, Professor of English, helped select books. Mr. John Carver was released by the Ministry of Education to locate housing for university staff, which was not an easy task, as housing was very scarce.

# Planning

Staff planning meetings were held every ten days.

Lists of basic equipment needed were prepared, including furniture, desks, chairs, kitchen equipment, paper, pencils, and other items. A sum of £50,000 was spent on the first order. Structural alterations to buildings were required;

laboratories had to be refitted; classrooms were divided; staff offices were arranged; and a library was established (229).

On July 1, 1965, Mr. Freeman moved the "Zomba Circus" out of an old house being used for an office in the nation's capital to the Chichiri campus, Blantyre (229).

## Academic Planning Board

During the founding years, a series of meetings was held concerning the philosophy of the university by the Academic Planning Board, composed of Mr. Freeman, Professor Utting, Sir Martin Roseveare, Dr. Michael, and representatives of the Ministry of Education. Other persons were added to the Board as staff arrived. In December, 1965, the final meeting of the Academic Planning Board was held, and the Senate took over on January 14, 1966 (166).

# Opening of University

On the afternoon of October 6, 1965, in an outdoor ceremony under unseasonably overcast skies, more than 1,000 guests lined the playing field at the Chichiri campus to view the impressive ceremony of the official opening of the University of Malawi (188:38). Upon arrival with a fanfare of trumpets the Prime Minister, Dr. Banda, performed his first duty as Chancellor of the new university when he delivered the inaugural lecture. He related that the opening was the fulfillment of one of his dreams, as he had con-

ceived the idea of a University of Malawi when he was imprisoned at Gwelo in 1959 (165:1). He began his lecture:

This is one of the greatest days in the history of this country . . . I am not a scholar, not even a teacher. I am a simple physician, a general practitioner, not a consultant, not a specialist.

I am not going to introduce a new theory or expand a new philosophy. Most of you who know me realize that I am a practical man and not a theoretical one.

Dr. Banda went on to say that he was dissatisfied with the teaching of English in Malawi. He chose as the subject of his inaugural lecture the origins of the English language, and gave his views on how it should be taught in Malawi schools (165:1).

The Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Ian Michael, in his address said the people of Malawi were celebrating the birth of an institution which would last for hundreds of years.

"The University has particular association with Britain, but it has also close association with certain American colleges," the Vice-Chancellor stated. Dr. Eldon Johnson, President of the Great Lakes Colleges Association, chairman of the 1964 survey team, and recently appointed member of the Council, was present (165:1).

The University of Massachusetts was active in setting up the College of Agriculture at Bunda. The University of Southern California with a strong team in the Polytechnic was represented on the platform by Dr. Irving R. Melbo, Dean of the School of Education. Dr. George

Shepperson, Professor Commonwealth and American History in the University of Edinburgh and well-known in Malawi for his book, The Independent African, was present as a representative of the Inter-University Council on Higher Education Overseas. Heads of universities in Rhodesia, Zambia, and Mozambique attended the opening (165:1).

Dr. Michael paid special tribute to the University Registrar, Mr. I. C. H. Freeman, stating:

Mr. Freeman's work for the University goes back several years to the time when, as Secretary of Education, he was responsible for the development of Soche Hill College and the Institute of Public Administration and for the earliest outline of the Polytechnic. (165:1)

## Unified Academic Structure

The term "university" as used at the University of Malawi was used in a way unfamiliar to many. To the outside academic world, it referred to degree courses and research work conducted on campus. Good academic standards justified the claim to be a university in the traditional sense. In contrast, the University of Malawi brought together in one academic organization all the higher levels of post-secondary education in the country. A system of this kind had been government policy for some years, and was given strong support by the academic advisors (185:6).

# Practical Curriculum Offered

Two fundamental decisions concerning university

curriculum were swiftly taken. The curriculum catered as far as possible to the specific needs of Malawi's land-based economy and its rapidly expanding secondary school system. Agriculture and the training of secondary school teachers were stressed. The University served as an integrating center for all higher and further education in the country (188:38).

# Curriculum Emphasis of Various Campuses

The Chichiri campus accepted students for a fouryear degree course in the arts and social or natural sciences. Students entered the University after completion of
"O" level examinations. Soche Hill College offered teacher
training for secondary teachers. The Institute of Public
Administration offered three-year diploma courses and a
year's post-graduate work for members of the Public Service.
At Bunda an agricultural college was under construction at
the time of the opening of the University. The Polytechnic
offered diploma courses and more practical certificate
courses, such as laboratory technicians and training for
apprentices (188:38;193:17).

#### American Influence

The American influence was expressed by the entrance requirement of the British "O" level, the equivalent of an American high school diploma, for a four-year backe-

lor's degree. This followed the American pattern, rather than the British, where the entrance requirement was "A" level, and the basic university course was culminated with a three-year diploma. All teaching was to be in English, the same as the Malawi secondary schools (188:39).

### Institute of Public Administration

#### Beginning of Institute

The various branches of the University had beginnings quite unrelated to a university. The Institute of Public Administration (IPA), located at Mpemba and slated to be moved to Zomba in 1968, was originally an estate. The Government had obtained the estate after World War II, and used it as a resettlement base for soldiers It was then turned into an agricultural training school (216). A junior trade school had been opened at the location in early 1954 (131:8), and was later merged with the Artisan Training Centre at Kanjedza in 1957 (132:4). A School for Local Government was located at the site towards the end of 1957 (95:109).

## Training Recommended

The report of a Localization Committee was submitted to the Acting Governor on October 31, 1960, recommending training in public administration. The committee, headed by Mr. A. L. Adu, then head of the Civil Service in Ghana, was appointed to advise the Government upon the various methods by which the localization of the Civil Service could proceed, the practicability of the methods proposed, and the measures necessary for proper implementation.

The committee noted that only 5 per cent of administrative officers were African, and none held a superscale post. They recognized that the outlook for the supply of candidates of local origin was "gloomy in the extreme."

The local people were likely to regard self-government as a contradiction in terms unless there were plans to replace the predominantly expatriate administration by a local service. The committee was convinced that unless action was taken quickly, there was a real danger of the administration collapsing in the future (256:1).

#### IPA Established

Establishment of a special school of administration for the training of local candidates to be run along the lines of the Institute of Administration in Zaria, Northern Nigeria, was recommended. It could be attached to the School of Local Administration at Mpemba (256:2). In April, 1962, the School of Local Government was closed, leaving usable space available (98:98). The Institute of Public Administration was established the same year (106: 25).

Dr. Banda had seen the work of the school at Zaria and had met the Principal, Mr. Maurice J. Bennion, who had

since retired in New Zealand. Mr. Bennion was induced to come set up the school, and served as Principal from 1962 to the end of 1966 (216).

#### Course Offerings

Various lengths of courses were offered: three months for local court personnel, six months for magistrates, nine months for administrative officers, and one, two, or three years in law, depending upon how long it took to successfully pass the examinations (216).

#### Staff Training College

The planned merger with the University specified that the section of the school known as the Staff Training College was to remain at Mpemba, offering short courses and upgrading courses for government employees (236).

#### Diploma Courses Started

Diploma level courses were started in October, 1966, in preparation to meet the University pattern of courses. The part of the school known as IPA was scheduled to move to Zomba at the same time as the University proper. Concurrent with the diploma course, the first post-graduate course of the University system was offered at IPA (216).

# Soche Hill College

# Beginning of Soche Hill

The first phase of the new Government College at

Soche Hill near Blantyre was completed and opened for students in September, 1962. As this was during the academic year, students were transferred from Domasi Teachers College. Their number was insufficient to fill all places, and a four term course serving forty-nine T.3 level teachers to upgrade them to T.2 was held. The balance of the ninety-six places available was filled by T.3 and T.2 students from Domasi, these being temporary measures (106:19).

### Principalship

The first Principal, Mr. J. A. Fuller, was transferred from Principal of Domasi Teachers College to Soche Hill College. Mr. Fuller resigned in June, 1963, and the Principalship was filled by Mr. J. D. Rubadiri, who held the post until December, 1963, when he became Ambassador to the United States. Sir Martin Roseveare, who had been Headmaster of Mzuzu Secondary School next assumed the post (247).

Sir Martin had been Chief Inspector of Schools in Britain. Upon his retirement in 1957, he went to Nyasaland "to do whatever he could to help" (175:1;247). He first taught mathematics in the "A" level program at Dedza Secondary School (247), and moved to Mzuzu as Headmaster when the new school was opened in January, 1959 (141:10).

## Places Available

Soche Hill was originally planned for ninety-six

men. It was decided that twelve women students should be included in the course. The second and final phase of the program would provide equal places for men and women with a total of 270 (106:19).

The new buildings were good as they existed, but there were no laboratories, library, nor students' commons room. A library was improvised in the dining area. Students ran a small store, which took care of the need for supplies, and made a little money for the student fund (247).

In the early years it was never possible to get enough qualified students to fill all the places, so upgrading courses were conducted. There were plenty of people needing upgrading, and as many as 115 students were housed in the ninety-six spaces available, because students were willing to double up in accommodations. Sir Martin and Lady Roseveare both remarked that the people of the country wanted to see everyone get a fair deal. By January, 1966, enough good candidates were available to fill all of the spaces, so upgrading was discontinued even though the need still existed (247). The higher level of students available was due to the increase in the number of places in secondary schools, which increased from 3,041 in 1963 to 8,090 in 1967 (109:17).

# Diploma of Education

The course offered at Soche Hill was the Diploma of Education. The aim of the course was to produce teachers with sufficient knowledge to teach two subjects effectively in the lower classes of secondary school. All students were to attempt two "A" levels in the General Certificate of Education Examinations, and emphasis was on science subjects and English (106:14). Curriculum offerings in 1966 are listed in Appendix F.

### Diploma Graduates

Diplomas of Education were awarded as follows: three men in 1963; 2 men and 2 women in 1964; 16 men and 9 women in 1965; and 19 men and 9 women in 1966. The two women who graduated in 1964 had become headmistresses by 1967 (247).

No thought had been given to the fact that graduates would become heads so soon. In 1967 Sir Martin suggested it might be helpful to offer some training concerning the duties of headmaster (247).

#### Staff

Provision of adequate staff was a constant problem in the early years of Soche Hill College. There was a staff of nine in 1963. Seldom was anyone on the staff that possessed a four-year degree and teaching experience.

Volunteers from the Peace Corps and the British Voluntary

Service Overseas (VSO) typically made up one-half or more of the staff. People came and went with "lightning rapidity." Even the Peace Corps volunteers, who were supposed to stay for two years, "passed through at a great pace." One or two Malawians were assigned to the college; then drew a holiday, and were "wafted off to another assignment" without having met a student. By 1967 Africans were teaching art and needlework, but no Malawian was available to teach academic subjects. It was expected that with the merger into the University, the University would take an active part in recruiting qualified staff (247).

### Plans for Development

The five year <u>Development Plan</u>, 1965-1969 called for bringing Soche Hill College up to its full capacity of 240 secondary teacher trainees. Appeal was made to USAID for assistance, and a survey was made by a California team in early 1966. Dr. M. John Rand, Superintendent of the Temple City Unified School District, and Dr. Donald E. Wilson, Director of Teacher Education at USC, made an on site survey of the needs of Soche. They were assisted by Dr. Irving R. Melbo and Dr. John A. Carpenter, Director of the Center for International Education and Campus Coordinator of the Polytechnic Project, USC, both of whom had been in Malawi on various occasions. Their <u>Report of the Survey of Soche Hill College</u> was released in June, 1966 (203).

#### Recommendations of Survey

The survey team recommended that a staff of twentyfour would be required to fill the needs when the intake
was expanded to 240 trainees. This staff should have appropriate degrees, teaching experience, and experience in
teacher education. Staff might be sought from British,
Canadian, or American sources (203:47-48). Also considered
by the survey were curriculum, facilities, and costs (203:
v). USAID had previously given Soche Hill \$149,000 for development in addition to the cost of the survey (203:88).
No further commitment by USAID had been made by January,
1967 (247).

## The Polytechnic

## Further Education Centre

The Polytechnic had its beginning at the Further Education Centre (FEC). The Centre had been opened by Mr. C. J. Leven, who arrived in Malawi in 1962 as Technical Education Officer (268:9). A furniture factory near Ginnery Corner, Blantyre, was purchased by the Ministry of Education to be developed into an FEC (98:97). Mr. Leven was hired for the post of Principal of the FEC, but before he arrived in the country, it was decided to give him responsibility for coordinating all technical education. So keen was he on the possibilities of an FEC, and so great was the need, that Mr. Leven obtained permission to locate in

Blantyre, rather than Zomba. Then he could assume responsibility for the Centre in addition to his other duties (235).

Trade School; local staff was hired; and training was begun in courses for which a demand existed. Classes were begun on an integrated basis, with Europeans, Indians, and Malawians all working side by side (268:13). Courses were offered in carpentry, joinery, printing, commerce, and in single subjects such as art, drafting, and mathematics. If there was a demand, and a teacher could be hired, a course was started. Mr. James Charleton, an instructor at Soche Trade School, had shown a great interest in FEC, and was appointed to serve as Principal (235).

# FEC Proposed Site for Polytechnic

Dr. Hahn proposed in a memorandum dated December 4, 1963, to Dr. Edwin Trethaway, Chief Education Adviser, USAID, Nyasaland, that the FEC be used as temporary quarters for the Polytechnic school work, and reported that Mr. Leven endorsed the proposal (197:31-32). This proposal was agreed to in principle by Dr. Trethaway, the Permanent Secretary, and the Technical Education Officer of the Ministry of Education on December 11, 1963. Dr. Hahn then presented a "Work Plan: Nyasaland Polytechnic Project," on December 16, 1963 (197:36-44).

# Groundwork for Polytechnic

Upon return from Malawi in December, 1963, the Chief-of-Party designate served on the USC campus as technician and campus coordinator until returning to Malawi in July, 1964. His duties included recruitment, budget, and provision for equipment. He arranged orientation visits to schools, colleges, and industries in California and Oregon for Mr. R. M. Prideaux, Principal-designate of the Polytechnic and Mr. Leven, and accompanied them on their visits (150:1-3).

### Arrival in Malawi

Dr. and Mrs. Hahn arrived in Malawi on July 31, 1964, shortly after independence. His first duty was to locate housing facilities for the remainder of the USC-USAID team, which would be arriving in September (150:7). The team members had a two week orientation course in African Studies in Boston and a stop-over in London to become acquainted with important aspects of the British educational system en route to Malawi. These activities were helpful in orienting the team and their families to their new surroundings (150:3,7).

The additional team members, their specialties, and families were as follows:

Dr. James D. McMullen, metals, wife and one son.
Frank B. Barrows, electricity and radio, wife and two children.

Rupert B. Blackmun, auto mechanics, wife and three children.

Ellis S. Foster, machine shop, wife and three sons (150:7).

#### Malawi Polytechnic Annex

The Polytechnic USC team began work at the FEC, which was to become the Polytechnic Annex when the new facility provided by USAID was completed (150:5). The Americans joined those who were already working at the FEC (235). New courses were planned, equipment was repaired, and new classes were taught as there was additional staff available (150:7-12).

Starting with the January, 1965, school term, the USC team assumed full-time teaching duties, and Mr. Roy M. Prideaux arrived to serve as Principal. The name of the facility was changed to Malawi Polytechnic Annex (151:4-5). During the term, January to March, 1965, there were 127 full-time day students, 41 day release students, and 250 evening students (151:19).

Three classes in Basic Technology were begun in January, 1965. Entrance tests, admittedly crude, were used in selecting these students, and it was hoped that they would have sufficient mechanical aptitude to compensate for a lack of mechanical experience. Two new shops were put into operation with full-time schedules, one in general metalwork, the other for basic electricity and radio. Two

day release classes were started in electricity and radio for police and post office employees. These students were selected by their employers and released for one day a week for technical studies. They were also enrolled in general studies two evenings per week (151:19).

#### Administration

Dr. Hahn served as Principal, Vice-Principal, and head of the Technical Department of the Polytechnic from the time of his arrival until Mr. Prideaux arrived (150:7; 151:8). Dr. Hahn continued to serve as Vice-Principal and head of the Technical Department. As of July 1, 1965, Principal Prideaux became head of the Commercial Department as the previous head had left. Mr. D. J. Bride provided administrative leadership of the evening classes of the Technical and Commercial Departments (152:11).

The Commercial Department, which had formerly been the College of Commerce, was located about one-half mile from the Annex, making unity of operations difficult. With the occupation of the new Polytechnic buildings in January, 1966, it became possible to have an integrated administration as the main buildings and the Commercial Department were directly across the highway from each other (152:11).

A bulletin from the Principal outlined the duties of staff members. Mr. C. J. Walker had arrived to take over the duties as head of the Commercial Department, which

became known as the Business and Social Studies Department.

Mr. T. D. Hockenhull was responsible for all Technical

Department supplies and equipment. Mr. George Knowles was
in charge of security, maintenance, and cleaning of the

Polytechnic buildings, including two hostels (153:75,77).

Dr. Hahn left Malawi in June, 1966, upon completion of his contract. Dean Melbo, School of Education, USC, expressed his gratitude and congratulations to Dr. Hahn and the first team for their dedication and successes with the Polytechnic project (153:ix).

Mr. Robert G. Moses, formerly of Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California, arrived in Malawi in August, 1966, to assume the duties of Chief-of-Party of the USC-USAID team and Vice-Principal of the Polytechnic (154:Appendix II). Mr. Roy Prideaux, Principal, completed his assignment in October, 1966, and departed for the United Kingdom. Mr. Moses was asked to serve as Acting Principal until a new Principal arrived from the U.K. (240).

Before Mr. Prideaux left he developed a new organizational structure, which added a Registrar, assisted by a Bursar, and a Librarian (154:8). Mr. Moses continued to serve as Acting Principal until August, 1967, when Mr. G. J. Williams of the U.K. arrived to assume the post of Principal of the Polytechnic (211:1).

## The University Relationship

A Transfer Committee was formed to work on the solution to unifying the Polytechnic with the University. The University was to guide and support the diploma courses or other university-level instruction (153:10).

#### Relation to Industry and Labor

The non-university program was to be administered at the top level by a joint board consisting of representatives from the University, the Ministry of Education, other Ministries, industry and commerce, and the general public. In July, 1966, the apprenticeship classes were expected to comprise most of the non-university courses (153:10-11).

#### Transfer Committee

The first meeting of the Transfer Committee was held at Chichiri campus in February, 1966. The committee agreed that work could best be accomplished by forming working parties which would investigate and report on particular problems of unification. The aim was to complete the administrative transfer of colleges to the University by the beginning of the academic year in September, 1966. Principal Prideaux was convener of two working parties; one on Recruitment of Staff and the other on Polytechnic Courses.

The working party on Recruitment of Staff involved people from the Ministries concerned, Principals of all

colleges, and Finance Officers. The committee prepared descriptions of staff positions, staff housing needs, number of students to be enrolled, and student hostel space.

The working party on Polytechnic Courses was made up of representatives of the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Education, the Commissioner of Training, and the Registrar. Their main concerns were also with staff, housing, and hostel space. Classification of posts considered were administrators, University diploma tutors, and Polytechnic tutors (153:56-58).

In a Draft Report of the Transfer Committee, they took note that the number of diploma students would not occupy all of the facilities available at the Polytechnic, and there were a number of courses below diploma level which should be conducted. The committee examined three possible principles of administration for the Polytechnic:

- (a) that the Polytechnic and all the courses it housed should be administered by the University;
- (b) that the Polytechnic remain outside the University;
- (c) that the diploma and non-diploma courses should be separately controlled under a common administration. (153:115)

The committee recognized that incorporating diploma courses into the University had already extended its scope beyond that of the traditional university, and that association of the University with courses below diploma level might well arouse suspicion of its status as a university (153:116)

Based on the considerations given by the committee, it was recommended that the Polytechnic should have two wings. The diploma wing should encompass the courses, students, and staff as part of the University. The certificate wing should encompass courses, students, and staff financed and directed by a joint board which did not form part of the University (153:116).

#### Change of Management

The transfer of the Polytechnic to the University was delayed until January 1, 1967, when the Polytechnic, along with IPA, Mpemba; Bunda Agricultural College; and Soche Hill College were placed in the control of the University (154:9).

The University owned and controlled all Polytechnic property, and all administrative personnel were University appointees. Diploma courses were the responsibility of the University through appropriate boards. Faculty members teaching more than 50 per cent of their time on diploma courses were given University contracts. The balance of their time could be devoted to certificate classes. The University administration anticipated the growth of diploma courses to the extent that certificate courses could be discontinued or transferred to another institution. This would lead to the Polytechnic becoming the Engineering College of the University (154:16).

## Education Ordinance

On January 3, 1967, the Malawi Gazette Supplement contained "The Education Ordinance (CAP 70)" outlining the provisions for the Malawi Polytechnic Board of Governors, which was effective immediately. This Board had responsibility for certificate courses or classes, whether parttime, full-time, or block release, held at the Polytechnic, but not resulting in a degree or diploma of the University of Malawi. The Board consisted of fifteen members appointed by the Minister of Education, to include members responsible for Labour. The Principal and Vice-Principal served as ex officio members. The Board was ultimately responsible to the Minister of Education. Consideration was to be given by the Board to comply with the requirements of the Apprenticeship Ordinance (154:Appendix VI).

#### Board of Governors

The Board of Governors was charged with policy formation for the certificate level of instruction and its financial support. Staff whose teaching assignment was 50 per cent or more of certificate classes was employed by the Board. If the staff were so qualified, they could also assist with diploma instruction for the balance of their schedule (154:17). The first meeting of the Polytechnic Board of Governors was convened on January 25, 1967 (154:10). This Board was commonly referred to by participating

members as the Joint Board (220;240).

### Staff

The USC-USAID contract provided a Chief-of-Party and eight team members until the last year of the project when there were five team members (158:30-44). The teams were referred to by number. Team number two arrived in Malawi in August, 1965 (152:12). The first Chief-of-Party departed from Malawi in June, 1966 (153:86). Team number one left in July, 1966 (154:Appendix XI).

The second Chief-of-Party and team three arrived in Malawi in August, 1966 (154:Appendix II). The second team left in July, 1967 (154:Appendix XI). Members of team four arrived in July and August, 1967. Among the team four members was the Rupert Blackmun family, who had been members of team one (156:81,Appendix XVIII). Members of team three left in August, 1968 (157:11). The last USC contract personnel left Malawi in mid 1969, having contributed thirtynine man years to the project (158:v).

Several staff members who had been recruited by Mr. Leven or Mr. Charleton were working at the Further Education Centre when the USC-USAID team arrived. Many of them continued on at the FEC. Most of the staff were British (151:8).

During the term from September to December, 1964, twenty-nine persons were teaching at the FEC, ranging from

one class to full-time. Four Malawians were teaching. Two U.S. Peace Corps members were on the staff. Some members were local hire, while others were on expatriate contract (151:1-5). In October, 1965, four VSO volunteers and three Peace Corps members were on the staff (152:8). Staff wives and part-time people were recruited whenever an emergency arose (154:3).

#### Counterparts

Attention was given to selecting Malawi personnel who could be trained as teaching counterparts early in the Polytechnic project. Nine students were selected to form a Technical Teacher class during the September to December term in 1964 (150:11). This group had dropped to five by the end of the term. Two or three were judged to be worthy of consideration for further training (150:16).

In October, 1965, two men were continuing their training at the Polytechnic and were beginning to assist the shop teachers. Their education was elementary school qualification, plus trade training. They had completed trade certificates and were working on completion of secondary certificates (152:25).

By April, 1967, a list of twenty-seven persons considered suitable for overseas training had been compiled. These students were recommended by staff members, and were ranked according to grade point averages (154:14). Four-

teen persons were chosen for training at the University of Southern California. In the group was one of the first technical teachers chosen, who was working with the staff, two regular staff members, and eleven students with high scholastic records (154:14;155:8). Objections were raised by the University and the Apprenticeship Board to sending these persons for overseas training. There were criticisms for taking students off courses before completion, for the short notice upon which selection was made, and that other individuals outside the Polytechnic might have been better candidates. Questions were raised as to the capabilities of the students recommended, especially those who were apprenctices (155:8-9).

Of the fourteen Malawians selected for overseas training, three were members of staff: Arthur Kambalametore, Charles Chindongo, and Prainy Chikhula. Mr. Kambalametore held Diplomas in Teaching and Commerce, and entered a dual specialization of Business and Educational Administration in his Master's degree program at USC (155: A/18;158:29). His Master's thesis was entitled "A Review and Prognosis of Development of the Business and Social Studies Department at the Malawi Polytechnic" (264). It was expected that he would return to the Polytechnic in time to replace the head of the Business and Social Studies Department, whose contract would be completed (240).

Charles Chindongo had been in the first group of

Technical Teachers at the Further Education Centre. He was qualified in Carpentry and Joinery and as a T.4 teacher. He had been posted to Soche Technical School in June, 1965, where he taught woodwork for one and one-half years, and was then a teaching assistant at the Polytechnic until leaving for the United States. His objective was to train as a teacher of woodworking, but after one semester, his program was changed to machine shop (155:A/17;158:83).

The third staff member, Prainy Chikhula, held a Diploma in Education from Soche Hill College (155:A/17). His degree objective was a Bachelor of Science in Business Administration with specialization in accounting (158:82). Three Malawi women were included in the training program. Each was to receive a Bachelor of Science degree in Business Administration with varying specialities (158:83,86,88).

Five of the Malawi men had been in the Malawi Apprenticeship training scheme. Two students had been in the Engineering Diploma course at the Polytechnic before selection (155:A/17-A/19).

Through the cooperation of Dean Melbo, USC, and Dr. Franklin R. Johnson, Dean of Instruction, Los Angeles Trade Technical College, a program was arranged for nine of the Malawi students to take two years of technical trade training at Los Angeles Trade Technical College. The students were to complete the Associate in Arts degree at the

technical college, and then two years of teacher education at USC directed by the Department of International Education (240). Dean Melbo maintained the American Community College concept held the most relevance for training in a developing country (238).

A Malawian was later added to the USC group to be trained in Teaching English as a Second Language, as well as completing the Bachelor's degree. A Diploma student from the Malawi Polytechnic was enrolled at Pasadena City College to pursue an Associate in Arts Degree in Instrumentation Technology (158:28).

#### Apprenticeship

Apprentices were indentured to the Government Printer in 1958, and the Nyasaland Railways conducted its own apprenticeship scheme, with the intention of filling its requirements for skilled artisans. Consideration was given to drafting apprenticeship legislation, which would lead to an extension of apprenticeship (94:38).

There was a severe shortage of artisans in Nyasa-land in 1959, and Government Departments were running their own training schemes, in addition to the technical and vocational schools (95:35). The Report of an Economic Survey of Nyasaland, 1958-1959 stated that there was a pressing need for promotion of trade training, and that training within industry should contribute to the supply of skilled

workers (144:28-29).

Ordinance No. 7 of 1961 was passed on March 21, 1961 (142). This ordinance provided for an Apprenticeship Board, which was to assess the need for apprentices and to recommend training procedures (142:3-4). The new ordinance had not gone into effect by the end of the year. The Nyasaland Railways expected that their apprenticeship scheme would produce more skilled artisans than they would require for their own operations (97:38-39). The Phillips Report urged employers to take advantage of the new ordinance as soon as possible (138:174).

The Ministry of Labour had responsibility for administration of the Apprenticeship Ordinance. Until 1964 consultation with employers indicated that until development of the country was assured, they were not in a position to train apprentices for a four year period. The Apprenticeship Board met in June, 1964, for the first time. Detailed discussions were held on ways to get apprenticeship started (121:1). The Apprenticeship Ordinance was rewritten to bring it in line with then current development (113;121).

By October, 1965, the Apprenticeship Board was confident that there was general acceptance by industry that there should be an increasing reliance on apprenticeship as a system of training. This would replace the system of technical training at centers operated and financed by

Government (121:2).

Training of apprentices started with one year of training in a technical school; building trades at Soche Technical Training Centre and the mechanical and electrical trades at the Polytechnic. Accommodations for 140 apprentices were available in the training centers, and apprentices were placed with employers. Plans were made for expansion in the building trades at Lilongwe Technical Training Centre when required (121:3).

With the increased activity of the Apprenticeship Board, a secretary was appointed to carry out the routine correspondence. Mr. M. J. Charleton performed this duty for a short period while the Secretary-designate was on leave. Mr. P. R. F. Britnell, Chief Inspector of Factories, who had considerable experience in trade testing and apprenticeship in Nigeria, assumed the duties of Secretary of the Apprenticeship Board in December, 1965 (220;222).

Mr. Britnell immediately set about revising the Apprenticeship Ordinance, which went into effect on January 1, 1966 (220).

Polytechnic students interested in becoming apprentices were interviewed by a Selection Committee at the Polytechnic Annex in December, 1965. An explanation of the Apprenticeship program was given. Then each student was personally interviewed by the Selection Committee and an instructor who was acquainted with his performance in a

particular specialty (122;153:23).

Students who had been in training in a basic mechanical course at Livingstonia were interviewed in January, 1966 (118:3). The first intake of apprentices at the Polytechnic occurred in April, 1966. In addition to those selected from the Polytechnic and Livingstonia, persons who had applied directly to the Apprenticeship Board were considered. Tests were administered in English, mathematics, and aptitude as part of the screening. These tests had been given previously to the total studentbody at the Polytechnic by the specialist in industrial training to determine the level of performance that could be expected. interview was conducted with each candidate. The final composition of three classes was sixteen motor mechanics, fourteen electricians, and fifteen metal fitters. classes were started on April 25, 1966 (117:1).

With the intake of forty-five apprentices at the Polytechnic and the planned indenture of students in training at Soche Technical School, the Ministry of Labour decided that a Registrar would be needed to carry out the routine duties of the scheme. In December, 1965, it was hoped that this position could be filled through cooperation with the U.S. Labor Department (118:2). When an appeal was made to USAID/Malawi for assistance, Dr. H. S. Konvolinka, Chief Education Adviser, suggested that the Industrial Training specialist of the Polytechnic team.

might well fill this position. On March 21, 1966, a meeting was held at the Polytechnic, attended by Dr. Konvolinka, Dr. Hahn, Mr. Britnell, and the Technical Training specialist. It was agreed at that meeting that the specialist would assume the duties of Registrar, to which he would devote most of his effort, while being relieved of some duties at the Polytechnic (120;263;266).

The Registrar of Apprentices formally assumed his duties at the Inspector of Factories office in Limbe on April 25, 1966. Selection of the first apprentices had been completed. Arrangement had to be made for transport to and from the Polytechnic, housing, members of industry to sit on interview committees, administering and interpreting of tests, and keeping records. A permanent file was established for each apprentice. Advisory Committees were organized for each of the trades concerned, and a syllabus was established for each trade. When the apprentices were placed with employers, they were visited on the job by the Registrar (115:4;267).

One of the first duties of the Registrar was to obtain apprenticeships for eight students, who had been in training at the request of the Malawi Railways. It was the understanding of the Polytechnic that the railway would employ them as trainees after three terms of training. At the end of three terms, it was felt that they had not made satisfactory progress, and the Polytechnic was requested to

give them one more term of training. At this point, the Malawi Railways said they would employ this group if they could pass a Grade III trade test. Only one outstanding student was able to pass the test, and he was given an apprenticeship at the railway. The other students were left without employment, and returned to the Polytechnic for further training (153:23). These eight students were placed with local employers in June, 1966 (123). These were the first apprentices indentured under the Apprenticeship Ordinance, and they returned to the Polytechnic for a term of upgrading in April, 1967 (119:2;125).

By mid 1967 there were 76 apprentices in training at the Polytechnic. There were 174 involved in the total program, including 34 who were with employers (124). It was planned to have 300 apprentices in all trades when the apprenticeship scheme had reached full capacity. The minimum educational qualification was Form II, and the maximum age was 23 years (220). No one had been assigned to the duties of Registrar of Apprentices at the close of the USC-USAID Industrial Training specialist's contract in July, 1967 (155:A/56).

# Opening of the Polytechnic

The official opening of the Polytechnic building was held on December 10, 1966 (154:Appendix X). The President, Dr. Banda, reemphasized Malawi's need for skilled

workmen. The President was taken on a tour of the buildings prior to the official ceremony, and he was greatly
impressed with the equipment. He said that when he was at
Indiana University, equipment there "was not as posh" as at
the Polytechnic. The President stated that artisans and
farmers were needed, as they were the backbone of the
country (245).

The cornerstone for the \$\int 300,000 \text{ American-financed}\$

Polytechnic had been laid three years earlier by Governor

Mennen Williams, as the result of an appeal to the U.S.

government for financial aid. As American and British

teachers made up the staff, President Banda hinted that

there were some growing pains, "but these would be got over

before very long" (172). The President said he was grate
ful to the Government of the United States as well as to

the United Kingdom for coming to the aid of his country

(245).

# Bunda College of Agriculture

# Need for Training

Prior to Independence Diploma candidates in agriculture were sent to Chibero College in Southern Rhodesia.

After Independence the Egerton Agricultural College at Njoro, Kenya, was designated as the place of training for Diploma candidates. Dr. Banda took an active interest in the need for an institution to train sufficient personnel

to meet the agricultural needs of the country, and directed that Government planning proceed (212:20).

#### USAID Agreement

The Malawi Government, having reached a decision to establish a College of Agriculture, entered into an agreement with USAID and the University of Massachusetts to assist in the planning, building, equipping, and staffing of such a college (212:19).

#### Location

The site chosen for the new agricultural college was Bunda, an estate 18 miles from Lilongwe. The buildings were situated on a 150 acre plot, with nearly 1,000 acres of farm land available for demonstration purposes (177). This was the center of some of the richest agricultural land in Malawi (212:9). Advantages claimed for the site were (a) wide range of soil types, (b) nearness to forest ranges, and (c) presence of a growing livestock industry. Malawi's variety of climate and soil was a great asset, as it enabled her to grow more crops essential to her needs (212:20).

#### Construction

In 1963 USAID obligated \$310,966 of development grant funds as its share of the total cost to construct Phase I of a diploma level college of agriculture. The

Government of Malawi provided \$110,000 (212:19).

Phase I consisted of an administration block, a dining hall and kitchen, laboratory, three classrooms, office space, utilities, stores, workshops, and staff housing (161). USAID obligated \$412,162 for Phase II and the Government of Malawi \$212,000. Phase II was to provide the additional residential, classrooms and housing facilities to enable Bunda to expand the enrollment from 60 to a total of 180, plus an assembly-dining hall and library (212:19). The Phase I contractor had bid considerably lower than the next highest bid (42 per cent higher). Since construction costs had risen during the time between the two bids, the contractor agreed to continue Phase II on the same unit price as Phase I, because his equipment and crew were already on site (212:19).

## Curriculum Planning

Dr. A. A. Spielman, Dean of Agriculture, University of Massachusetts, arrived in Malawi on February 4, 1964, to discuss with officials of the Malawi Government needs and plans for an agricultural program. He recommended a Curriculum Adviser spend sufficient time in Malawi to assess curriculum needs and make appropriate recommendations. The Curriculum Adviser, Dr. D. J. Hankinson, spent the period of November 11, 1964 to February 19, 1965, in Malawi conducting a study and formulating a report. His recommenda-

tions were based on observation of Malawi agriculture and instruction patterns at agricultural institutions in the neighboring countries of Kenya, Uganda, and Rhodesia (212: 19).

Dr. Hankinson recommended a three year diploma program, with emphasis on practical work. Primary emphasis was placed on crop husbandry and secondary emphasis on animal husbandry. Both farm management and farm mechanics were stressed. A basic background of biology, chemistry, English and mathematics applicable to applied agriculture was proposed. Classroom hours were to be 20 to 25 per week. Eight to twelve hours per week were to be devoted to practical work (212:21). Library materials were utilized, and a limited amount of research was conducted (212:22-23).

## Instruction Started

Dr. C. J. Gilgut, University of Massachusetts, arrived in Malawi on April 27, 1966, to organize an instructional program. Construction at Bunda was behind schedule. Accommodations for students and staff would not be ready until December. The University of Malawi had selected the first intake of 35 students to start in September. Five students had been admitted for a degree in agriculture at Chancellor College in 1965. They were to do two years of biology and science before transferring to Bunda for agriculture at degree level (212:31).

Accommodations were provided for Bunda classes at Dedza Secondary School by Headmaster J. N. Kanyuka. A hostel was given over for the 35 students. One full-time classroom, one chemistry, and one biology laboratory were available when not being used by the secondary school (212:32).

The course for the Diploma of Agriculture started on September 7, 1966 (171). The first term ended on November 18, and the second term started November 21, 1966.

There was a break during the holiday season, and classes were continued until late January, 1967, when Bunda College was compelled to vacate the facilities at Dedza. Classes were resumed at Bunda, the permanent location, in April when the new facilities became available (212:33).

## Staff

When Dr. Gilgut arrived in Malawi in 1966 two staff members were on hand, Mr. H. Nielsen, Agricultural Engineering, and Dr. H. K. F. Hoffman, Agricultural Economics (212:31,33). Two USAID staff members, Dr. E. Bennett, Agricultural Chemistry, and Mr. E. J. Bredakis, Agricultural Biology, arrived late in August, about two weeks before classes were scheduled to start (212:32).

As classes were to be held at Dedza Secondary School, staff housing had to be arranged. Mr. Kanyuka came to the rescue by doubling up two of his own staff in one house to make a house available for Dr. Bennett. The

Hon. J. Z. U. Tembo, Minister of Finance, generously offered his house in the town of Dedza, six miles from the school, where Mr. Bredakis was housed. Mr. Nielsen was living in Lilongwe, 56 miles away, while Dr. Hoffman was living in Chitedze, 66 miles away. Both commuted on dirt roads to Dedza for classes (212:33).

The "Planned Provision" for staff did not provide for an English teacher, a necessity for students to whom English was not a native language, but who were to be taught in English (212:31-32). Mrs. Dore, a graduate of the University of London with a major in English, resided in Dedza, and she was hired on an hourly basis by the University of Malawi for the Bunda project. A mathematics teacher was not available by the end of 1966, and instruction in that subject was to be made up later (212:33).

#### Students Assisted

Some of the students who entered Bunda classes were not adequately prepared for higher education. After two weeks it was found desirable to divide the classes into small groups, so that instructors could give individual attention. The interest and dedication of the instructors were heartening and encouraging. Not only did they work hard to prepare and present their subjects in an interesting manner, but they willingly and cheerfully spent long hours after classes and outside of classes, patiently ex-

plained subjects, helped students, loaned their personal textbooks, since student textbooks had not arrived, and took an active part in student welfare and activities. The second term was lengthened from ten weeks to twelve weeks at the request of the instructors, so they would have more time to present their subjects (212:33).

# Transfer to Bunda to the University

Arrangements were completed during the year 1966 for the transfer of Bunda from the Ministry of Natural Resources to the University. Bunda became a constituent college of the University of Malawi in January, 1967. This created a new organizational, administrative, and academic structure. The integration of Bunda into the academic structure of the University required participation in Senate, Degree Committee, Diploma Committee, Natural Resources Group Board, Research Committee, Libarary Committee, Appointments Committee, and other required meetings. Dr. Gilgut served as a member of these committees to represent agriculture. He was also responsible for the interests of Bunda, located 220 miles from the University where the committees held their meetings (212:34).

By 1967 Mr. B. M. Woods of the United Kingdom had arrived to assume the duties of Principal of Bunda College of Agriculture. Additional instructors arrived, including one each for Agricultural Economics, Animal Science,

Chemistry, Crop Husbandry, and Zoology. An instructor for Mathematics was available, and a permanent member for Eng-lish was also on the staff (253:1948).

# The University of Malawi Constituted

## University Take-Over

The date for the University of Malawi to take over the constituent colleges was officially announced as January 1, 1967 (171).

## Constituent Colleges

The Bunda College of Agriculture, the Institute of Public Administration, the Malawi Polytechnic, and the Soche Hill (Teachers) College were incorporated into the University. At the same time the Chichiri campus itself became one of the constituent colleges with the title of Chancellor College (156:A/113).

# Provisional Council

The supreme authority of the University was the Provisional Council. Its particular functions included the control of policy and all financial matters. It was the formal point of contact between the University and the Government of Malawi. Its members were appointed by the Minister of Education, except for the Vice-Chancellor, who was a member by office. Governmental bodies and educational lay interests were represented, and two members of

the Council were nominated by Senate from among its members (156:A/117;205:4). See Appendix G for composition of the Provisional Council in July, 1966.

#### Senate

Senate, of which the Vice-Chancellor was Chairman by office, was the central authority of the University on academic matters, such as curriculum, syllabi, examinations, and the academic aspects of student selection and staff appointments (205:3). The following were ex officionembers of Senate:

Vice-Chancellor Principals of Colleges Professors Designated Subject-Heads University Librarian

Representatives on the Senate were elected by the Group Boards in proportion to their size, and the Registrar served as Secretary (205:4).

### Group Boards

The Group Board consisted of all members of those Subject Boards with which it was concerned, together with any subsidiary members it might accept or request from other Subject Boards. Its first function was to coordinate the work of related subjects. Its concern was with a major area of the curriculum, and with syllabi within that area. All syllabi for courses leading to a university award were approved by the appropriate Group Board before being pre-

sented to the Senate (153:41).

### Subject Boards

The function of the Subject Board was to strengthen the work of its members through exchange of information and opinion. Subject Boards were concerned with syllabi and teaching methods. It was within the Subject Board that the coordination of degree and diploma courses took place.

Every Subject Board was to be a constituent of at least one Group Board, and might belong to more than one Group Board. All the members of a Subject Board were entitled to attend meetings of the Group Board(s) of which they were main members. If desired by either party, some members of a particular Subject Board could be members of a Group Board of which that Subject Board was not a constituent. Such subsidiary members of the Group Board might at the discretion of the main members of the Group Board have voting rights as if they were main members (205:2).

# College Boards

The College Board of each constituent college of the University was primarily concerned with matters which affected the College, but did not directly affect the University as a whole. The College Boards were concerned with the welfare and work programs of individual students, and therefore could not ignore matters of curriculum, syllabi, examinations, and awards. The individual College Board was

comprised of those who taught at degree or diploma level, together with the senior administrative staff. The principal of the College normally served as chairman. The College Board was required to meet at least once a year or oftener at the discretion of the chairman.

Each teaching member of the College Board (and every administrative member if he so desired and the Subject Board agreed) was a member of a Subject Board, and of at least one Group Board, and was eligible for election to Senate (205:2). The term College Board was inappropriate for the Polytechnic (205:2) where the Joint Board with representatives of Government, the University, industry, commerce, and the Apprenticeship Board had the obligation of vocational training (153:52).

### Nomenclature of Posts

The extent to which the University included work at different academic levels distinguished it from British, but not to the same extent from North American universities. It was necessary to clarify the position and safeguard the career prospects of some, usually British members of staff, who were working mainly or solely at diploma level. The terms Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer, Senior Lecturer, and Professor were to be used in a sense broadly comparable with those used in universities within the British tradition. The term University Lecturer was to mean, in Malawi,

a member of staff, who by academic qualifications, experience, or special abilities would be seriously considered for a post in a British institution of higher education; either a university, an institution of university status, such as a college of advanced technology, or an institution closely associated with university teaching, such as colleges of education and technical colleges. It was open to any member of the University staff to apply for recognition as an Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer, or Senior Lecturer (209:1).

#### Localization

During the year 1966 Dr. N. Peter Mwanza, graduate of Ohio State University, became the first Malawian on the academic staff at Chancellor College as a Lecturer in Botany. Mr. J. R. Banda was promoted from Administrative Assistant to the post of Assistant Registrar. This was the first promotion made by the University (206:2).

## Enrollment

Student enrollment in 1966-67 totaled 720, of whom 250 were on degree courses and 465 were on deploma courses. The balance of the students were postgraduates. The enrollment at constitutent colleges was as follows:

Bunda College of Agriculture	77
Chancellor College	250
Institute of Public Administration	46
Malawi Polytechnic	228
Soche Hill College	119
	720

(253:1953).

#### Finances

Income for 1967 from Malawi Government subvention was \$800,000. External aid amounted to \$44,000 and benefactions to £60,000 (253:1952). The National Development Plan for 1965-69 provided £2.4 million for the University, which was to be established in permanent quarters in Zomba (109:8). Work on the construction of new buildings for the University in Zomba was agreed upon at a meeting between Mr. Windsor, Ministry of Overseas Development in London: Vice-Chancellor Ian Michael of the University; University Registrar Ian Freeman; officials of the Ministry of Finance; and Mr. Russell, First Secretary of the British High Commission. The Malawi Government had suggested that the British Government should make proposals on how a promised grant of \$1 million be spent towards the development of the University. The delegates agreed that the money should be spent on buildings, including the library and staff houses (104:83).

Mr. Freeman when being interviewed stated,

Malawi was too late in getting started with a university. Ten years earlier, developed nations wanted to help African nations build universities. Dar es

Salaam, Tanzania, got the last large lump sum. Malawi was at the end of the queue, and would have to make do on a shoestring.

Zambia was able to raise £.5 million by private subscription due to the wealth of the nation. Foundations, such as Ford, Rockefeller, and Carnegie, had changed their policy from giving grants for capital improvements to giving grants for research (229).

## Non-University Education

## Malawi Correspondence College

In 1963 the Minister of Education, the Hon. M. W. K. Chiume became concerned about the amount of money going out of Malawi for correspondence courses. In discussing the problem with UNESCO officials, the suggestion was made that both New Zealand and Australia had offered to help in this regard. The New Zealand External Affairs Department was contacted, and they stated they would be willing to help (233).

Mr. Albert E. Kaye, a teacher with twelve years experience at the New Zealand Department of Education's Correspondence School was sent under the Commonwealth Education Scheme to survey the field (265:1). Mr. Kaye arrived in Malawi in October, 1963, for a two months' survey, and discussed correspondence education with anyone concerned from Ministry officials to students who would enroll Mr. Kaye returned home, and wrote a proposal for a corre-

spondence college in Malawi. He stressed that such a school would not be a strain on the financial or teaching resources of the country (233).

Mr. Kaye and his wife, Emma, arrived in Malawi in early 1964, and began to set up the correspondence college in a building connected with the Further Education Centre.

Mr. Roy Shave and family, sponsored by the Australian Government to assist in the correspondence college, arrived in July, 1964. A start was made in preparation of courses in mid 1964. Offset printing machines were donated by New Zealand and Australia (265:1). The first machine arrived in September and the second in October (233). New Zealand also donated an electric duplication machine, a graphotyper, and an addressographer (265:1). USAID gave several hundred pounds worth of books for reference materials. UNESCO gave globes and maps. The Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation gave 1900 for library materials, 1750 for radio sets, and 11,800 for photocopying equipment (233).

Before the first students were enrolled, the whole process of administration was worked out in detail. Work flow-charts were prepared. Job descriptions for various procedures were established; such as, enrolling students, receiving fees, making records, filing, dispatching, marking of tests, and recording and dispatching of marked tests. Local staff was employed and trained for this work (265:1).

Course writing was started at Form I level, because

it was anticipated that the heaviest enrollments would come from school leavers. Some help was received from courses obtained from New Zealand and Australia, but much new writing was needed. All borrowed material was carefully revised and adapted to suit the syllabi and needs of Malawi (265:1).

Large enrollments were anticipated, and provision was made from the beginning to print large numbers of assignments. A publicity campaign was undertaken with assistance from the Ministry of Information. Large posters were prepared and circulated throughout the country. Press and radio were used, and circulars were sent to all District Education Officers and to headmasters of primary and secondary schools (265:2).

Radio broadcasting was begun when the first students were enrolled. Lessons were given for thirty minutes by radio and then increased to forty-five minutes.

Radios purchased with overseas money were loaned to students. As enrollments increased, arrangements were made for students to gather at night in schools where teachers assisted with tutoring (265:3).

Right at the start of the project, Mr. Kaye asked the Ministry of Education to find a Malawian who could take over when he left (233). Mr. I. A. J. Nankwenya was appointed in January, 1965, to serve with Mr. Kaye at the Malawi Correspondence College. Mr. Nankwenya had graduated

from Roma University in South Africa. He had taught Science at Zomba Secondary School, starting in January, 1962. In April, 1963, he was appointed Principal of Katete Teachers College. Four months later the Malawi Government had sent Mr. Nankwenya to the United States to do postgraduate work in education in the fields of teacher training and administration. He graduated from the University of California (174), and returned to Katete in August, 1964 (243).

After appointment to the Correspondence College, the New Zealand Government sponsored Mr. Nankwenya on a training program in that country from February to May, 1966, where he studied the organization of correspondence schools (167). Mr. Nankwenya was appointed Principal of the Malawi Correspondence College in January, 1967 (174), before Mr. Kaye left for home leave in New Zealand and assignment in Uganda (160).

The first course had been sent out in March, 1965. By September, 1966, the following courses were available:

- 1. Primary Certificate, seven subjects
- 2. Form I, seven subjects
- 3. Junior Certificate, eleven subjects
- 4. General Certificate of Education, ten subjects
- 5. City and Guilds, two subjects for apprentices
  Of the thirty-four full-time staff members, only four Peace
  Corps Volunteers and three local teachers would have otherwise been employed in schools (265).

By June, 1967, over 6,000 students were enrolled in the Malawi Correspondence College, providing education for school leavers who could not find a place in other educational institutions (243).

## Technical Education

Mr. Leven, Technical Education Officer, had held discussions shortly after his arrival in Malawi with Mr. I. C. H. Freeman, then Secretary of Education, about the possibility of introducing technical education at the secondary level (235). Mr. Leven felt that a background in technical education was essential to give students an opportunity to know about the subject before choosing a technical course at the Polytechnic (268).

With the possibility of getting a loan from the World Bank to expand secondary education, including Technical Education, Mr. Leven moved to Zomba to concentrate his efforts on that project. It was decided to provide technical education in twelve secondary schools, each housing two or three streams (235). It was planned to have courses in drafting, woodwork and metal work. Technical courses would be offered in about one-half of the schools in 1967, and the balance of the schools would be included in the program by 1969 (109:87;110).

Mr. Wareham and Mr. Davis believed that technical teachers could be trained through cooperation between the

Polytechnic and Soche Hill College, and that the secondary school system could be staffed with local technical teachers by 1973 (227;249). In preparation for the expansion of secondary technical education (148:777) and as a step toward localization of technical instructor posts, a course was started at the Polytechnic in 1966. The course was to provide specialized training over a three year period to men who were already trained as general subject teachers (109:24). Subjects being studied during the January to April term were English, Drafting, Mathematics, Physics, Social Studies, Teacher Training, Workshop Practice, and Workshop Theory (153:2). From April, 1966 to April, 1967, there were fourteen students enrolled, and their workshops included both wood and metal (154:Appendix I).

The World Bank had given its final approval to the £2.25 million loan for expansion of secondary education by May, 1967. The plan to provide for a complete technical stream at twelve secondary schools was to cost the Malawi Government £.25 and be completed by 1970/71 (162).

# Contribution of Missions

The contribution of missions had continued along with the development of a national educational program in Malawi. In 1966 ten teacher training colleges, assisted by Government, were operated by mission groups. The Roman Catholics sponsored six colleges, and four were operated by

the Christian Council. In addition, the Seventh-Day Adventist Church privately managed a college and received no government aid (109:20).

Missions also continued to operate post-primary junior trade schools. The Livingstonia Trade School was operated by the Church of Central Africa Presbyterian in the Rumpi District. Mzuzu Trade School in the Mzimba District and Namitete Trade School at Lilongwe were operated by the Roman Catholic Church. In the Blantyre District the Seventh-Day Adventist Church continued to sponsor the Matandani Industrial Mission (109:Appendix N).

The CCAP operated a Homecraft school for girls at Ludzi, Nchinji District, and the Catholics had a Homecraft school at Malingunde, Lilongwe District, and another at Mkhamenya in the Kasungu District. A program in Domestic Science was offered at Stella Maris School in the Blantyre District by the Catholic Church.

# Malawi Young Pioneers

The Malawi Young Pioneers was the National Youth Organization of Malawi. The organization was comprised of highly dedicated young men and women, who formed the spearhead of rural development. The foremost aim was to educate on a large scale, young rural progressive farmers, inculcated with a spirit of civic consciousness, dedicated to playing a vital role in the rapid development of the rural

areas (104:50).

Leadership for the program was provided by the Israeli Government. Mr. P. Gonnen served as adviser from 1964 to 1967. Nine bases were established throughout Malawi. Help was given by the Pioneers in harvesting, road building, building of schools, and whatever needed to be done in the rural setting (234).

The Danish Government sent an agricultural engineer to Malawi to assist with development, and also provided training in the country of Denmark for twelve young men, starting in March, 1966 (173). The Republic of China provided experts to Malawi in the growing of rice, and they worked with the Young Pioneers in helping to expand production. The Chinese Government also provided six months' training in Taiwan in farming and leadership to six Young Pioneers in 1966-67 (170).

## Training by Ministries

The various Government Ministries continued to carry out training programs, which were not connected with the University or the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Natural Resources was responsible for seven training or research centers (252:925). Such programs were closely associated with various development schemes conducted in Malawi (104:51-57).

## Summary of Chapter V

Chapter V described the development of higher education in the emergent nation of Malawi, Africa. The idea of a university for Malawi came to Dr. Banda, while he was politically detained (104:61). The University of Rhodesia and Nyasaland had been established in Salisbury, Rhodesia, by the Federation Government, but it did not attract Nyasaland students, who considered it politically unacceptable (138:69-72).

When independence seemed eminent, the Ministry of Education began negotiations for assistance from the U.S. Agency for International Development, who agreed to build and staff a Polytechnic school. The University of Southern California was awarded a contract to "provide technical advice and assistance in the establishment" of the school (150:4).

Education for Development: Report of the Survey

Team in Malawi (195), issued April, 1964, recommended that
existing facilities, including the junior college at Livingstonia, the Institute for Public Administration, the
Polytechnic, the agriculture college being planned at
Bunda, and the Soche Hill College for teacher training be
brought together as a unit. A liberal arts campus should
be developed as soon as possible (195:46-48). Dr. Bruce
Hahn accompanied the survey team, and served as consultant
on technical education. He recommended that the Polytech-

nic project be advanced to an earlier date by starting operation in an existing facility, the Further Education Centre (197:31).

The survey team recommended that legislation be passed to establish the University of Malawi, that it be governed on an autonomous basis, that it have a well qualified staff, that students be admitted upon completion of secondary school at "O" level, and that certificate, diploma, and degree programs be developed (195:49-54).

Malawi received its independence on July 6, 1964 (250:423), and the Prime Minister and future President, Dr. Banda, asked Mr. Ian Freeman, Secretary to the Minister of Education to develop a university. Ian Michael was selected as Vice-Chancellor, and Dr. Banda was invited to be the first Chancellor. The Liberal Arts campus was developed on an existing secondary school site at Chichiri, Limbe. Plans were made for a university structure along the lines suggested by the survey team (229).

The University of Malawi was officially opened at the Liberal Arts campus on October 6, 1965, in an impressive ceremony before 1,000 quests. A cosmopolitan staff had been assembled, and students were already enrolled. A curriculum had been devised to cater to the land-based economy (188:38).

When the University was constituted in January, 1967, with its five constituent colleges (156:A/113), a

complicated organizational structure of Provisional Council, Senate, Group Boards, Subject Boards, and College Boards had been devised (205:2,4). A token of localization had taken place as a Malawian, Dr. Peter Mwanza, was already on the staff (206:2). Fifteen students were training in the United States at the University of Southern California to provide local staff at the Polytechnic (155:A/18;158:29). An effective apprenticeship program was in operation with cooperation of the Polytechnic and the Ministry of Labour (220).

Training for adults outside the University of Malawi was being conducted by the Malawi Correspondence College (233), the Young Pioneers (234), and various Ministries (252:925).

#### CHAPTER VI

#### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of the educational system in Malawi is not the production of scholarly academics, steeped in theory and divorced from reality, but the practical education and training of men and women who can work constructively with their hands and bodies, as well as with their minds.

Malawi: 1970 (103:109)

### Purpose of Chapter VI

Chapter VI summarizes the study of the development of higher education in emerging nations, and details how one country, Malawi, Africa, met the need for higher education.

The organization of the study was outlined in Chapter II, and the resources available for the study were reviewed. The historical background and the development of education by Christian missions was presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV gave some background of the need for institutions of higher learning in emergent nations, and traced planning for higher education which came about due to independence. In Chapter V a description was given of the development of higher education and the establishment of the University of Malawi in the newly emergent nation.

The mathed of the study was to collect materials

and information from Government reports, mission reports, magazines, books, bulletins, and personal interviews with people directly involved in the development of education.

Materials were located in archives, libraries, and in the possession of individuals.

# Parallels of the Development of Education

The development of higher education in Malawi had many parallels to that in other emergent nations as outlined in Chapter IV.

### Mission Contribution

The basis for early education in Malawi was the mission schools as in other countries. Robert D. Loken, author of Manpower Development in Africa, stated that mission schools had laid the foundation for formal education (46:51-52). America magazine declared that the church had been the educator of Africa (181:200). The mission contribution to education was evident to Dr. Arthur S. Adams, President of the American Council on Education when he visited African countries in 1958 (178:282). Mr. J. Lou Pretorius gave an effective account of the contributions of mission education in Malawi in a nine page article, "The Story of School Education in Malawi for the Period 1875 to 1941." This story ended with the founding of the first secondary schools, both mission-sponsored (272:1-9).

Blantyre Secondary School received an initial Government grant of \$\frac{4}{4},210\$ (141:4), and Zomba Secondary School received \$\frac{4}{2},275\$ in grant aid (138:24). A third mission-operated school, unaided by Government, was begun in 1948 (262). It was not until 1951 that the first Government secondary school was opened at Dedza (141:4). In 1960, with the exception of nine primary schools owned by Government, the management of the primary education system was in the hands of either local education authorities or voluntary agencies, principally the Christian missions (96:99).

## The Educational Pyramid

The educational pyramid was the same in Malawi as in other African countries, wide at the base, but narrowing sharply at the secondary level (46:53), with no opportunity for higher education (141:30-34). In 1960, 261,754 students were enrolled in junior primary schools, while only 23,409 were enrolled in senior primary schools (141:37), a drop of 238,345 from the end of the fourth year to the end of the eighth year. Provisions at that time allowed for only 3 per cent of the primary school leavers to proceed to secondary level (141:11). It was not until local leaders were elected to Government (106:1), that it became the policy of the Ministry to develop secondary education as rapidly as possible, and secondary school leavers became

available in sufficient numbers to begin to fill the needs of a developing nation.

The number of students entering Form I in secondary school in 1961 was 719, while in 1963 the entry was 1,049 (106:15). The number of places available in secondary school in 1967 had increased to 8,090. The bulk of the new places available was provided in government day secondary schools with one school located in each district (109:17).

# Shortage of Secondary Teachers

The critical shortage of secondary school teachers experienced in other African countries (46:62) was experienced in Malawi, where in 1960 the shortage was made up by c hiring expatriates (141:2). The shortage continued to exist, and in 1966 the staffing was still mainly by expatriates with an increasing number of local teachers. Considerable assistance in staffing came from the U.S. Peace Corps, the British Voluntary Service Overseas, and to a lesser extent, through the Canadian and French Governments (112:6). This followed the pattern experienced in other developing countries (42:11). In October, 1966, there were 136 Peace Corps volunteers teaching in Malawi secondary schools and 24 in primary schools (109:10). Wherever the Peace Corps had been teaching the same students for two consecutive years the pass rate on school leaving examinations exceeded that attained in previous years or in comparable schools. During the period of heavy reliance on volunteers, the Ministry of Education reported that for the country at large there had been an improvement in the results obtained on the Cambridge School Certificate Examination (198:26).

Malawi established Soche Hill College in 1962 to provide teachers of Diploma level. The aim was to produce teachers for the lower classes of secondary schools (106: 19). The University (Chichiri campus) included Education within the curriculum from the outset (198:24). The University Education program was eventually phased out, and the Professor of Education at Chancellor College became the Principal of Soche Hill College (198:28).

The local supply of secondary teachers was supplemented by a small number of prospective teachers being trained overseas (198:29). The Polytechnic was expected to provide teachers on the secondary level in technical subjects. In addition to teaching drafting, wood, and metal (154:Appendix 1), the technical teachers would be able to teach science and mathematics on a practical and applied basis (204:19).

# Need for Trained Personnel in Government

The need for large numbers of Africans with at least secondary level education for Government that was experienced in other African countries (5:72;46:54;147:14)

occurred also in Malawi (256:1). The Institute of Public Administration was founded to train staff for localization of the Civil Service (106:25).

## Needs of Commerce and Industry

Newly independent countries found themselves in competition with private business and industry for the services of educated young people (42:10). The USAID Report of A Survey of the Vocational and Technical Needs of Malawi, commonly called the Plowden Report, indicated that in 1962 the majority of workers in all segments of the labor force were at a low level, which did not require formal training. The estimated requirement for high level manpower, requiring university level training, would be less than 2 per cent of all workers. The middle level segment would require 30 per cent of the work force trained in technical and vocational subjects or some kind of apprenticeship scheme (149:4).

In Malawi unemployment abounded at the lowest level of skill, while opportunity existed at the middle and highest levels of training, just the reverse of the output of the schools (195:28). The annual output of technicians in 1963 was estimated at 188, less than .02 per cent of the population and 6.4 per cent of the enrollment in Standard VIII. This was in sharp contrast to estimates of some economists who held that as many should be enrolled in

technical training as in secondary school (195:27). The development of the Further Education Centre, superseded by the Polytechnic, establishment of the apprenticeship scheme, and expansion of the College of Commerce were all designed to meet the need for trained workers in industry (195:69).

# Assistance from Colonial Powers

Some newly independent nations were reluctant to seek official help from the former imperial powers in meeting their educational needs (42:11). New nations had faith that education was the answer to their problems, and it became the largest single budget item in Black Africa (23:5). In 1960 the future of education in Malawi was grim. shortage of funds which prevented the implementation of the first Education Ordinance in 1927 was still acute. position had been reached where, without additional expenditure on administration, it was not possible to insure that the best value was being obtained for the money being spent. The percentage of Government recurrent expenditure for 1959/60 was 3.9 per cent (141:15). By 1962/63 the recurrent Government expenditure was 5.0 per cent. The figure did not include the contribution of voluntary agencies which involved both skill and cash. The Local Education Authorities were making a self-help contribution (106:9).

In 1964, the year independence was received, the Annual Report of the Ministry of Education indicated that

the sources of revenue were £177,032 from the United Kingdom, the former imperial power, and £138,744 from international agencies (107:19).

In 1965 twenty-eight countries were hosting 577 students on post-secondary courses, with the largest group of 170 being sponsored by the United Kingdom. At the same time, 33 organizations, trusts, missions, or countries were providing 281 scholarships for students studying outside of Malawi (108:Appendix L). By 1966 negotiations were nearing completion with the International Development Association, an arm of the World Bank, for a loan of £2.3 million to develop technical subjects and Domestic Science at selected secondary schools (109:20). Malawi received assistance from UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, Peace Corps, Voluntary Service Overseas, France, Canada, and bursaries for secondary education from eight organizations or trusts in 1966 (109:8,10,20,Appendix 1).

### Pattern of Higher Education

The early pattern for development of higher education in African countries was to establish their universities in special relationship with a university in the homeland of the colonial power. For British Colonies, this relationship was with the University of London (12:29;24: 253). The Malawi University had a particular association with Britain (165:1), but not a special relationship to any

one university. It also reflected American influence particularly in allowing entrance at the "O" level, rather than "A" level as in Britain (188:39).

Newly independent countries made greater use of expatriates on university staff than in Government posts (42:11). At the University of Malawi 90 per cent of the staff was expatriate in 1966. Of the 100 staff members, 10 were Malawians, and 57 were from Britain. Other countries represented were Australia, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Malaysia, Rhodesia, South Africa, and Uganda. The United States had the second highest representation with 19 (127:n.p.).

## Questions to Be Answered

What is the need for higher education in an emergent country? -- An emergent country requires sufficient trained teachers and technicians and professional personnel in government and private industry to operate the country and its business without heavy reliance on expatriate staff. As Dr. Hahn noted in Technical Education in Nyasaland, political independence is accompanied or followed by social and economic changes, the exact extent and direction of which are unpredictable, but the newly independent nation is always hopeful that improved standards of living will result (197:22).

When Dr. Hahn was making his survey of vocational

training needs, Nyasaland--soon to become Malawi--was in a period of change. A survey team had just made a prelimi-nary study of manpower needs, and Dr. Hahn used the High Level Manpower Survey (HLMS) as a general guideline for planning. The HLMS was based on projected economic growth and population growth over a period of 13-1/2 years. The highest estimate for all trained persons needed over that span was 35,655 persons. In 1960 there were 4,490 Europeans working in the country, most of whom were skilled technicians, administrators, or educators.

Dr. Plowden of USAID collected data in 1962 that indicated a total of 5,777 workers were needed in Malawi to replace losses through death. Of these 1,292 needed formal training. The Ministry of Education's training programs were expected to turn out 218 workers, only 17 per cent of the indicated need (197:22-25). Dr. Plowden stated, "If the secondary schools were to expand their enrollments at the needed rate, the number of expatriate secondary teachers would have to be increased" (149:30).

One of the criticisms of planners of the universities in newly independent nations was that little attention was paid to manpower planning (12:32). Malawi was able to avoid this pitfall in that the structure of the University allowed for filling the manpower needs in technical services, agriculture, civil service, and teacher education, as well as the academic university requirements.

What type of education should be provided?—The Report on An Economic Survey of Nyasaland, 1958-1959, released in 1960 by the Federation, placed emphasis on the quality of primary education, and noted that primary school leavers would be expected more and more to provide the skilled and semi-skilled manual labor force (87:181). With independence, Malawi, like all newly independent nations, needed increased secondary school places and higher education to train for localization of posts. The Plowden report provided an appendix which analyzed the progress in localization of posts by Ministries as of January 1, 1964. By combining the posts held by expatriates and approved posts which were vacant, a total of 1,304 replacements was needed (149:Appendix J).

The Ministries included Works and Housing, Trade and Industry, Labour, Police, Finance, Education and Local Government, Information, Surveys and Social Development, Transport and Communication, Judiciary, and the Prime Minister's staff (149:Appendix J). This list of ministries gives an idea of the variety of posts to be filled. As expatriates held technical, supervisory, and administrative posts, the level of training required to replace them would be quite high. Many were university graduates, and others had secondary level plus technical training and experience.

The areas of employment in the private sector were agriculture, forestry, fishing, mining, quarrying, manufac-

turing, construction, electricity, water supply, sanitation, commerce, transport, communications, and domestic service (149:8). The College of Agriculture at Bunda would provide training in agriculture and forestry. The Institute of Public Administration would train personnel for Ministry posts, especially administrative level positions for the judiciary and the President's staff. Soche Hill College was designed to cater to the needs of education, and the Polytechnic was assigned the task of training technical personnel for the various areas. Chancellor College could be expected to furnish personnel trained in science, sociology, and political science. Those receiving a four year degree would eventually fill high level posts in Government and the private sector. The apprenticeship program, and to a lesser degree the junior trade schools, would furnish skilled workers in industry, construction, electricity, and transport.

To how many persons should the country provide
higher education?—An emergent country is concerned with
localization, so its people may enjoy increased standards
of living and it will be relieved of the burden of maintaining large expatriate staffs. In Malawi in 1960 it was
estimated that employed Europeans represented slightly more
than 2 per cent of the work force (197:25). The Survey
Team on Education recommended that the University begin

training replacements by concentrating on the hard core of higher education, the general and broadly applicable, plus two or three specialized fields on which immediate development depended. Use of scholarships, bursaries, and outside educational opportunities in specialized categories, such as architecture, pharmacy, medicine, health services, engineering, and law was recommended (195:51-52).

An initial student entry of 200 in 1965, with an increase in the annual intake of 350 to 400 in the next five years, was suggested for the University system, with an enrollment of 1,000 by 1970. These figures were guidelines to be regulated and revised in accordance with the findings of manpower studeis (195:52), as a survey team cannot lay out a precise, undeviating course for educational development, as human will is unpredictable and outside aid is unknown (195:62).

what method should the new country use to finance higher education?--"Development naturally depends upon finance," Dr. Banda bluntly stated in speaking of the needs of his country. "We have no money of our own" (189:3).

When Malawi received independence, she was burdened with a deficit budget and added responsibilities due to the disso-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Full-time students in all colleges of the University of Malawi totaled 984 for the school year, 1970-71, according to Commonwealth Universities Yearbook for 1972 (255:1453).

lution of the Federation of Nyasaland and the Rhodesias. Malawi was not reluctant to accept financial assistance from the former colonial power, in contrast to the attitude reported in other newly independent countries (42:11). The £4,500,000 budget deficit was covered by grant-in-aid from the British government. A five year development plan was announced which called for expenditure of £44.6 million to inspire confidence and stimulate employment. The plan gave priority to agriculture, to improvement of roads, and to education. The British government was the "bread and butter" of Malawi's economy, providing £2,240,000 in grants and loans in addition to covering the budget deficit (189: 3).

what kind of assistance could an emergent country expect from the more established countries?—The greatest amount of assistance for developing countries was from the former colonial power (5:73). African leaders looked to the outside world for assistance in meeting immediate and critical needs (5:72,113). In Malawi, as in other countries, assistance came from many sources. The United Kingdom provided the money of the national budget, as well as for education. The United States gave assistance through USAID and the Peace Corps. Many nations gave scholarships or bursaries for Malawi students to study overseas. Countries provided training either in Malawi or in the home

country for students in special areas. Malawi was not without her friends (189:3).

# Education Unlocks the Door

Mr. William J. Barnsdale the Charge d'Affaires of the American Embassy in Malawi, stated at the Opening of the Malawi Polytechnic Building:

The years following our own independence have taught us in America many lessons. Among them is the realization that education is a major key that unlocks the doors to the unknown world around us. With its blessings nations grow and prosper. Without it they cannot hope to achieve their rightful places among the world of nations. (154:Appendix X)

This study has added to the knowledge and understanding of the development of higher education in emerging countries. It has given an account of how one new nation, Malawi, Africa, met the need for higher education. An overview has been given of the contributions made by established countries to the newly developing nation.

This study was of special significance to the School of Education of the University of Southern California, because USC held a contract to organize and staff the Polytechnic branch of the University of Malawi. The fifteen Malawi students trained at USC under the contract will make a lasting contribution to higher education in Malawi.

The bibliography established by this study will be valuable for further study of education in Malawi. The researcher was fortunate to be able to collect materials

and conduct interviews with persons directly involved in establishing the University of Malawi. As the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Ian Michael, said at the opening of the University, "We are celebrating the birth of an institution which will last for hundreds of years" (165:1).

# Conclusions

- 1. Malawi is willing to accept assistance from outside sources, and relies heavily on the former colonial power, Great Britain, for financial aid.
- 2. Malawi assures itself of an adequate supply of secondary school leavers at "O" level by building day secondary schools and adding second and third streams.
- 3. The University of Malawi, by establishing the entrance requirement at "O" level, assures itself of an adequate supply of students for meeting the country's needs.
- 4. The University is not established in special relationship with a metropolitan university, which would require "A" level as an entrance requirement, thereby limiting the number of applicants available.
- 5. The Polytechnic branch of the University is unique in university structure in that it allows both diploma and certificate level courses.
- 6. The organization of the University of Malawi is unique in that it controls all education beyond secondary level, which is considered higher education.

# Recommendations

- 1. It is recommended that Malawi should evaluate its total educational system, giving consideration to cultural traditions, economic aspirations, and manpower requirements in the continuing development of higher education.
- 2. A locally developed school leaving examination and education guidance program should be developed that would provide well qualified applicants for each of the branches of the University.
- 3. When a position of leadership in the University is filled by an expatriate, it should be a part of his contract to train a local counterpart to fill his position when the contract ends.
- 4. Malawi should continue to send students overseas for training in expensive and highly specialized fields, including architecture, engineering, health services, law, medicine, pharmacy, and veterinary medicine.
- 5. Students who have completed diploma or degree level courses at the University should be considered as qualified to continue specialized training overseas.
- 6. Malawians holding degrees and with administrative experience in University and Government posts should be sent overseas to complete masters' and doctoral programs.
  - 7. Persons returning from training overseas should

be assured of returning to a post commensurate with their ability upon completion of higher degrees.

8. The University of Southern California should maintain a working relationship with the University of Malawi for the purpose of providing specialized training and advanced degrees to a limited number of University personnel.

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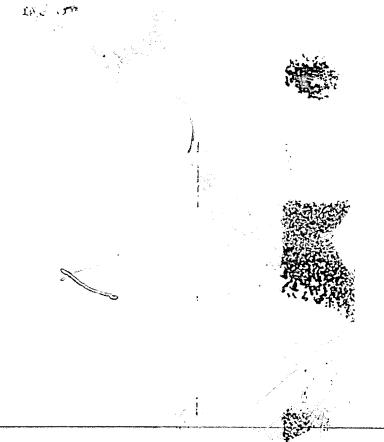
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APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

INDEPENDENCE RECEIVED BY AFRICAN COUNTRIES, 1956-1968

# INDEPENDENCE RECEIVED BY AFRICAN COUNTRIES, 1956-1968

1956 Sudan (Anglo-Egyptian Sudan)

Morocco

1957 Ghana (Gold Coast)

1958 Guinea

1960 Mauretania

Senegal

Mali (French Sudan)

Upper Volta

Ivory Coast

Togo

Dahomey

Niger

Chad

Cameroon

Nigeria

Central African Republic

Gabon

Congo - Brazzaville (French Congo)

Republic of Congo - Kinshasa (Belgian Congo)

Somalia (Italian and British Somaliland)

1961 Tanganyika

Sierra Leone

1962 Algeria

Uganda

Rwanda

Burundi

1963 Kenya

Zanzibar

1964 Tanzania (Tanganyika and Zanzibar united)

Zambia (Northern Rhodesia)

Malawi (Nyasaland)

1965 Gambia

Rhodesia (Southern Rhodesia) (Unilateral Declaration of Independence)

1966 Botswana (Bechuanaland)

1968 Swaziland

Sources: Maquet, Jacques, Civilizations of Black Africa (New York: Oxford University Press, 1972);

The International Atlas (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1969).

# APPENDIX B

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

# SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

Trade Training Technical-Vocational Government Schools	130	94	332	886
Secondary Schools Assisted and Unassisted	768	1,501	2,587	6,413 (5 years)
Primary Schools Anniated and Unagninted	268,639	265,167	327,834	236,014 (7 years)
To of	1958	1960	1962	1964

An 1956 Trade Training was at the Artisan Training Centre, which was closed in 1959 during the Emergency. The school was reopened in 1960 under the name of socie Trade School. Also included in the enrollment figures for 1962 and 1964 were students at the Commercial Training Centre and Further Education Centre.

Annual Report of For Enrollment Figures for Years 1958, 1960, 1962: Colonial Office, Nyssaland: Report for Year noted. For Year 1964: Ministry of Education, 1964. Sources

# APPENDIX C TEACHER TRAINING ENROLLMENT

# TEACHER TRAINING ENROLLMENT

Totals for Year	916	930	1,163	1,284		
Domestic Science (Women)			26	39		rm II)
Diploma in Education			7	35		<pre>2 years Post Primary School Certificate 2 years Post Junior School Certificate (Form II) 2 years Post School Certificate (Form IV) 3 years Post School Certificate (Form IV)</pre>
T.2	11	33	н			rimary School unior School chool Certifi chool Certifi
H. 3	147	137	123	35	of Training	years Post Pyears Post Jyears Post Syears
7.4	758	760	1,006	1,175	Level at Completion of Training	
Year	1958	1960	1962	1964	Level at	T.4 Teacher T.3 Teacher T.2 Teacher Diploma Teacher

Annual Report of the Education Department for the Year Ended 31st December, 1960, for Years 1958 and 1960; Annual Report of the Ministry of Education for the Year 1963, for Year 1963; Annual Report of the Ministry of Education tion for the Year 1964, for Year 1964. Sources:

### APPENDIX D

MISSION OPERATED TRACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

## MISSION OPERATED TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

Location	Proprietor	Men	Women	Course
Nguludi	Roman Catholic	180	-	T.3, T.4
Providence	Roman Catholic	-	120	T.3, T.4
Loudon	Christian Council	90	_	T.4
Mkhoma	Christian Council	150	-	T.4
katete	Roman Catholic	90	30	T.4
Bembeke -	Roman Catholic	-	120	T.4
Malindi	Christian Council	90	<u></u>	т.4
Kapeni	Christian Council	, care	120	T.4
Stella Maris	Roman Catholic	-	140	T.4/T.3 Upgrading Home Economics
Lilor gwe	Roman Catholic	180		т.3, т.4
Malakulo	Seventh-Day Adventist (Unassisted)	12	7	T.3

Source: Annual Report of the Ministry of Education the Year 1966.

### APPENDIX E

# UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI--THE POLYTECHNIC STUDENT COUNTERPART TRAINEES

# UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI--THE POLYTECHNIC STUDENT COUNTERPART TRAINEES

	Previous	
Counterpart	Post	Program Objective
Eston Bakaimani	Electrician Apprentice	Teacher Education Electrician
Prainy Chikhula	Business Studies Teacher	Business Education
Charles Chindongo	Technical Teacher	Teacher Education Woodworking (changed to Machine Shop)
Julie Chisanu	Diploma Business Studies First Year	Teacher Education Business Administration
Frank Chitani	Government Recommended	Teacher Education Heavy Truck Diesel
Arthur Kambalametore	Business Studies Teacher	Education Administra- tion
Clifton Matupa	Motor Vehicle Apprentice	Teacher Education Automotive Mechanics
Stanley Mombera	Motor Vehicle Apprentice	Teacher Education Automotive Mechanics
Mathew Mumbwa	Engineering Diploma	Teacher Education Mechanical Engineering
Tamara Nyasulu	Shorthand Typist	Business Education
Lazzie Phambana	Electrician Apprentice	Teacher Education Electrician
Wilson Swaffi	Electrician Apprentice	Teacher Education Electronics

Previous Program Objective Counterpart Post Teacher Education Government Margaret Tandani Business Administration Recommended Teacher Education Emidio Varela Engineering Mechanical Engineering Diploma Instrumentation Henry Ngaiyaye Technology English as a Second George Phiri Language

Note: All counterparts received degrees from the University of Southern California, excepting Henry Ngaiyaye who received an associate degree from Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California.

Sources: University of Southern California, The Polytechnic, The University of Malawi: Malawi, Africa.

Eighth Semi-Annual Report, pp. A/17-19 and Final Report, p. 28.

### APPENDIX F

SOCHE HILL COLLEGE CURRICULUM OFFERINGS, 1966

### SOCHE HILL COLLEGE CURRICULUM OFFERINGS, 1966

The curriculum offerings at Soche Hill College in 1966 were as follows:

1. Three year courses

Education (4 periods a week)
English Language (3-4 periods a week)
Arts and crafts (2 periods a week)
Needlework (2 periods for the first 2 years)
Library Techniques (1 period a week)

- In addition to the required courses, which were taken for the three years, special areas of study either in the area of Science or Arts, were selected.
  - a. Science Area

Biology Chemistry Physics Mathematics

b. Arts Area

English Literature History Geography Mathematics

- Auxiliary courses in both English and Mathematics were offered students whose competency was below that which was acceptable.
- 4. French was offered students specializing in the area of Arts as soon as a reasonable number of qualified entrants was available. It was antique pared that this subject would be offered in 1967.

No mention was made of teaching Portuguese, although Malawi is bounded on three sides of Mozambigue, a Portuguese-speaking country.

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APPENDIX G								
PROVISIONAL	COUNCIL	OF	THE	UNIVERS	ITY	OF	MALAWI,	1966
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# PROVISIONAL COUNCIL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI, 1966

### Chancellor H. E. Dr. H. Kamuzu Banda

The Hon. J. D. Msonthi, M. P., Chairman Minister of Transport and Communications

The Hon. R. B. Chidzanja, M. P. Minister of Home Affairs

The Hon. G. W. Kumtumanji, M. P.
Minister of Natural Resources

Mrs. Margaret Mlanga, M. P.

The Hon. J. Z. U. Tembo, M. P. Minister of Finance

Professor J. E. G. Utting

Professor Roger Wilson
University of Bristol, representing the InterUniversity Council for Higher Education Overseas

Dr. J. R. Raeburn

Professor of Agriculture in the University of
Aberdeen, as an alternate for Professor Wilson

Mr. M. H. Blackwood, M. P.

The Hon. M. Q. Y. Chibambo, M. P. Minister of Health

Mr. S. D. Kaliyoma

Father C. Mkcna

Mr. A. S. Sacranie

Dr. Eldon Johnson
President of the Great Lakes Colleges' Association,
representing the American Council on Education



Dr. F. H. Harbison

Professor of Economics and Director of the Industrail Relations Section, Princeton University, as an alternate for Dr. Johnson

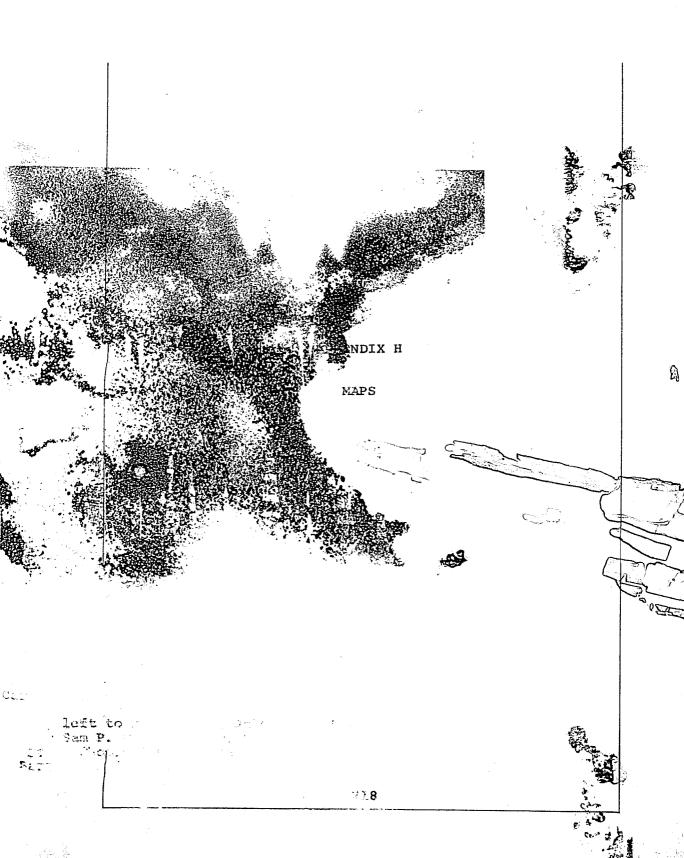
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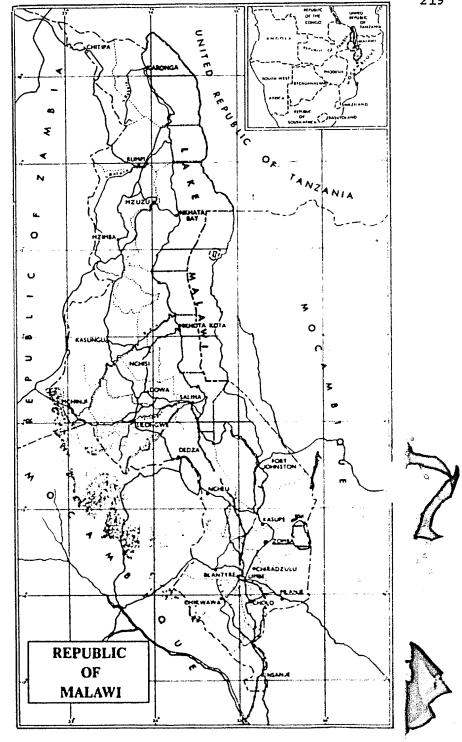
Vice-Chancellor Dr. Ian Michael

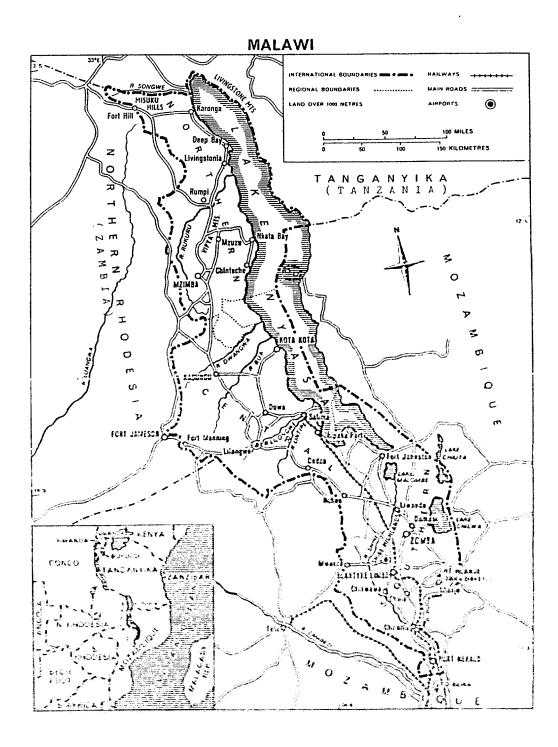
(127)

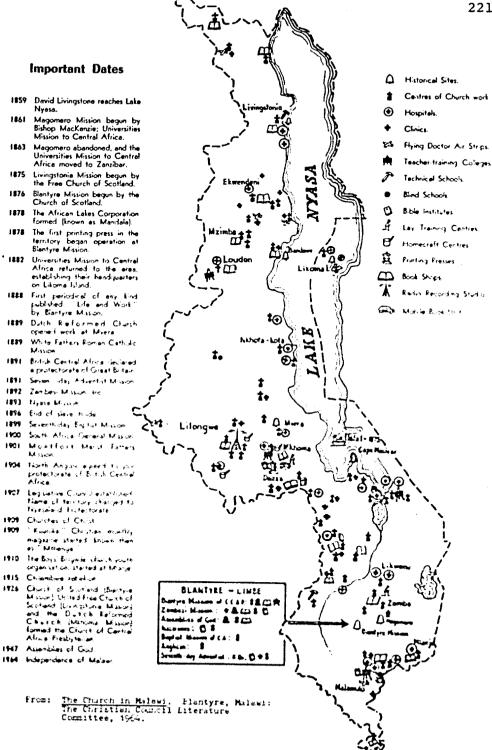


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APPENDIX I

PLATES

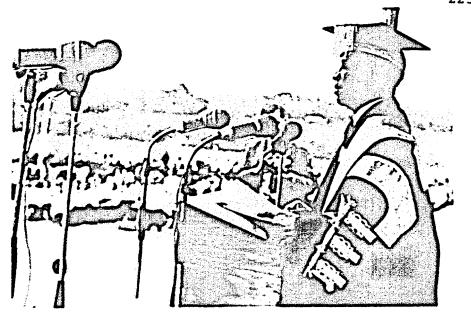




PLATE I

### DR. BANDA OPENING THE UNIVERSITY

Top: President, Ngwazi Dr. H. Kamuzu Banda, Chancellor. Bottom, right to left: Dr. Ian Michael, Vice Chancellor, Dr. Banda, Dean John Utting, and Sir Martin Roseveare.



PLATE II

RECEPTION AT THE OPENING OF THE UNIVERSITY

Dr. Banda at the Opening of the University with Sean J. E. G. Utting, Sir Martin Roseveare of Socne Hill College, Principal R. M. Prideaux of Malavi Polytechnic, and Vice Chancellor Dr. Jan Michael.

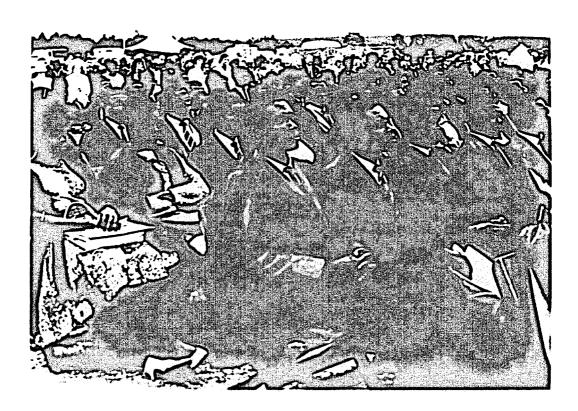
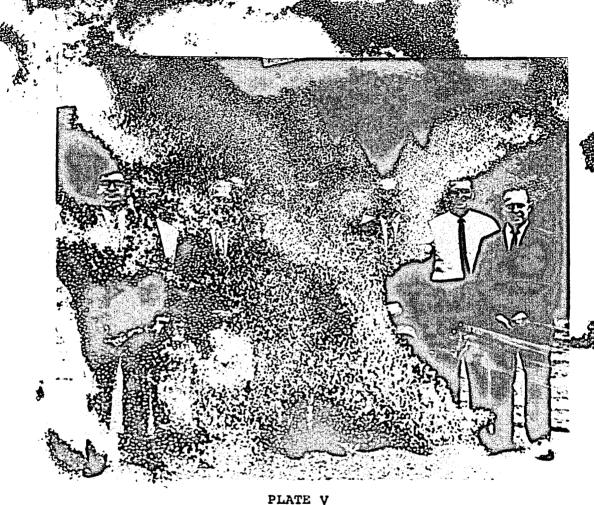


PLATE III
STUDENTS AT THE OPENING OF THE UNIVERSITY



# TOUR OF THE POLYTECHNIC BUILDING

USC-USAID team members tour the Malawi Polytechnic with U.S. Ambassador Gilstrap and USC Campus Coordinator, Dr. Carpenter.

Front row, lety, right: Dr. John Cambridge George Sogge, Ambassador Sent, Filstrap, Dr. Brunge, in Britand Lange. Shoond row: Threas Upton, Rupertain and the Foster, Frank introval and welliam Share.

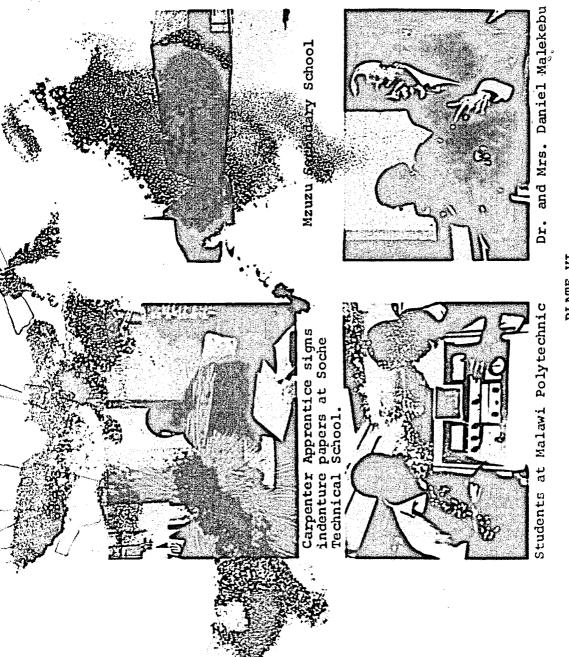


PLATE VI

VARIOUS ACTIVITIES

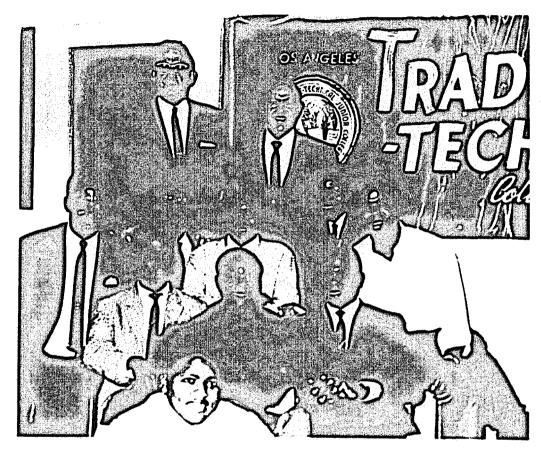


PLATE VII

### MALAWI STUDENTS AT LOS ANGELES TRADE-TECHNICAL COLLEGE

The Polytechnic Student Counterpart Trainees at Los Angeles Trade-Technical College with Dean Carlson and USC-USAID team member.

Front: Miss Tamara Nyasaulu. Left to right, second row: Lazzie Phambana, Wilson Swaffi, Clifton Matupa. Third row: Charles Chindongo, Stanley Mombera, Prainy Chikhula, Frank Chitani, Eston Bakaimani. Standing: Dean C. Harry Carlson and Harold Lange.