

**VOLUME: 5**

# **COMPETITIVE MATRICULATION:**

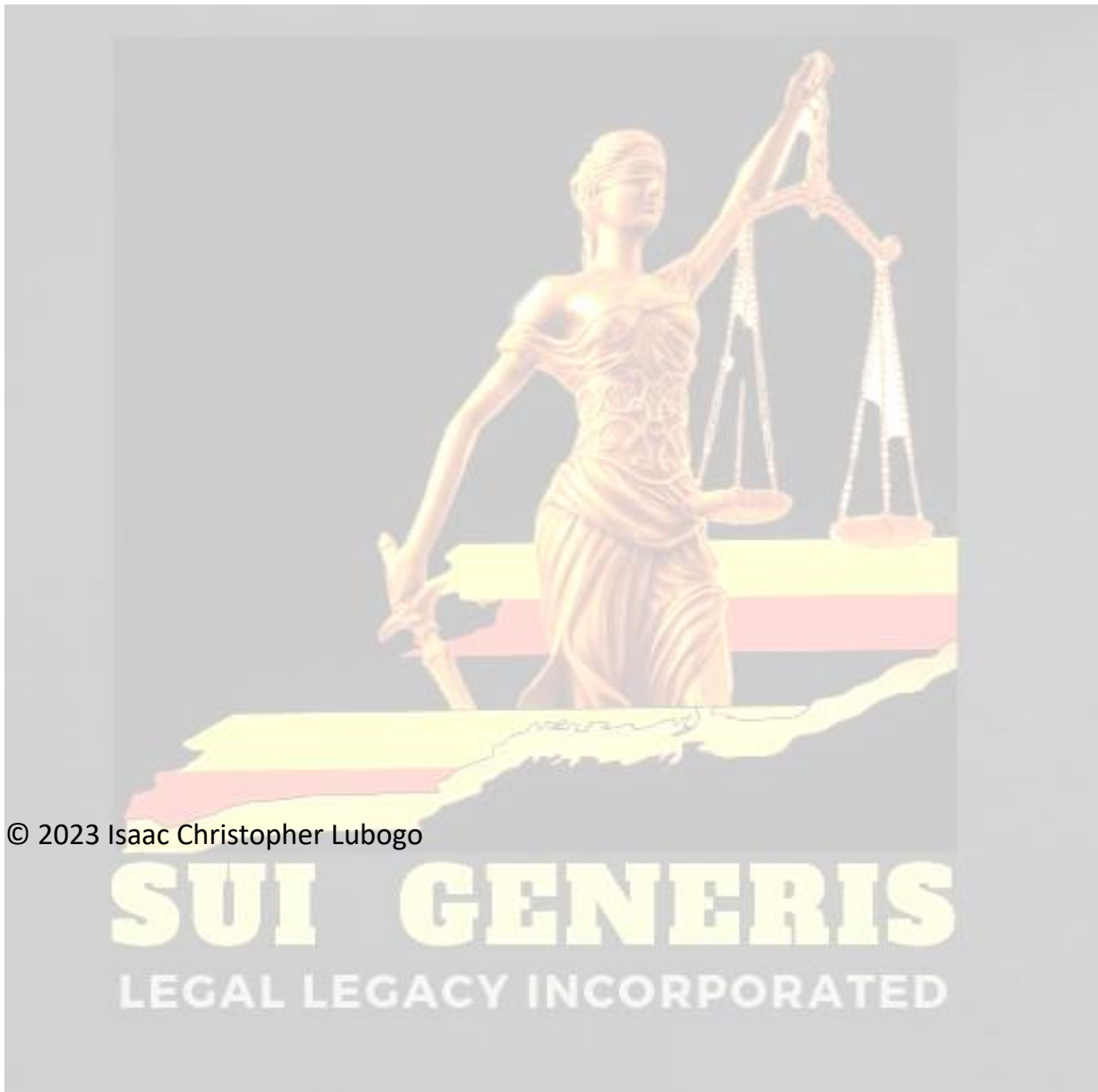
**A GUIDE TO ORAL EXAMS, APTITUDE  
TESTS, INTERVIEWS AT UNDERGRADUATE,  
GRADUATE AND POST GRADUATE  
LAW SCHOOLS.**

**CIVIL LITIGATION**



**ISAAC CHRISTOPHER LUBOGO**

# MATRICULATION ORAL EXAM IN CIVIL PROCEDURE IN UGANDA





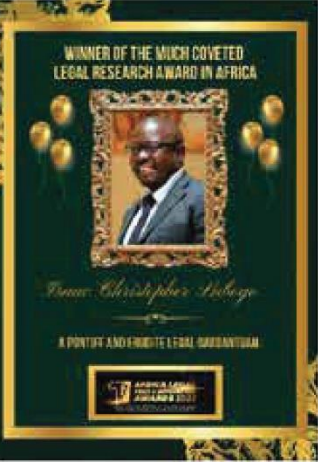
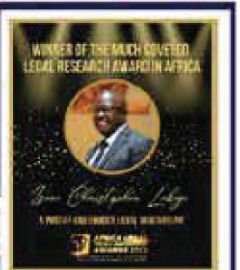


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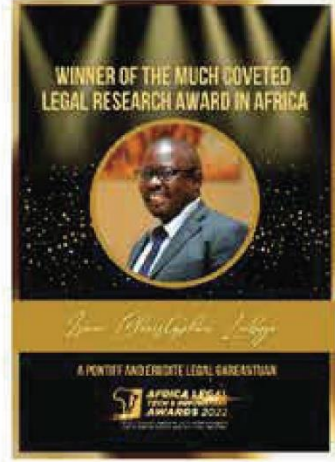
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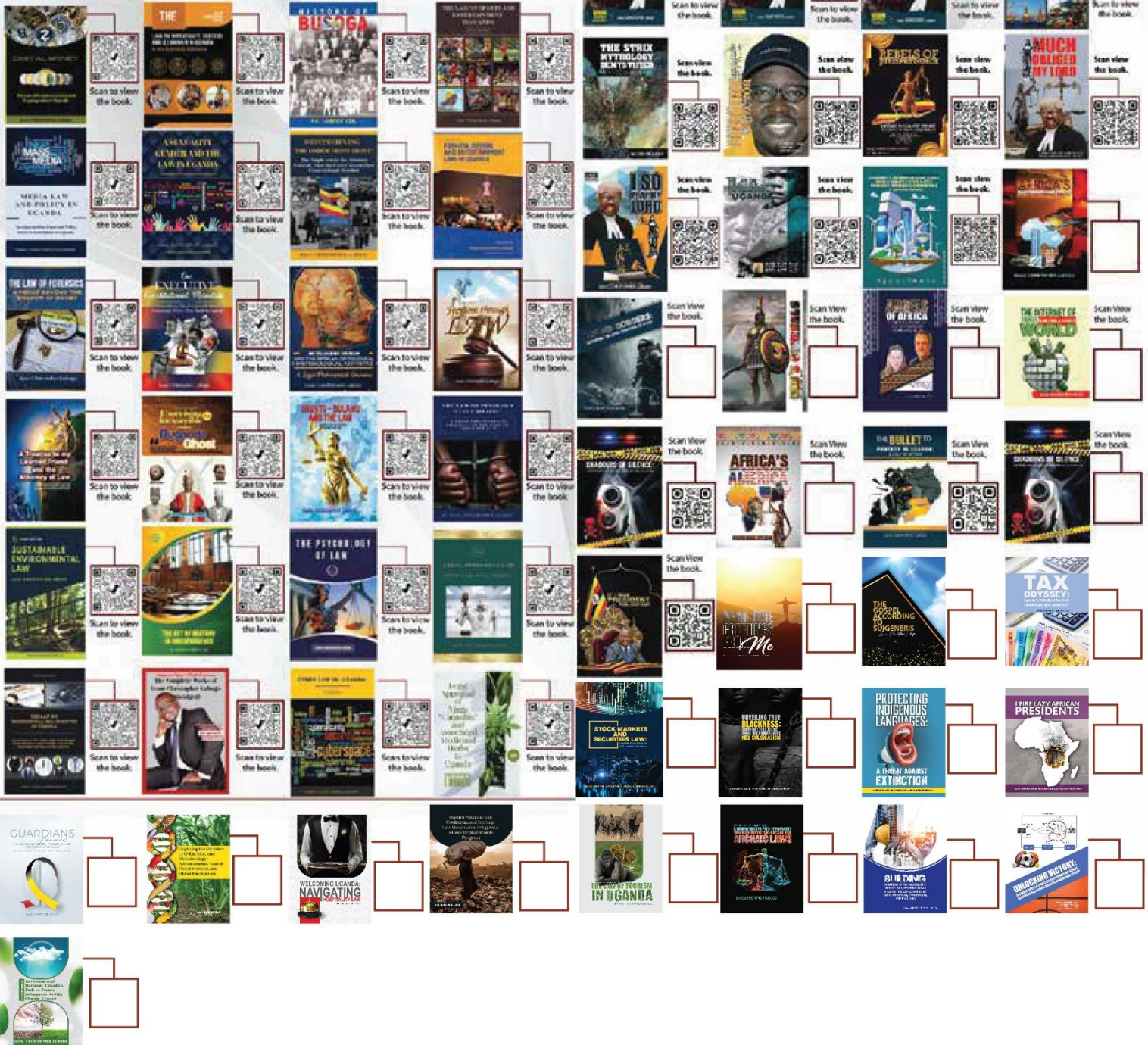




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## These Complete Books

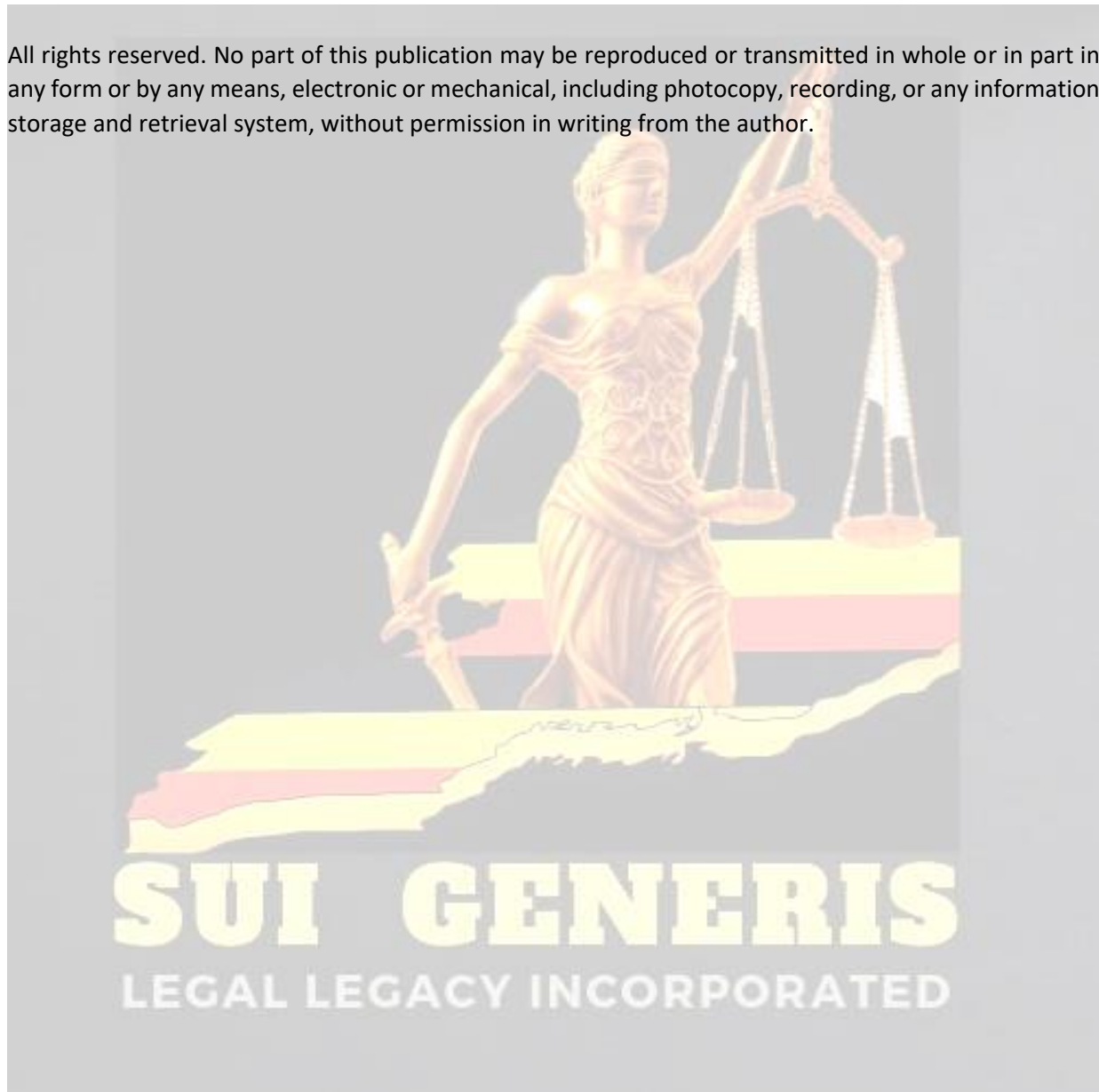


# MATRICULATION ORAL EXAM IN CIVIL PROCEDURE IN UGANDA

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Title: Matriculation Oral Examination Guide: Civil Procedure in Uganda

Book Review

"Matriculation Oral Examination Guide: Civil Procedure in Uganda"

In the realm of civil procedure law, where intricate legal processes intersect with the pursuit of justice, having a comprehensive resource that offers clarity and guidance is of utmost importance. The "Matriculation Oral Examination Guide: Civil Procedure in Uganda" is a commendable book that effectively addresses this need. It serves as an invaluable tool for law students and aspiring legal professionals seeking to navigate the complexities of civil procedure law in the Ugandan context.

One of the standout features of this guide is its comprehensive coverage of relevant topics. From jurisdiction and pleadings to trials, appeals, and enforcement of judgments, the book leaves no aspect of civil procedure in Uganda unexplored. The authors have meticulously delved into the Ugandan legal framework, presenting readers with a comprehensive understanding of the statutes, case law, and legal principles that underlie civil procedure. This thorough exploration ensures that readers develop a strong foundation in the subject matter, enabling them to handle a wide range of civil procedure cases competently.

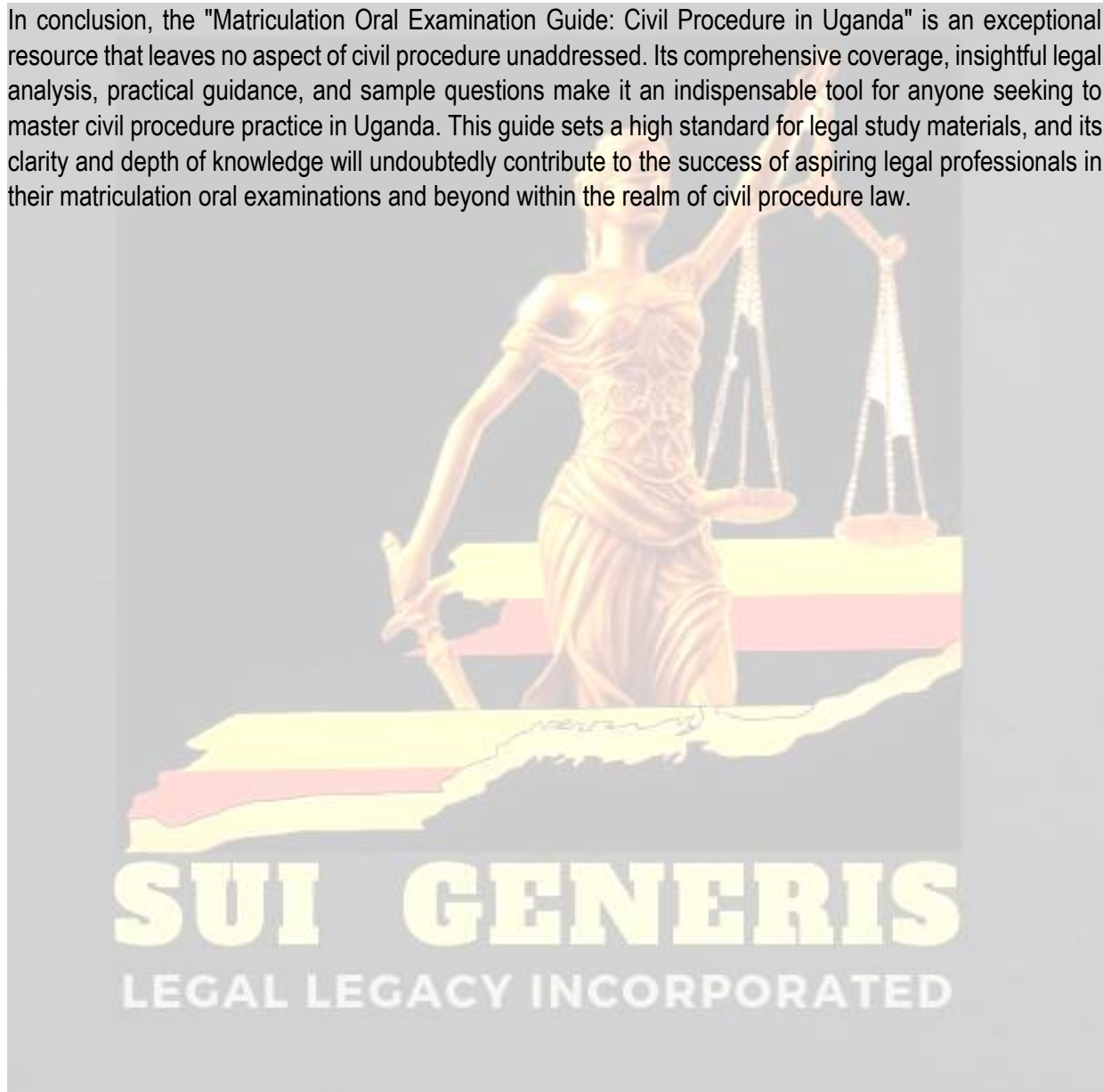
Furthermore, the book excels in its legal analysis. Each topic is accompanied by insightful discussions that delve into the underlying principles and jurisprudence shaping civil procedure law in Uganda. By examining key cases and legal precedents, the authors provide readers with a contextual understanding of how the law is interpreted and applied in real-life situations. This analysis not only enhances readers' theoretical knowledge but also equips them with the critical thinking skills necessary to navigate complex legal issues and advocate effectively for their clients within the civil procedure context.

The practical guidance offered in this guide is another noteworthy aspect that sets it apart. In addition to theoretical discussions, the book provides step-by-step explanations of the procedural aspects involved in civil procedure cases. From initiating lawsuits to conducting discovery, presenting evidence, and executing judgments, readers are given invaluable insights into the practicalities of civil procedure practice. This hands-on approach ensures that readers not only understand the legal principles but also know how to apply them effectively in practice.

A notable strength of the book lies in its inclusion of sample questions and model answers. This feature aids students in their exam preparation, allowing them to become familiar with the types of questions they may encounter in oral examinations related to civil procedure. By providing well-crafted model answers, the book guides readers in structuring their arguments and articulating their responses effectively. This aspect adds an interactive dimension to the learning process, making the guide a valuable resource for both exam preparation and enhancing overall understanding.

While the book's content is extensive and comprehensive, it is important to note that it is based on the legal framework in Uganda up until 2023. Given the evolving nature of the law, readers should supplement their knowledge with updates from reliable sources to ensure they remain current with any recent legislative or judicial developments within civil procedure in Uganda.

In conclusion, the "Matriculation Oral Examination Guide: Civil Procedure in Uganda" is an exceptional resource that leaves no aspect of civil procedure unaddressed. Its comprehensive coverage, insightful legal analysis, practical guidance, and sample questions make it an indispensable tool for anyone seeking to master civil procedure practice in Uganda. This guide sets a high standard for legal study materials, and its clarity and depth of knowledge will undoubtedly contribute to the success of aspiring legal professionals in their matriculation oral examinations and beyond within the realm of civil procedure law.





Dedication:

To the LORD God Almighty,

"Blessed be the LORD my Rock,

Who guides my steps in the realm of civil procedure,  
And strengthens my resolve in the pursuit of justice."

- Adapted from Psalm 144:1

"I lift up my eyes to the hills—

where does my help come from?

My help comes from the LORD,

the Maker of heaven and earth,

Who illuminates the path of civil procedure before me."

- Adapted from Psalm 121:1-2

With the utmost reverence and gratitude, we dedicate this book, "Matriculation Oral Examination Guide: Civil Procedure in Uganda," to the LORD God Almighty, the source of wisdom and guidance.

In the pursuit of legal knowledge and understanding, we acknowledge that it is through Your divine providence that we are empowered to delve into the intricacies of civil procedure. We humbly recognize Your sovereignty as the ultimate teacher, illuminating our minds and hearts with clarity and insight.

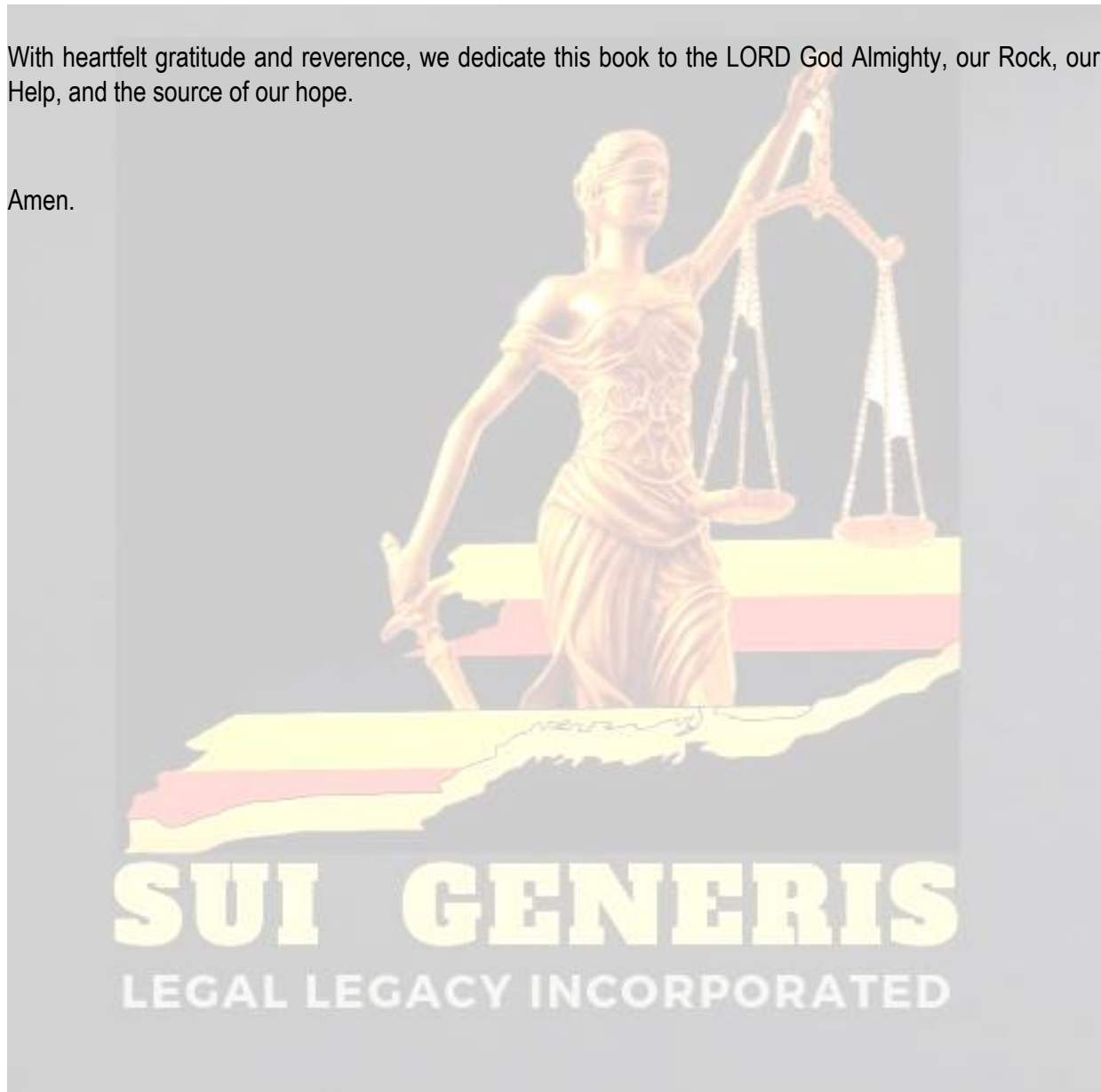
As we embark on this journey to master the principles and procedures of civil procedure law, we acknowledge Your role as our Rock, guiding our steps in the challenges that lie ahead. Just as You have equipped us to navigate the legal battles in the courtroom and uphold justice, we trust in Your strength and guidance to navigate the complexities of civil procedure practice in Uganda.

In times of uncertainty and doubt, we lift our eyes to the hills, acknowledging that our help comes from You alone. As we study the legal framework, analyze precedents, and explore procedural intricacies within these pages, we are reminded that our ultimate hope and reliance rest in You, the Maker of heaven and earth. It is Your divine wisdom that guides us, shapes our understanding, and inspires us to seek justice in all our legal endeavors.

May this book serve as a testament to Your grace and faithfulness. May it equip and empower aspiring legal professionals and students, enabling them to navigate the realm of civil procedure with integrity, diligence, and excellence. As they prepare for their matriculation oral examinations and embark on their legal journeys, may they continually seek Your wisdom and guidance, knowing that their ultimate purpose is to serve and uphold justice in accordance with Your will.

With heartfelt gratitude and reverence, we dedicate this book to the LORD God Almighty, our Rock, our Help, and the source of our hope.

Amen.





## Introduction:

Welcome to the comprehensive guide for matriculation oral examinations in Civil Procedure in Uganda. This book has been meticulously crafted to assist law students and aspiring legal professionals in their pursuit of mastering the intricacies of civil procedure within the Ugandan legal system.

Civil procedure law plays a fundamental role in the administration of justice and the resolution of civil disputes. It governs the rules and procedures that guide civil lawsuits, ensuring fairness, due process, and the protection of the rights of all parties involved. Given its significance and the growing complexity of civil litigation, it is crucial for aspiring lawyers to possess a solid foundation in this area of law.

This guide has been designed to provide a structured and comprehensive resource for individuals preparing for their matriculation oral examination in Civil Procedure in Uganda. It aims to equip readers with a deep understanding of the legal principles, relevant statutes, and procedural aspects that govern civil litigation in the country.

### Key Features of this Guide:

1. **Comprehensive Coverage:** This guide covers all essential topics related to civil procedure in Uganda, including jurisdiction, pleadings, trials, appeals, and the enforcement of judgments. It explores the relevant legislation, case law, and legal principles to provide a holistic understanding of civil procedure practice.

2. **Legal Analysis:** Each topic is accompanied by in-depth legal analysis, offering readers valuable insights into the underlying principles and jurisprudence shaping civil procedure in Uganda. By examining landmark cases and legal precedents, this guide provides a contextual understanding of how the law is interpreted and applied in practical scenarios.

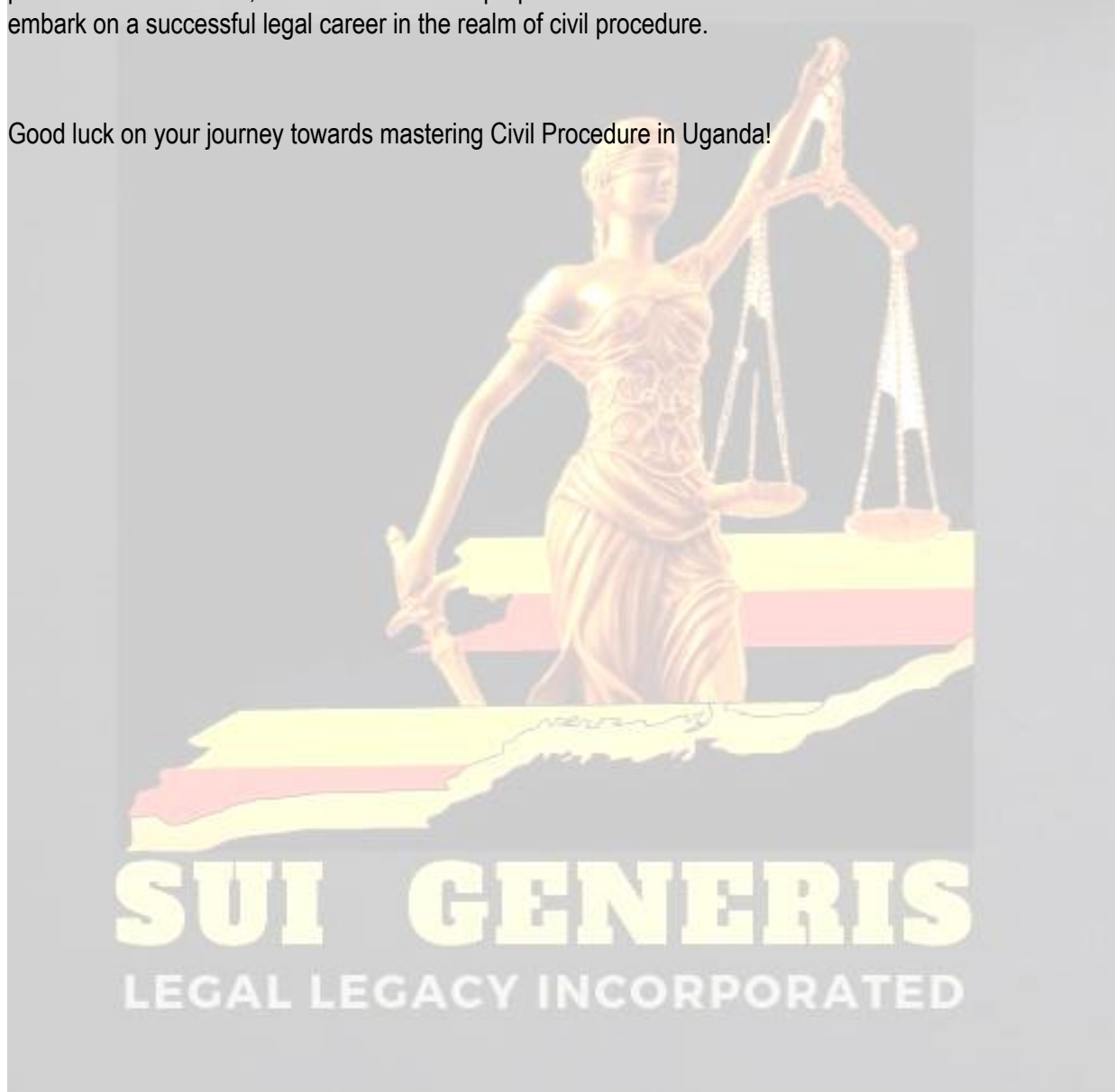
3. **Practical Guidance:** In addition to theoretical discussions, this guide also offers practical guidance on navigating the procedural aspects of civil cases. It provides step-by-step explanations of court procedures, the drafting of relevant legal documents, and effective advocacy strategies. This ensures that readers are well-prepared to handle real-world civil litigation scenarios with confidence.

4. **Sample Questions and Model Answers:** To aid students in their preparation for oral examinations, this guide includes a comprehensive collection of sample questions and model answers. These examples demonstrate how to effectively analyze legal issues, structure arguments, and articulate responses in an oral examination setting.

5. Updated Legal Framework: This guide takes into account the latest legal developments and amendments in Ugandan civil procedure law up until 2023, ensuring that readers are equipped with the most current knowledge in this dynamic field.

We believe that this guide will serve as an invaluable resource for law students, legal professionals, and anyone seeking to acquire a profound understanding of civil procedure in Uganda. By leveraging the content presented in this book, readers will be well-prepared to tackle their matriculation oral examination and embark on a successful legal career in the realm of civil procedure.

Good luck on your journey towards mastering Civil Procedure in Uganda!





## Pretrial proceedings

- **MR X. has come to your chambers complaining about her boss, he has exhausted all relevant avenues and has decided to sue the boss and nothing is going to change his mind, how would you help him and mention the relevant Pretrial Proceedings in Civil Procedure in Uganda:**

### 1. Interviewing of Potential Clients:

- When interviewing potential clients, gather all relevant information about the case, including the client's personal details, the facts and circumstances surrounding the case, and any supporting documents or evidence.
- Identify the legal issues involved in the case and determine the applicable substantive legislation and case law.

### 2. Checklist Development:

- Develop a checklist to obtain all necessary legal information to advise the client effectively and support any potential court action.
- The checklist should cover the details of the workshop question or specific legal matter at hand.
- Include general personal details of the client, such as name, contact information, and any relevant background information.
- Consider any specific requirements or guidelines provided by the civil procedure rules or other relevant regulations.

### 3. Mode of Commencement:

- Determine the appropriate mode of commencement for the legal action, which may involve filing a lawsuit, initiating alternative dispute resolution methods, or pursuing other appropriate legal remedies.
- Consult the applicable civil procedure rules to ensure compliance with the prescribed procedures for commencing legal action.

### 4. Formalizing Instructions:

- Prepare a formal agreement or letter of engagement between the client and the advocate, which outlines the instructions given by the client and the agreed-upon forms of remuneration.
- Ensure compliance with Regulation 2(1) of the Advocates (Professional Conduct) Regulations, which prohibits an advocate from acting for any person without receiving instructions from that person.

- Make all necessary steps to communicate the representation to all parties involved, as stated in the case of *Okodoi George & Anor v. Okello Opaire*, HMCA NO. 0143 of 2016.

- Consider any relevant guidance provided by the Supreme Court or other higher courts, such as the case of *Kabale Housing Estates Tenants Association v. Kabale Mem L.C CA.15 of 2013*.

➤ **In an existing civil suit, explain how you would Intervene as Counsel under Ugandan Civil Procedure:**

The legal issues involved in intervention as counsel in an existing suit in Uganda can be discussed with reference to the relevant statutory law and case law.

1. Regulation 2(1) of the Advocates (Professional Conduct) Regulations:

- According to this regulation, no advocate is allowed to act for any person unless they have received instructions from that person or their duly authorized agent.

- This provision emphasizes the importance of obtaining proper instructions before representing a client in a legal matter.

2. *OKODOI GEORGE AND ANOR V OKELLO OPAIRE SAM*, HCT-04-CV-MA-0143 OF 2016:

- In this case, Justice Kawesa interpreted Regulation 2(1) and explained its practical meaning.

- The court held that it is the duty of the advocate who has received instructions to take steps to make it known to all parties concerned that they have been duly instructed.

- The prudent practice for an advocate is to file a notice of instruction, informing the court and the opposite counsel of the instructions received.

- In cases where there is a change in instructions, the advocate should file a "notice of change of advocates" to update all parties involved and avoid challenges to the advocate's instructions.

**Procedure for Intervention as Counsel in an Existing Suit:**

1. Inquire from the advocate why the client wants to change their current advocate and gather any other relevant information pertaining to the case and the client's instructions.

2. Draft an engagement letter that outlines the new advocate's agreement with the client, including the scope of representation, fees, and any other terms agreed upon.



3. Prepare and file a notice of change of advocate in the court where the existing suit is ongoing. Serve this notice on the former advocate to notify them and all other parties involved about the change in representation.

4. Draft a notice of instructions, which serves as a formal communication to the court and the opposite counsel, informing them that the new advocate has been duly instructed to represent the client in the existing suit.

5. Compliance with Court Rules:

- When filing the notice of change of advocate and notice of instructions, ensure compliance with the specific rules and procedures of the court where the suit is pending.
- Review the relevant civil procedure rules and any local court rules to determine the specific requirements for filing and serving such notices.

6. Communication with the Former Advocate:

- It is important to maintain professional communication and courtesy with the former advocate during the transition.
- Notify the former advocate of the client's decision to change counsel and provide them with copies of the filed notices.
- If necessary, coordinate with the former advocate to transfer any relevant case files, documents, or information required for the smooth continuation of the suit.

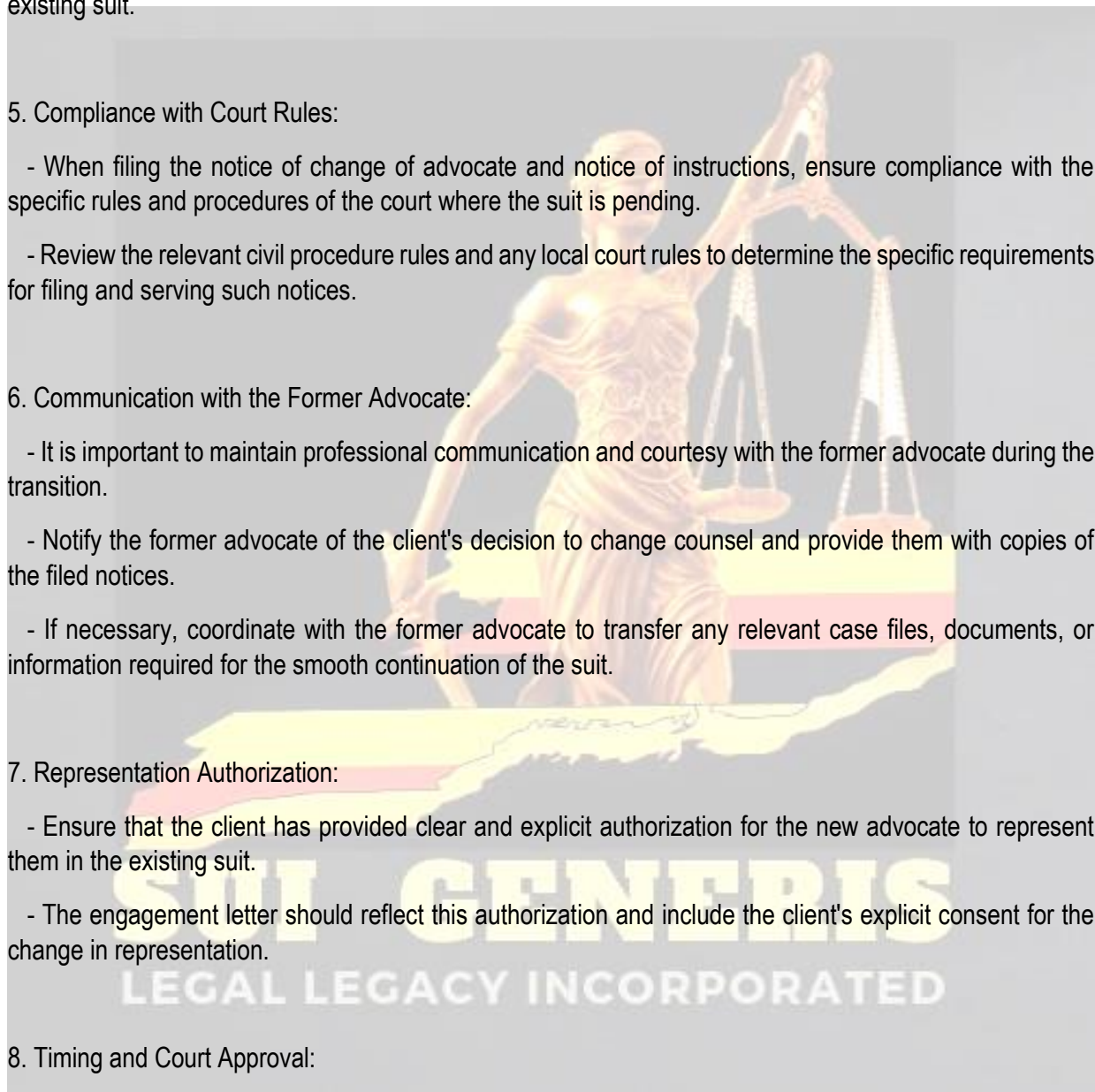
7. Representation Authorization:

- Ensure that the client has provided clear and explicit authorization for the new advocate to represent them in the existing suit.
- The engagement letter should reflect this authorization and include the client's explicit consent for the change in representation.

8. Timing and Court Approval:

- Consider the stage of the proceedings when intervening as counsel in an existing suit.
- Depending on the specific circumstances, it may be necessary to seek court approval or permission for the change of advocate, especially if it may impact the timeline or procedures of the case.

9. Maintaining Continuity and Diligence:



- As the new advocate, it is crucial to familiarize yourself with the case details, court filings, and any pending deadlines or hearings.

- Maintain continuity in the representation by diligently reviewing and understanding the existing pleadings, evidence, and legal arguments put forth in the suit.

#### 10. Professional Conduct and Ethics:

- Adhere to the professional conduct rules and ethics governing advocates in Uganda throughout the intervention process.

- Act in the best interests of the client, maintain confidentiality, and conduct yourself with integrity and professionalism.

➤ **What are The legal issues involved in parties to a suit under Order 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules in Uganda?**

##### 1. Joinder of Parties:

- Order 1, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules allows for the joinder of parties as plaintiffs in a suit if they have a right to relief arising out of the same transaction or series of acts or transactions.

- The legal issue here involves determining whether the parties seeking relief have a sufficient connection to the same transaction or series of acts or transactions to justify their joinder as plaintiffs in one suit.

##### 2. Common Questions of Law or Fact:

- Order 1, Rule 1 also states that parties can be joined as plaintiffs if there would be a common question of law or fact arising if separate suits were brought.

- The legal issue is to determine whether there are common questions of law or fact among the parties that warrant their joinder in one suit.

##### 3. Joinder of Defendants:

- Order 1, Rule 3 allows for the joinder of defendants in one suit if they have a right to relief arising out of the same transaction or series of acts or transactions.

- The legal issue involves determining whether the defendants are connected to the same transaction or series of acts or transactions, such that they can be joined as defendants in one suit.

##### 4. Parties with Special Status:

- The discussion in this part of the study focuses on parties with special status, such as minors (individuals under the age of majority), numerous persons (a large group of individuals), companies, clubs, etc.

- The legal issues involve understanding how these special parties can sue or be sued and the specific procedural requirements or considerations that may apply to them.

## 5. Pleadings:

- Another legal issue is related to pleadings, specifically how parties, including minors, numerous persons, companies, clubs, etc., present their claims or defenses in the suit.

- There may be specific rules or guidelines for pleading that apply to different types of parties, and understanding and complying with these rules is crucial.

It's important to note that the application and interpretation of Order 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules may vary depending on the specific facts and circumstances of each case.

**The legal issues involved in parties to a suit under Order 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules in Uganda can be discussed as follows:**

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- There may be specific rules or guidelines for pleading that apply to different types of parties, and understanding and complying with these rules is crucial.

#### 6. Capacity to Sue or be Sued:

- Parties must have the legal capacity to sue or be sued in order to be valid parties to a suit.
- This raises legal issues surrounding the capacity of minors, individuals with mental incapacity, corporations, and other entities to be parties to a suit.

#### 7. Representation of Parties:

- Parties who lack the capacity to sue or be sued on their own, such as minors or individuals with mental incapacity, may require legal representation or some guardian ad litem appointed by the court.
- The legal issue here is to ensure proper representation of parties who cannot represent themselves independently.

#### 8. Necessary and Proper Parties:

- Determining who are necessary and proper parties to a suit is an important legal issue.
- Necessary parties are those who have a direct interest in the subject matter of the suit and must be included for a complete and effective resolution of the dispute.
- Proper parties are those who have an interest in the subject matter, but their absence will not prevent the court from granting relief.
- Failure to include necessary parties can lead to a legal issue of incomplete or ineffective adjudication of the dispute.

#### 9. Service of Process:

- Once parties have been joined in a suit, the legal issue arises regarding the proper service of process on all parties involved.
- Service of process ensures that all parties are aware of the proceedings against them and have an opportunity to respond.

#### 10. Identification and Verification of Parties:

- In some cases, especially with numerous persons or entities, it may be necessary to properly identify and verify the parties involved.
- This can involve conducting due diligence to ensure the correct identification and representation of parties in the suit.

#### 11. Misjoinder and Nonjoinder of Parties:

- Misjoinder occurs when parties are improperly joined in a suit, either because they do not have a right to relief arising from the same transaction or series of acts, or because there are no common questions of law or fact.
- Nonjoinder, on the other hand, refers to the failure to include necessary parties in a suit.
- The legal issue here involves identifying instances of misjoinder or nonjoinder and taking appropriate steps to address them, such as seeking amendment of the pleadings or making necessary applications to the court.

#### 12. Substitution of Parties:

- In certain situations, it may be necessary to substitute parties to a suit, such as when there is a change in the legal status or capacity of a party, or if a party dies or transfers their interest during the course of the proceedings.
- The legal issue involves understanding the rules and procedures for substituting parties and ensuring that the substitution is done in accordance with the law and court requirements.

#### 13. Consolidation or Separate Trials:

- When multiple suits involve common questions of law or fact, parties may seek consolidation of the suits into one proceeding or request separate trials for specific issues.
- The legal issue here is to determine whether consolidation or separate trials are appropriate, considering the efficiency of the proceedings, judicial resources, and the rights of the parties involved.

#### 14. Indemnity and Contribution:

- In cases where multiple defendants are joined in a suit, issues of indemnity and contribution may arise.
- Indemnity involves one defendant seeking full reimbursement from another defendant for any liability or damages awarded in the suit.
- Contribution refers to the sharing of liability or damages among multiple defendants based on their proportionate fault.
- The legal issue involves addressing claims for indemnity or contribution among the parties and determining their rights and obligations in relation to each other.

#### 15. Costs and Expenses:

- The issue of costs and expenses incurred by parties to the suit can arise, including legal fees, court fees, and other expenses.
- The legal issue involves determining the allocation of costs among the parties, including whether one party should bear the entire cost or if it should be apportioned between the parties based on the outcome of the suit.

- **Corporations or entities have a lot of legal issues involved in suits by or against other corporations or even individuals, mention their ability to sue or be sued as provided for in Order 29 of the Civil Procedure Rules in Uganda.:**

#### 1. Authority to Sue or be Sued:

- A legal issue arises concerning the authority of a corporation to sue or be sued in its own name.
- It is important to establish whether the corporation has the legal capacity and authority to initiate or defend a legal action.

#### 2. Representation of the Corporation:

- Order 29, Rule 1 provides that any pleading on behalf of the corporation may be signed by the secretary or any director or other principal officer who can depose to the facts of the case.
- The legal issue here involves determining who has the authority to represent the corporation and sign the pleadings on its behalf.

#### 3. Identification of the Corporation:

- The issue of properly identifying the corporation in the pleadings and court documents arises.



- It is essential to accurately state the full legal name and any registered business names of the corporation to ensure clarity and avoid confusion.

#### 4. Service of Process:

- The legal issue of proper service of process on the corporation arises.
- Service of process ensures that the corporation is properly notified of the legal proceedings and has an opportunity to respond.

#### 5. Choice of Forum:

- The forum for suits involving corporations is the High Court in Uganda, as the Civil Procedure Rules apply to the High Court by virtue of section 1 of the Civil Procedure Act.
- The legal issue is to determine the appropriate jurisdiction and venue for the suit within the High Court system.

#### 6. Procedural Considerations:

- The procedure for filing suits by or against corporations may vary depending on the specific facts of each case.
- Legal issues arise in determining the appropriate procedural mechanism, such as an ordinary plaint, specially endorsed plaint, summary procedure, miscellaneous applications or causes, or originating summons, depending on the circumstances and the specific provisions of the Civil Procedure Rules.

#### 7. Documentation:

- The legal issues involve the preparation and submission of various documents, including the plaint, written statement of defense, specially endorsed plaint accompanied by an affidavit, notice of motion supported by an affidavit, chamber summons supported by an affidavit, or originating summons.
- It is important to comply with the specific requirements for each document as set out in the relevant rules and regulations.

#### 8. Corporate Liability and Responsibility:

- A key legal issue involves determining the liability and responsibility of the corporation for the actions or omissions that form the basis of the suit.
- This includes identifying whether the corporation can be held directly liable or whether it is vicariously liable for the actions of its employees, agents, or representatives.

## 9. Shareholder and Director Liability:

- In certain cases, legal issues may arise concerning the potential personal liability of shareholders or directors of the corporation.

- This includes piercing the corporate veil, where the court disregards the separate legal personality of the corporation and holds shareholders or directors personally liable for the corporation's obligations or wrongdoing.

## 10. Discovery and Production of Documents:

- Parties involved in suits by or against corporations may seek discovery of relevant documents that are in the possession, custody, or control of the corporation.

- Legal issues may arise concerning the scope of discovery, privilege claims, and the obligations of the corporation to provide requested documents.

## 11. Corporate Governance and Compliance:

- Legal issues can arise related to corporate governance and compliance with statutory requirements and regulations.

- This includes examining whether the corporation has adhered to legal formalities, such as holding board meetings, maintaining accurate records, and complying with reporting and disclosure obligations.

## 12. Dissolution and Winding-Up:

- In some cases, suits involving corporations may be influenced by the possibility of dissolution or winding-up of the corporation.

- Legal issues can arise concerning the effect of ongoing litigation on the dissolution or winding-up process and the distribution of assets and liabilities.

## 13. Enforcement of Judgments:

- If a judgment is obtained against a corporation, legal issues may arise concerning the enforcement of the judgment and the satisfaction of the awarded damages or remedies.

- This includes identifying the assets of the corporation that can be seized or utilized for satisfying the judgment.

## 14. Costs and Expenses:

- The issue of costs and expenses incurred by the parties involved in the suit, including legal fees and court fees, is significant.

- Legal issues may arise concerning the allocation of costs between the parties, including whether the corporation should bear the entire cost or if it should be apportioned based on the outcome of the suit.

#### 15. Capacity to Sue or be Sued:

- A legal issue arises in determining whether the corporation has the legal capacity to sue or be sued.
- This involves examining the corporate structure, registration status, and compliance with legal requirements to establish the corporation's capacity.

#### 16. Jurisdictional Issues:

- Legal issues may arise concerning jurisdiction, particularly if the corporation operates in multiple jurisdictions or if there are questions regarding the appropriate forum for the suit.
- It is important to determine the court's jurisdiction and ensure that the suit is filed in the correct jurisdiction.

#### 17. Corporate Immunity and Privileges:

- In certain circumstances, corporations may enjoy immunity or privileges, such as diplomatic immunity or legal privileges associated with specific industries or activities.
- The legal issue involves identifying any applicable immunity or privileges and their potential impact on the suit.

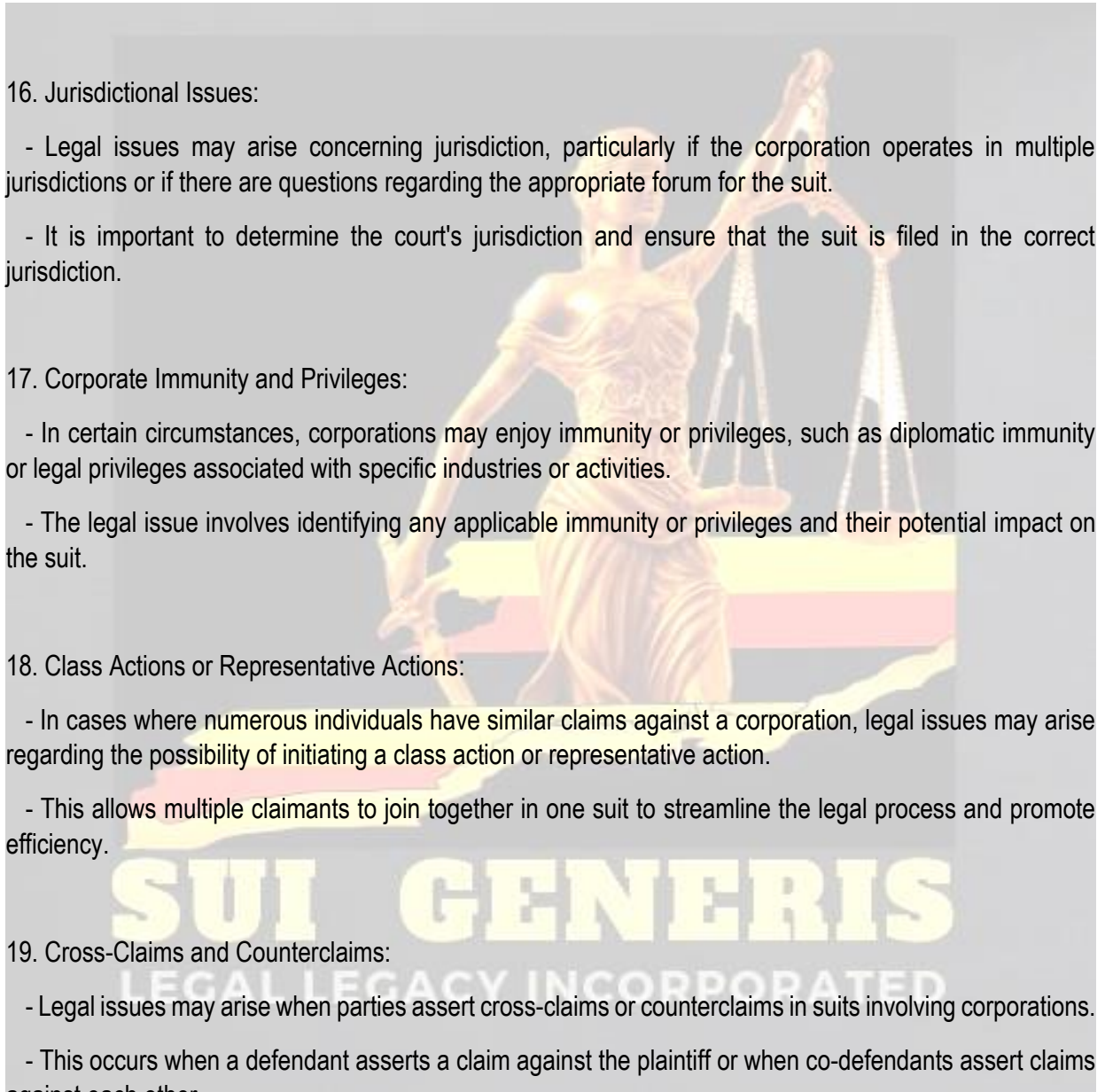
#### 18. Class Actions or Representative Actions:

- In cases where numerous individuals have similar claims against a corporation, legal issues may arise regarding the possibility of initiating a class action or representative action.
- This allows multiple claimants to join together in one suit to streamline the legal process and promote efficiency.

#### 19. Cross-Claims and Counterclaims:

- Legal issues may arise when parties assert cross-claims or counterclaims in suits involving corporations.
- This occurs when a defendant asserts a claim against the plaintiff or when co-defendants assert claims against each other.
- The legal issue involves assessing the validity and admissibility of these cross-claims or counterclaims.

#### 20. Discovery of Corporate Records:





- Parties involved in suits by or against corporations may seek access to corporate records or documents for the purpose of discovery.

- Legal issues may arise regarding the scope of discovery and the extent to which the corporation is required to disclose relevant documents.

## 21. Resolving Disputes through Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR):

- Legal issues may arise concerning the possibility of using alternative dispute resolution methods, such as mediation or arbitration, to resolve disputes involving corporations.

- This allows parties to seek a resolution outside of traditional court proceedings, potentially saving time and costs.

## 22. Enforcement of Foreign Judgments:

- If a judgment is obtained against a corporation in a foreign jurisdiction, legal issues may arise concerning the enforcement of that judgment in Uganda.

- The legal issue involves determining the requirements and procedures for recognizing and enforcing foreign judgments against the corporation.

**In suits by or against firms or persons carrying on business in names other than their own, governed by Order 30 of the Civil Procedure Rules in Uganda, there are several legal issues to consider. Here are some specific legal authorities that can provide insights into these issues:**

### 1. Identity of Partners and Proper Representation:

- A key legal issue is determining the identity of the partners in the firm at the time of the cause of action and ensuring proper representation in the suit.

- In the case of *Kakooza John Livingstone and Another v. Rusoke Abdalla*, SCCA No. 24 of 1992, the Supreme Court of Uganda held that it is necessary to establish the identity of the partners at the relevant time for the firm to sue or be sued.

### 2. Requirement to Disclose Partner Names and Addresses:

- Rule 1 of Order 30 of the Civil Procedure Rules mandates the disclosure of the names and addresses of all partners constituting the firm at the time of the cause of action.

- Failure to comply with this requirement may result in a stay of the proceedings. This is affirmed in the case of *Abdu Nasser Katuntu and Others v. Sumadhura Developers Ltd.*, HCCS No. 113 of 2009, where the court emphasized the need for proper disclosure of partner names and addresses.

### 3. Application for Statement of Names and Addresses:

- Any party to a suit may apply to the court for a statement of the names and addresses of the partners who were part of the firm at the time of the cause of action.

- The court may direct the furnishing and verification of this statement. The procedure for such application is outlined in Rule 1 of Order 30.

- The case of *Lwanyaga, Ssali & Co. Advocates v. Alcon International Ltd. and Others*, HCCS No. 283 of 2004, highlights the court's authority to order the disclosure of partner names and addresses.

### 4. Mode of Instituting Pleadings:

- The default mode of instituting pleadings in suits by or against firms is by ordinary plaint under Order 4, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

- However, if the suit involves the dissolution of the partnership or the taking of accounts and winding up of the partnership, it may be brought by way of originating summons under Order 37, Rule 5.

- The case of *Katamba Kenneth Mulema v. Uganda Revenue Authority and Another*, HCCS No. 89 of 2014, illustrates the use of an originating summons in a partnership dissolution matter.

### 5. Liability of Partners:

- An important legal issue is determining the liability of individual partners in the firm for the obligations and liabilities of the business.

- The general principle is that partners are jointly and severally liable for the acts, debts, and obligations of the firm.

- The case of *Rajesh V. Patel v. Karsan Patel and Others*, HCCS No. 143 of 2012, discusses the liability of partners in a partnership dispute.

### 6. Dissolution and Winding Up:

- If the purpose of the suit is to dissolve the partnership or to take accounts and wind up the partnership, specific legal issues arise regarding the process of dissolution and the distribution of assets and liabilities.

- The Partnership Act, Cap 98, provides the legal framework for dissolution and winding up of partnerships in Uganda.

### 7. Admission or Denial of Partnership:

- Legal issues may arise when a party denies the existence of a partnership or contests the status of individuals as partners in the firm.

- The court may need to determine the existence and nature of the partnership based on the evidence presented by the parties.

- The case of Emmanuel Mwaka v. John Baptist Mulangira and Another, HCCS No. 539 of 2011, discusses the burden of proof in establishing the existence of a partnership.

#### 8. Dispute Resolution Mechanisms:

- Parties involved in suits by or against firms may explore alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, such as mediation or arbitration, to resolve their disputes.

- It is important to consider whether the partnership agreement or any applicable contract includes provisions for alternative dispute resolution.

- The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, Cap 4, provides the legal framework for arbitration in Uganda.

#### 9. Enforcement of Judgments:

- Once a judgment is obtained in a suit by or against a firm, legal issues may arise concerning the enforcement of the judgment.

- It is essential to understand the procedures and requirements for enforcing judgments against partnerships, including the potential liability of individual partners.

- The Civil Procedure Act, Cap 71, provides guidance on the enforcement of judgments in Uganda.

#### 10. Authority of Partners to Bind the Firm:

- One crucial legal issue is determining the authority of individual partners to bind the firm through their actions, contracts, or representations.

- The partnership agreement or relevant laws may outline the scope of a partner's authority and the extent to which their actions can legally bind the firm.

- The case of Joseph Kasaala v. Uganda Coffee Development Authority, HCCS No. 453 of 2010, discusses the authority of partners and their power to bind the partnership.

#### 11. Partnership Dissolution Disputes:

- In cases where there is a dispute regarding the dissolution of a partnership, legal issues may arise concerning the grounds for dissolution, the distribution of assets and liabilities, and the settlement of disputes among partners.

- The Partnership Act, Cap 98, provides guidance on the rights and obligations of partners during the dissolution process.

#### 12. Personal Liability of Partners:



- While partners are generally jointly and severally liable for the firm's obligations, there may be legal issues related to exceptions or limitations on personal liability.

- For instance, if a partner has limited liability status, their personal liability may be restricted to a specific amount or limited to the capital invested in the firm.

- The case of *Rehmat Karim Haji v. Buganda Coffee Dealers and Exporters Ltd.*, HCCS No. 332 of 2007, discusses the concept of limited liability and the personal liability of partners.

### 13. Registration and Compliance:

- Legal issues may arise if the firm is not properly registered or fails to comply with regulatory requirements.

- It is important to ensure that the firm is registered with the relevant authorities and complies with legal obligations, such as filing annual returns and maintaining proper books of accounts.

- The Companies Act, Cap 110, and other relevant laws provide guidelines on registration and compliance for different types of business entities.

### 14. Disputes among Partners:

- In suits involving firms, disputes among partners may arise, such as disputes over profit sharing, decision-making, or breach of partnership agreements.

- Legal issues may involve the resolution of these internal disputes and the determination of the rights and obligations of partners.

- The Partnership Act, Cap 98, and the firm's partnership agreement can guide the resolution of such disputes.

- **What happens in suits by or against trustees, executors, and administrators, there are several legal issues to consider. Kindly highlight them with relevant legal authorities:**

#### 1. Representation of Beneficial Interests:

- Rule 1 of Order 31 provides that trustees, executors, or administrators represent the persons who are beneficially interested in the property in dispute.

- The court may order the beneficiaries to be made parties to the suit if it deems it necessary.

- The case of *Executors of the Estate of the Late Paulo Lutaaya v. Godfrey Male*, HCCS No. 127 of 2013, discusses the representation of beneficial interests by trustees, executors, or administrators.

#### 2. Addition of Parties:

- Rule 4 of Order 31 allows an individual to apply to the court to add other persons as parties to the suit, provided they are not trustees, executors, or administrators.

- The application is made through a chamber summons supported by an affidavit stating the reasons for adding those individuals as parties.

- The case of *Re Estate of Mayanja Kibirige*, HCMC No. 327 of 2015, addresses the addition of parties in suits involving trustees, executors, or administrators.

### 3. Originating Summons:

- Trustees, executors, administrators, or any person claiming relief as a creditor, devisee, legatee, heir, or legal representative may initiate the suit by way of originating summons.

- An originating summons is used to determine specific questions regarding the rights or interests of such persons.

- Order 37 of the Civil Procedure Rules provides the rules and procedures for originating summons.

- The case of *Mutuwa Stephen v. Estate of the Late Ndimbirwe*, HCMC No. 11 of 2019, discusses the use of originating summons in suits involving trustees and legal representatives.

### 4. Duties and Liabilities of Trustees, Executors, and Administrators:

- Trustees, executors, and administrators have specific duties and responsibilities in managing and distributing the assets of an estate or trust.

- They are required to act in the best interests of the beneficiaries and comply with applicable laws and legal obligations.

- Breach of these duties can lead to legal liabilities and potential claims against the trustees, executors, or administrators.

- The case of *Ssempe & Ors v. Executor and Trustee of the Estate of the Late Feliciano Buzirabwenda*, HCMA No. 711 of 2014, discusses the duties and liabilities of trustees in Uganda.

### 5. Distribution of Assets and Claims by Creditors:

- In suits involving trustees, executors, or administrators, the distribution of assets to beneficiaries and handling of claims by creditors may be a crucial issue.

- The court has the authority to determine the validity and priority of claims and oversee the proper distribution of assets.

- Rules governing the administration and distribution of assets by trustees, executors, or administrators should be followed.

- The case of *Nabirye v. Ssekandi & Ors*, HCCS No. 208 of 2009, addresses the distribution of assets and the rights of creditors in suits involving trustees or executors.

## 6. Accountings and Settlement of Estates:

- Trustees, executors, and administrators may be required to provide accountings and reports of their administration of the estate or trust.

- The court may order an inquiry into the accounts and administration of the estate or trust to ensure proper management and transparency.

- Settlement of estates may involve the determination of inheritance rights, disputes over assets, and resolution of conflicting claims.

- The case of *Kamulegeya v. Nalongo Nangobi*, HCMA No. 107 of 2016, discusses the accounting and settlement of estates by executors.

## 7. Appointment and Removal of Trustees, Executors, and Administrators:

- The process of appointing and removing trustees, executors, or administrators may be a legal issue in these suits.

- The court has the power to appoint or remove trustees, executors, or administrators if necessary, based on the circumstances of the case.

- The suitability, competence, and integrity of the appointed individuals may be considered during this process.

- The case of *Nambo v. Musoke*, HCCS No. 1129 of 2013, provides an example of a dispute regarding the appointment of an executor.

## 8. Interpretation of Trusts or Wills:

- In suits involving trustees, executors, or administrators, the interpretation of trusts or wills may be a significant legal issue.

- Disputes may arise regarding the intentions or terms of the trust or will, and the court may be required to interpret its provisions.

- The court will strive to give effect to the testator's intentions and resolve any ambiguities or conflicts in the trust or will.

- The case of *Oyite-Ojok v. Administrator General*, HCCS No. 16 of 2016, addresses the interpretation of a will in a suit involving an administrator.

## 9. Breach of Fiduciary Duties and Mismanagement:

- Trustees, executors, and administrators owe fiduciary duties to the beneficiaries or heirs of an estate or trust.



- Breach of these duties, such as mismanagement of assets or self-dealing, can be raised as a legal issue in these suits.

- Beneficiaries or heirs may seek remedies for breach of fiduciary duties, including removal of the trustee, executor, or administrator and damages.

- The case of *Nandawula v. Attorney General & Anor*, HCCS No. 194 of 2015, discusses the breach of fiduciary duties by an administrator.

#### 10. Distribution of Assets and Disputes over Beneficiary Rights:

- One of the key functions of trustees, executors, and administrators is the distribution of assets to the beneficiaries or heirs.

- Disputes may arise regarding the proper distribution of assets, including disagreements over the identification of beneficiaries, their respective shares, or the valuation of assets.

- The court may need to intervene to resolve these disputes and ensure fair and equitable distribution among the interested parties.

- The case of *Estate of Lutwama v. Buganda Land Board & Anor*, HCCS No. 435 of 2015, deals with a dispute over the distribution of land assets by an administrator.

#### 11. Claims against the Estate or Trust:

- In suits involving trustees, executors, or administrators, claims may be made against the estate or trust by creditors, beneficiaries, or other parties.

- The court may need to determine the validity and priority of these claims and assess the available assets for their satisfaction.

- The case of *Gidudu v. Sserunkuma & Ors*, HCCS No. 577 of 2017, addresses a dispute over competing claims against an estate by different creditors.

#### 12. Removal of Trustees, Executors, or Administrators:

- If a trustee, executor, or administrator is found to have breached their duties, acted improperly, or become incapable of fulfilling their role, their removal may be sought.

- The court has the authority to remove a trustee, executor, or administrator and appoint a suitable replacement to ensure the proper administration of the estate or trust.

- The case of *Nankya v. Administrator General*, HCCS No. 456 of 2014, involves the removal of an administrator for misconduct.

#### 13. Accounting and Financial Reporting:

- Trustees, executors, and administrators have a duty to maintain accurate accounting records and provide financial reports to the beneficiaries or heirs.

- Disputes may arise if there are concerns about the accuracy or completeness of the accounting and financial information provided.

- The court may require the trustee, executor, or administrator to produce detailed accounts and financial reports for scrutiny.

- The case of *Semwogerere v. Solicitor General & Anor*, HCCS No. 1252 of 2013, involves a dispute over the adequacy of accounting records provided by an executor.

#### 14. Breach of Fiduciary Duties:

- Trustees, executors, and administrators owe fiduciary duties to the beneficiaries or heirs, which include loyalty, prudence, and acting in the best interests of the estate or trust.

- Breaches of fiduciary duties may occur, such as mismanagement of assets, self-dealing, conflicts of interest, or failure to act in a timely manner.

- Beneficiaries or interested parties can bring legal actions to hold trustees, executors, or administrators accountable for breach of their fiduciary duties.

- The case of *Attorney General v. James Mulwana (Estate of James Mulwana)*, HCCS No. 104 of 2014, deals with allegations of breach of fiduciary duties by an executor.

#### 15. Determination of Testamentary Capacity:

- In suits involving wills, the court may be required to determine the testamentary capacity of the testator at the time of making the will.

- If there are doubts or disputes about the mental capacity of the testator, medical evidence and expert opinions may be sought to establish whether the testator had the necessary capacity to make a valid will.

- The case of *Kyobe v. Nakityo*, HCCS No. 523 of 2015, involves a dispute over the validity of a will based on the testator's testamentary capacity.

#### 16. Interpretation of Trust or Will Provisions:

- Trust documents or wills may contain provisions that require interpretation to determine the intentions of the settlor or testator.

- Disputes may arise regarding the meaning or scope of certain provisions, leading to the need for the court to interpret those provisions and give effect to the settlor's or testator's intentions.

- The case of *Nakadama v. John Mbazira*, HCCS No. 1011 of 2016, involves a dispute over the interpretation of a trust document and the beneficiaries' entitlements.

## 17. Settling Disputes between Co-Trustees or Co-Executors:

- In cases where there are multiple trustees or executors, conflicts and disagreements may arise among them regarding the administration of the estate or trust.
- The court may need to intervene and resolve disputes between co-trustees or co-executors, ensuring that decisions are made in the best interests of the estate or trust.
- The case of *Nakato v. Jjemba*, HCCS No. 312 of 2018, deals with a dispute between co-executors regarding the sale of estate property.

### ➤ **What are the legal issues that highlight the intricacies involved in suits by or against trustees, executors, and administrators?**

Breach of fiduciary duties, testamentary capacity, interpretation of trust or will provisions, and resolution of disputes among co-trustees or co-executors require careful legal consideration. Proper legal representation and adherence to relevant laws and case precedents are crucial for a fair and just resolution of these issues.

## 18. Removal or Replacement of Trustees, Executors, or Administrators:

- In certain circumstances, beneficiaries or interested parties may seek the removal or replacement of trustees, executors, or administrators.
- Grounds for removal may include misconduct, mismanagement of assets, failure to fulfill duties, conflicts of interest, or inability to properly carry out their responsibilities.
- The court has the power to remove or replace trustees, executors, or administrators if it is in the best interests of the estate or trust.
- The case of *Mugabi v. Ayebare*, HCCS No. 185 of 2017, involves an application for the removal of a trustee based on allegations of mismanagement and breach of fiduciary duties.

## 19. Distribution of Estate or Trust Assets:

- Suits involving trustees, executors, or administrators may also involve the distribution of estate or trust assets to the beneficiaries or heirs.
- Disputes may arise regarding the proper valuation of assets, identification of beneficiaries or heirs, determination of entitlements, or challenges to the distribution plan.
- The court may need to oversee the distribution process to ensure fairness and compliance with the terms of the trust or will.
- The case of *Ssali v. Nkoba*, HCCS No. 245 of 2015, deals with a dispute over the distribution of estate assets among beneficiaries and the interpretation of the deceased's intentions.



## 20. Accounting and Financial Reporting:

- Trustees, executors, or administrators have a duty to provide accurate and timely accounting and financial reports to the beneficiaries or interested parties.
- Beneficiaries may request an accounting of the estate or trust assets and transactions to ensure transparency and proper administration.
- Disputes may arise if there are concerns about the accuracy or completeness of the accounting, or if there are allegations of mismanagement or embezzlement.
- The case of *Semakula v. Muyanja*, HCCS No. 752 of 2016, involves a claim for an accurate and comprehensive accounting of trust assets and financial transactions.

- **The importance of proper administration, accountability, and the fair distribution of assets in suits involving trustees, executors, and administrators is a very crucial aspect in suits. It involves the removal or replacement of fiduciaries, distribution of assets, and accounting and financial reporting play a significant role in ensuring that the interests of beneficiaries or heirs are protected. Legal expertise and adherence to applicable laws and regulations are crucial in navigating these complex issues. Can you give us a highlight of the above?**

## 1. Next Friend Representation:

- A suit by a minor must be instituted in the minor's name but is represented by a person called the "next friend" of the minor.
- The next friend may be a parent, guardian, or any other suitable person appointed by the court.
- If the next friend is an advocate, a written authority must be signed and filed with the plaint.
- The case of *Kasule & Another v. Allan Mugisha*, HCT-00-CV-MA-0646 of 2019, discusses the requirement of a written authority when an advocate acts as a next friend for a minor.

## 2. Appointment of Guardian ad Litem:

- If the defendant is a minor, the court may appoint guardian ad litem to represent the minor's interests in the proceedings.
- The guardian ad litem is a person appointed by the court to protect the rights and interests of the minor.
- An application for the appointment of a guardian ad litem can be made by the minor, the plaintiff, or on the court's own motion.
- The case of *Nantaba v. Nansubuga & Another*, HCCS No. 432 of 2018, involves the appointment of a guardian ad litem for a minor defendant.

## 3. Suit Dismissal for Lack of Next Friend:

- If a suit is brought without a next friend for a minor, the defendant may apply for the plaint to be taken off the file.

- The court will consider the application and make an order as it deems fit, which may include the dismissal of the suit.

- The application is made through a notice of motion under Order 32 Rule 16.

- The case of *Mukisa v. Ondoga*, HCCS No. 47 of 2007, deals with the dismissal of a suit for failure to have a proper next friend.

#### 4. Representation of Persons of Unsound Mind:

- Rules 1-14 of Order 32 also apply to persons of unsound mind, who require representation in legal proceedings.

- The court may appoint a guardian or committee to act on behalf of the person of unsound mind.

- The case of *Tendo v. Kafeero*, HCCS No. 234 of 2016, addresses the appointment of a committee to represent a person of unsound mind.

#### 5. Court Approval for Settlements:

- In cases involving minors or persons of unsound mind, any settlement reached in the suit requires court approval to ensure fairness and protection of their rights.

- The court will assess the terms of the settlement to determine if it is in the best interest of the minor or person of unsound mind.

- The case of *Nakamatte v. Mumbere*, HCT-00-CV-CS-0077 of 2017, discusses the requirement of court approval for a settlement involving a minor.

#### 6. Protection of Assets and Property:

- The court may take steps to protect the assets and property of minors or persons of unsound mind during the litigation process.

- This may involve appointing a trustee or administrator to manage and safeguard their interests.

- The case of *Bukenya v. Serugo & Others*, HCCS No. 379 of 2016, involves the appointment of a trustee to protect the property of a minor.

#### 7. Court's Role in Determining Best Interests:

- When deciding matters related to minors or persons of unsound mind, the court has a duty to act in their best interests.

- The court will consider various factors, including the well-being and welfare of the individual, in making decisions or issuing orders.

- The case of *Kawooya v. Nalubega*, HCCS No. 360 of 2015, highlights the court's responsibility to protect the best interests of a minor in a custody dispute.

#### 8. Admissibility of Evidence:

- In cases involving minors or persons of unsound mind, special considerations may apply to the admissibility of evidence.

- The court may assess the competence and credibility of witnesses, particularly if they are minors or persons with mental disabilities.

- The case of *Nantumbwe v. Kawesa*, HCT-00-CV-SC-0173 of 2018, discusses the admissibility of evidence from a minor witness.

- **Courts must ensure the protection, well-being, and fair treatment of minors and persons of unsound mind throughout legal proceedings. The court's involvement is crucial to safeguard their rights, make decisions in their best interests, and provide necessary protections to their assets and property. Kindly elaborate the courts involvement as regards guardianship.**

#### 1. Appointment of a Guardian:

- In cases involving minors or persons of unsound mind, the court may appoint a guardian to represent their interests and make decisions on their behalf.

- The guardian acts as a legal representative and advocate for the minor or person of unsound mind throughout the litigation process.

- The case of *Tendo v. Musiime*, HCCS No. 253 of 2019, discusses the appointment of a guardian for a minor plaintiff.

#### 2. Limitation Periods:

- Limitation periods for filing a suit may be different when it involves a minor or a person of unsound mind.

- The court may allow for extensions or tolling of the limitation period to ensure that their rights are not prejudiced due to their incapacity.

- The case of *Namukose v. Kawule*, HCCS No. 462 of 2018, addresses the issue of limitation periods in a suit involving a minor.



### 3. Special Court Procedures:

- The court may adopt special procedures to accommodate the needs of minors or persons of unsound mind during the litigation process.
- This may include allowing for testimonies to be taken in a more informal setting or utilizing alternative methods of communication.
- The case of *Ochieng v. Ochieng*, HCCS No. 718 of 2017, discusses the use of special court procedures to accommodate a person of unsound mind.

### 4. Appointment of an Amicus Curiae:

- In complex cases involving minors or persons of unsound mind, the court may appoint an amicus curiae (friend of the court) to provide expert advice and assistance.
- The amicus curiae can help the court understand the specific needs and considerations involved in the case.
- The case of *Ndagire v. Nakafeero*, HCCS No. 345 of 2016, involves the appointment of an amicus curiae in a suit concerning the interests of a minor.

### 5. Best Interests of the Minor or Person of Unsound Mind:

- The court has a duty to consider and prioritize the best interests of the minor or person of unsound mind when making decisions related to the suit.
- The court may take into account factors such as their welfare, care, and protection in determining the appropriate course of action.
- The case of *Kato v. Nsereko*, HCCS No. 512 of 2020, discusses the court's duty to consider the best interests of a minor in a custody dispute.

### 6. Capacity and Competency Assessments:

- In cases involving persons of unsound mind, the court may order assessments or evaluations to determine their capacity to understand and participate in the legal proceedings.
- These assessments help the court make informed decisions about their representation and the need for additional support.
- The case of *Nalweyiso v. Attorney General*, HCCS No. 245 of 2019, addresses the issue of capacity assessments in a suit involving a person of unsound mind.

### 7. Protection of Assets and Settlements:

- The court may implement safeguards to protect the assets, settlements, or awards obtained on behalf of minors or persons of unsound mind.

- This can include the appointment of a trustee or the establishment of a trust to ensure that the funds or assets are managed and used for their benefit.

- The case of Nakato v. Kakooza, HCCS No. 632 of 2018, discusses the court's role in protecting the assets of a minor through the appointment of a trustee.

#### 5. Role of the Court in Consent Decrees:

- When entering into consent decrees or settlements involving minors or persons of unsound mind, the court must review and approve the terms to ensure they are fair and in the best interests of the individual.

- The court acts as a safeguard to prevent exploitation or unfair agreements that may prejudice the rights of the minor or person of unsound mind.

- The case of Ssebunya v. Kintu, HCCS No. 912 of 2017, addresses the court's role in reviewing and approving consent decrees involving minors.

**Explain additional legal issues emphasize the importance of protecting the rights and interests of minors and persons of unsound mind throughout the litigation process. The court plays a crucial role in ensuring their well-being, making decisions in their best interests, and safeguarding their assets and settlements.**

#### 1. Appointment of a Guardian ad Litem:

- In cases involving minors or persons of unsound mind, the court may appoint guardian ad litem to represent their interests and ensure their rights are protected.

- The guardian ad litem acts as a legal representative and advocate for the minor or person of unsound mind throughout the proceedings.

- The case of Kabenge v. Estate of Late Enock Serunjogi, HCCS No. 432 of 2019, discusses the appointment of a guardian ad litem in a suit involving a minor.

#### 2. Limitations on Actions:

- There may be specific limitations on the time within which a suit can be brought on behalf of a minor or person of unsound mind.

- It is important to be aware of any applicable statutes of limitations or other time restrictions that may affect the filing of the suit.

- The case of Kaggwa v. Sentamu, HCCS No. 789 of 2016, discusses the issue of limitations on actions involving minors.

#### 3. Court's Power to Settle:

- The court has the power to settle suits involving minors or persons of unsound mind to ensure their interests are protected and a fair resolution is achieved.

- The court may exercise its discretion to approve settlements, compromises, or agreements on behalf of the minor or person of unsound mind.

- The case of *Namubiru v. Nakawunde*, HCCS No. 345 of 2020, addresses the court's power to settle a suit involving a minor and the factors considered in determining the fairness of the settlement.

#### 4. Review of Judgments and Orders:

- Judgments or orders made in suits involving minors or persons of unsound mind may be subject to review by the court.

- This review ensures that the minor or person of unsound mind was adequately represented, and their rights and interests were properly considered.

- The case of *Ssempijja v. Nsamba*, HCCS No. 567 of 2018, discusses the review of a judgment in a suit involving a minor.

These additional legal issues highlight the need for careful consideration of the rights, representation, and protection of minors and persons of unsound mind in civil suits. The court's role is crucial in safeguarding their interests, ensuring fair outcomes, and reviewing decisions to prevent any potential harm or injustice.

**When it comes to suits by paupers, there are several legal issues to consider. Here are some important points:**

#### 1. Definition of a Pauper:

- A pauper is defined as a person who lacks sufficient means to pay the prescribed court fees for filing a suit.

- The applicant must demonstrate their inability to pay the fees in their application for permission to sue as a pauper.

#### 2. Application for Permission to Sue as a Pauper:

- An application for permission to sue as a pauper must contain the necessary particulars required for a regular plaint in a suit.

- It should also include a statement declaring the pauper's inability to pay the prescribed fees.

#### 3. Disclosure of Assets:

- The application for permission to sue as a pauper must disclose all assets of the applicant.
- Failure to disclose assets or lack of bona fides can result in the rejection of the application.
- The case of Sailkupa Co-op Society v. Jahangir (1957) 9 DLR 412 emphasizes the need for full disclosure of assets in such applications.

#### 4. Court's Discretion and Balancing of Interests:

- The court has discretion in granting permission to sue as a pauper, based on reasonable grounds.
- While only the poor are allowed to apply as paupers, the court must strike a balance between the interests of the indigent applicant and those seeking a just resolution of their disputes.
- The burden of proof lies with the applicant to candidly reveal their financial status.

#### 5. Recovery of Court Fees:

- If the pauper succeeds in the suit, the court will calculate the amount of court fees that would have been paid.
- The court fees are recoverable from any party ordered by the decree to pay it and become a first charge on the subject matter of the suit.

#### 6. Procedure:

- The application for permission to sue as a pauper is made by way of a motion on notice under Order 52 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules.
- The applicant must submit a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit stating their pauper status.

It is important to note that the forum for suits by paupers is the High Court, as the Civil Procedure Rules apply to the High Court by virtue of the Civil Procedure Act. The High Court has unlimited jurisdiction and can handle matters of this nature effectively.

The legal issues involved in suits by paupers revolve around the applicant's financial status, disclosure of assets, court's discretion, and the recovery of court fees. The court plays a vital role in assessing the merits of the application and ensuring that justice is served while balancing the interests of all parties involved.

#### 7. Examination of the Application:

- The court will examine the application for permission to sue as a pauper to determine whether the applicant meets the criteria of being a pauper.



- The court may require additional evidence or clarification from the applicant if necessary.

#### 8. Legal Aid and Representation:

- Paupers may seek legal aid or representation to assist them in the litigation process.
- Legal aid organizations or pro bono services can provide assistance to paupers in filing and presenting their case effectively.

#### 9. Costs and Expenses:

- As paupers are exempted from paying court fees, they may also be exempted from other costs and expenses related to the litigation process.
- This can include costs such as stamp duty, process server fees, and other incidental expenses.

#### 10. Role of the Next Friend:

- In the case of a minor or a person of unsound mind, a next friend is appointed to represent their interests in the suit.
- The next friend acts on behalf of the pauper and takes responsibility for the legal proceedings.

#### 11. Review and Dismissal of Pauper Status:

- At any stage of the suit, if it is found that the pauper's status has changed, or they are no longer eligible to continue as a pauper, the court may review their status.
- If the court determines that the pauper is no longer eligible, they may be required to pay the court fees and other costs associated with the suit.

#### 12. Access to Justice:

- Suits by paupers serve as an important mechanism for ensuring access to justice for individuals who cannot afford the usual costs of litigation.
- It provides an opportunity for marginalized and economically disadvantaged individuals to seek legal remedies and have their grievances addressed.

- **Kindly breakdown on the procedure to follow the specific procedures outlined in Order 33 of the Civil Procedure Rules and adhere to the court's directions regarding suits by paupers. The court's role is to ensure that justice is accessible to all, including those who are unable to pay the prescribed fees.**

Legal issues in suits by paupers can be summarized as follows:

1. Eligibility: A pauper is defined as a person who does not possess sufficient means to pay the prescribed court fees for the suit.

2. Application for Permission: The pauper must file an application for permission to sue as a pauper, including the required particulars and a statement of inability to pay the fees.

3. Disclosure of Assets: The application must disclose all assets, and failure to do so may lead to rejection of the application.

4. Court's Discretion: The court exercises its discretion based on reasonable grounds to grant permission for a pauper suit, taking into account the interests of both the pauper and fair adjudication of disputes.

5. Burden of Proof: The burden of proof lies on the applicant to candidly disclose their status as a pauper and demonstrate their eligibility for the pauper suit.

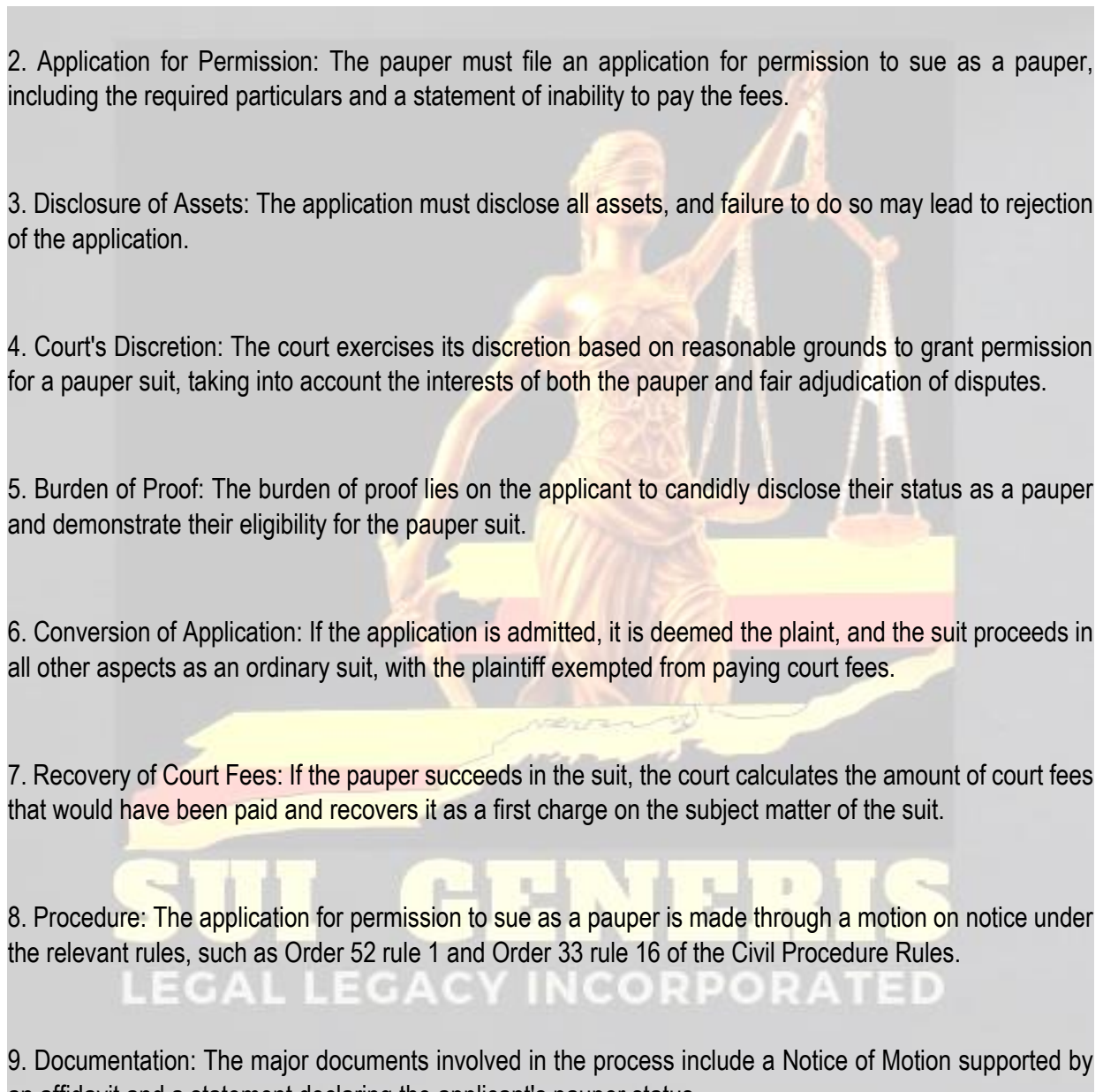
6. Conversion of Application: If the application is admitted, it is deemed the plaint, and the suit proceeds in all other aspects as an ordinary suit, with the plaintiff exempted from paying court fees.

7. Recovery of Court Fees: If the pauper succeeds in the suit, the court calculates the amount of court fees that would have been paid and recovers it as a first charge on the subject matter of the suit.

8. Procedure: The application for permission to sue as a pauper is made through a motion on notice under the relevant rules, such as Order 52 rule 1 and Order 33 rule 16 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

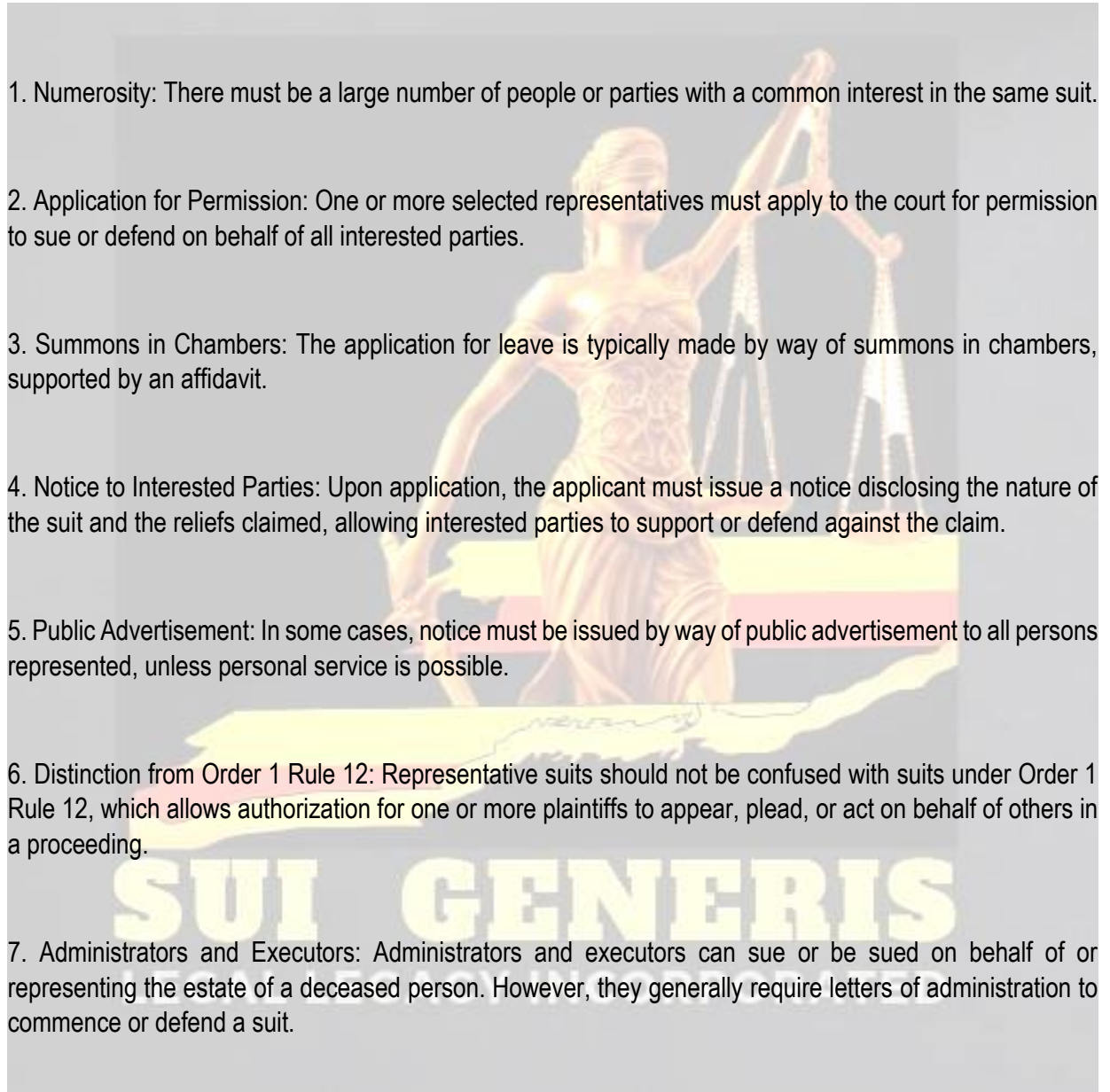
9. Documentation: The major documents involved in the process include a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit and a statement declaring the applicant's pauper status.

10. Forum: Suits by paupers are typically filed in the High Court, which has jurisdiction over such matters according to the Civil Procedure Act.



It is important to adhere to the specific rules and procedures outlined in Order 33 of the Civil Procedure Rules when filing suits by paupers to ensure compliance and seek access to justice for those who cannot afford the usual costs of litigation.

**Explain the Legal issues in representative suits can be summarized as follows:**

- 
1. Numerosity: There must be a large number of people or parties with a common interest in the same suit.
  2. Application for Permission: One or more selected representatives must apply to the court for permission to sue or defend on behalf of all interested parties.
  3. Summons in Chambers: The application for leave is typically made by way of summons in chambers, supported by an affidavit.
  4. Notice to Interested Parties: Upon application, the applicant must issue a notice disclosing the nature of the suit and the reliefs claimed, allowing interested parties to support or defend against the claim.
  5. Public Advertisement: In some cases, notice must be issued by way of public advertisement to all persons represented, unless personal service is possible.
  6. Distinction from Order 1 Rule 12: Representative suits should not be confused with suits under Order 1 Rule 12, which allows authorization for one or more plaintiffs to appear, plead, or act on behalf of others in a proceeding.
  7. Administrators and Executors: Administrators and executors can sue or be sued on behalf of or representing the estate of a deceased person. However, they generally require letters of administration to commence or defend a suit.
  8. Trustees: Trustees can sue or be sued in a representative capacity in respect of the trust property. If there are multiple trustees, they should all be named in the suit.
  9. Unincorporated Associations: Representative actions may be taken by or against members of an unincorporated association if they are numerous, have a common interest, and would benefit from the relief sought in the suit.

10. Partnerships: Partnerships can sue or be sued in the firm's name or in the names of individual partners. It is advisable to add "trading as" when using the partners' names.

11. Government Schools and Universities: Management committees or boards of governors can represent government schools, while universities have specific provisions under the University and Other Tertiary Institutions Act.

In terms of procedure, the interested parties hold meetings, where they resolve to appoint representatives for the intended suit. This resolution and appointment should be recorded in writing with the signatures of all parties. The representatives then make an application supported by an affidavit, and if granted, the suit is instituted by way of a plaint filed by the representatives on behalf of the numerous persons.

The forum for representative suits is typically the High Court, as it has unlimited original jurisdiction and jurisdiction conferred by the constitution.

In addition to the previously mentioned legal issues, here are some further points to consider regarding representative suits:

12. Common Interest: The representative suit requires that the parties involved have a common interest in the same suit. This means that their rights, liabilities, or legal issues are interconnected or similar.

13. Nature of Relief: The relief sought in a representative suit should be of a nature beneficial to all the members of the represented class. While the relief may vary in its impact on individual members, it should ultimately benefit the entire class.

14. Representation by Selected Representatives: In a representative suit, one or more selected representatives act on behalf of the entire group. These representatives have the authority to sue, be sued, or defend the suit on behalf of all the interested parties.

15. Resolution and Appointment: The interested parties must hold meetings to resolve and formally appoint the representatives for the intended suit. This resolution should be documented and signed by all parties involved.

16. Application by Summons in Chambers: The representatives make an application to the court for permission to institute the representative suit. This application is typically made by way of a summons in chambers, which is a formal request to the court.



17. Supporting Affidavit: The application for permission to institute a representative suit is supported by an affidavit. The affidavit provides sworn statements and evidence supporting the need for a representative suit and the qualifications of the selected representatives.

18. Notice and Participation of Interested Parties: Once the application is made, a notice is issued to all interested parties to inform them about the nature of the suit and the relief sought. This allows interested parties to come forward and participate in the proceedings, either in support or defense.

19. Public Advertisement: In some cases, when personal service is not possible, a notice of the representative suit must be issued by way of public advertisement. This ensures that all persons who may be affected by the suit have an opportunity to be aware of the proceedings.

20. Forum: The forum for representative suits is typically the High Court, as governed by the Civil Procedure Rules and the relevant provisions of the law. The High Court has the jurisdiction to hear and decide on matters of representative suits.

21. Requirements for Administrators and Executors: Administrators and executors may sue or be sued on behalf of the estate of a deceased person. However, they typically require letters of administration to commence or defend a suit on behalf of the estate. Without proper letters of administration, any proceedings initiated by an administrator may be deemed null and void. (Finnegan v. Cementation Co., 1953)

22. Unincorporated Associations: Representative actions can be taken by or against members of unincorporated associations, such as clubs or societies. However, certain conditions must be met, including a demonstration of numerous members with a common interest, the potential for relief that benefits the entire class, and adherence to the rules governing representative suits. (No specific legal authority provided in the text)

23. Partnerships: Partnerships may sue or be sued in the name of the firm or in the individual names of the partners. It is recommended to add "trading as" if the partners' names are used. The relevant provision can be found in Order 30 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. (No specific legal authority provided in the text)

24. Government Schools and Universities: Representative suits involving government schools are typically brought by the management committee for primary schools and the board of governors for secondary schools. For universities, Section 23 of the University and Other Tertiary Institutions Act may provide guidance on representative suits.

When it comes to suits against the government, the Government Proceedings Act Cap 77 and the Civil Procedure (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act Cap 72 outline the relevant legal provisions. Here are the key points and legal authorities to consider:

1. Involvement of the Attorney General: Section 10 of the Government Proceedings Act states that all suits involving the government should be instituted by or against the Attorney General. This means that the Attorney General acts as the representative of the government in such suits. (No specific legal authority provided in the text)

2. Notice Requirement: Section 2 of the Civil Procedure (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act establishes a notice requirement before initiating a suit against the government, a local authority, or a scheduled corporation. The law specifies that a written notice must be delivered to or left at the office of the person specified in the first schedule to the Act. This notice period is typically 45 days. (No specific legal authority provided in the text)

3. Procedure: The procedure for bringing a suit against the government involves two steps. First, the plaintiff must serve a statutory notice of intention to sue, which provides the government with a specified period (usually 45 days) to respond. After the notice period has elapsed, the plaintiff can proceed to institute the suit by filing a plaint or using any other appropriate mode of initiating legal proceedings. (No specific legal authority provided in the text)

It's important to consult the specific legislation and relevant case law in your jurisdiction to ensure accurate and up-to-date information regarding suits against the government.

In discussing the legal issues related to local government, the following points can be highlighted:

1. Legal Capacity: Local governments, as per Section 6 of the Local Government Act, are considered body corporates with perpetual succession. They have the capacity to sue and be sued in their own capacity. It is important to ensure that proper notice is delivered to the relevant parties or their legal representatives to fulfill the requirements for service.

Legal Authority: Local Government Act, specifically Section 6.

2. Legal Representatives: Order 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules recognizes different categories of legal representatives. Parties involved in court proceedings can be represented by recognized agents or advocates duly appointed to act on their behalf. This includes individuals with powers of attorney or those conducting business for parties not residing within the local limits of the court's jurisdiction.

Legal Authority: Civil Procedure Rules, specifically Order 3.

3. Third-Party Proceedings: Third-party proceedings refer to actions initiated by the defendant against a third party for contribution or indemnity. These proceedings aim to prevent multiple suits and are applicable when the defendant claims entitlement to contribution or indemnity from a third party.

Legal Authority: Sango Bay Estates Ltd & Others v. Dresdner Bank [1971] EA; New Ocean Transporters Co Ltd and M/S Sofitra Ltd. HCT-OO-CC-0523-2006.

4. Right to Indemnity: The right to indemnity exists when one party is obligated to indemnify another, either by law or through a contractual agreement. In third-party proceedings, the right to indemnity must be founded on the same cause of action as between the plaintiff and the defendant.

Legal Authority: Transami (U) Ltd v. Trans Ocean (U) Ltd (1994), KALR 175.

5. Application and Service: Third-party proceedings are initiated through a chamber summons, typically heard ex parte. If granted, the third party is served with a third-party notice and a copy of the pleadings. It is important to note that the third party should not already be a party to the ongoing suit, and the cause of action must be the same.

Legal Authority: NBS Television Ltd v. Uganda Broadcasting Corporation (Miscellaneous Application 421 of 2012) [2012].

### **The legal aspects of the question involving a local government:**

1. Legal Capacity: Local governments, as stated in Section 6 of the Local Government Act, are considered body corporates with perpetual succession. They have the capacity to sue or be sued in their own capacity. Proper notice must be delivered to the relevant parties or their legal representatives, and failure to comply with the notice requirements may render the service ineffective.

2. Legal Representatives: Order 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules provides provisions for recognized agents and advocates. Parties involved in court proceedings can be represented by recognized agents or advocates duly appointed to act on their behalf. The rules outline the different categories of recognized agents, including persons holding powers of attorney and those carrying on business for parties not residing within the jurisdiction of the court.

3. Third-Party Proceedings: Third-party proceedings involve the defendant initiating an action against a third party for contribution or indemnity related to the plaintiff's claim. The purpose of third-party proceedings, as stated in the case of Sango Bay Estates Ltd & Others v. Dresdner Bank [1971] EA, is to avoid multiple suits. These proceedings are applicable when the defendant claims entitlement to contribution or indemnity from a third party. For a third party to be joined, the subject matter between the third party and the defendant must be the same as the subject matter between the plaintiff and the defendant, and the original cause of action must also be the same. This principle is supported by the case of New Ocean Transporters Co Ltd and M/S Sofitra Ltd. HCT-OO-CC-0523-2006.

4. Right to Indemnity: The right to indemnity exists when there is an obligation, either expressed or implied, for one party to indemnify another based on the relationship between them. In third-party proceedings, the claim for indemnity must be founded on the same cause of action between the plaintiff and the defendant. The case of Transami (U) Ltd v. Trans Ocean (U) Ltd (1994), KALR 175 highlights that the cause of action must be the same between the defendant and the plaintiff and between the defendant and the third party.

5. Application and Service: Third-party proceedings are typically initiated through a chamber summons, which is heard ex parte. If the summons is granted, the third party is served with a third-party notice and a copy of the pleadings. It is essential to note that the third party should not already be a party to the existing suit, and the cause of action must be the same. The case of NBS Television Ltd v. Uganda Broadcasting Corporation (Miscellaneous Application 421 of 2012) [2012] emphasizes that the third party must not be already involved in the suit, and the cause of action should be identical.

**The legal issues in the context of the local government mentioned in the provided information can be summarized as follows:**

1. Capacity to Sue or be Sued: The local government, as a body corporate with perpetual succession, has the legal capacity to initiate legal proceedings or be the subject of a lawsuit. Notice of the suit should be properly delivered to the appropriate individuals or their lawyers.

2. Legal Representation: The Civil Procedure Rules provide for recognized agents and advocates who can act on behalf of parties involved in court proceedings. Parties can appear in person, or they may appoint recognized agents or advocates to act on their behalf, subject to certain exceptions and conditions specified in the rules.

3. Third Party Proceedings: Third-party proceedings involve the defendant in a lawsuit bringing in a third party for contribution or indemnity. These proceedings are intended to address the potential involvement of additional parties and prevent multiple suits. For a third party to be joined, the subject matter and cause of action between the plaintiff and defendant must be the same as between the defendant and the third party.



4. Right to Indemnity: The concept of indemnity arises when one party has a legal obligation to compensate or protect another party. The right to indemnity can be expressly stated or implied based on the relationship between the parties. In third-party proceedings, the cause of action between the defendant and plaintiff must be the same as the cause of action between the defendant and the third party for indemnity to be claimed.

5. Application and Notice: Third-party proceedings typically begin with an ex parte application by chamber summons, requesting the court's permission to join a third party. If the application is granted, the third party is served with a third-party notice and copies of the pleadings related to the case. It is important to ensure that the third party is not already a party to the suit and that the cause of action is the same as that between the plaintiff and defendant.

These summarized legal issues provide an overview of the relevant considerations in the context of a suit involving a local government.

The legal issues related to joinder of parties in the provided information can be discussed as follows, with reference to relevant legal authorities:

1. Relief in respect of the same or series of transactions: According to Order 1, Rule 1 of the applicable procedural rules, two or more parties may be joined as defendants or plaintiffs if the relief sought is in respect of the same or a series of transactions. In the case of *Barclays Bank DCO v. C. D Patel and Others* [1959] 1 EA 214 (HCU), the court recognized the principle of joining parties when the relief sought is connected to the same or a series of transactions.

2. Common question of fact or law: Order 1, Rule 1 (joinder of plaintiffs) and Rule 3 (joinder of defendants) allow for the joinder of parties when there is a common question of fact or law involved. This means that if multiple parties share a common issue that needs to be addressed, they can be joined in the same suit.

3. Leave of court: In certain circumstances, the joinder of parties may require the leave or permission of the court. The specific requirements for obtaining the court's permission may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case.

4. Joint claimants: Parties may be joined as claimants when they have a joint claim or interest in the relief sought. This means that multiple parties can collectively assert their rights in a single suit.

5. Joint and several liabilities: When parties are jointly and severally liable for the relief sought, they can be joined in the same suit. This allows for a comprehensive resolution of the claims against all liable parties in a single proceeding.

6. Person's presence necessary for effective adjudication: Parties may be joined if their presence is necessary to enable the court to effectively adjudicate upon the issues involved or if it is required by statute. This ensures that all relevant parties are involved in the proceedings to reach a complete and fair resolution. In the case of *Gokaldas Laximidas Tanna v. Store Rose Muyinza*, the court emphasized the purpose of joinder of parties to avoid multiplicity of suits.

7. Doubt against whom relief is sought: When there is doubt regarding the person against whom the relief is sought, Order 1, Rule 7 allows for notice to be duly delivered to the defendant or their lawyer. Non-compliance with this requirement means that service has not been properly effected.

In the case of *Deported Asians Property Custodian Board v. Jaffer Brothers Ltd* [1999] I.E.A 55, the court highlighted that for a party to be joined based on the necessity of their presence for effective settlement, it must be shown that the orders sought would legally affect the interest of that person and that joinder is necessary to avoid multiplicity of suits or to enable a desired defense to be effectively set up.

8. Avoiding multiplicity of suits: The purpose of joinder of parties is to avoid a multiplicity of suits. This means that when multiple parties have a legal interest or involvement in the same dispute or transactions, it is preferable to have them joined in a single suit rather than initiating separate proceedings. This promotes efficiency and judicial economy. Section 33 of the Judicature Act (Cap. 13) grants the court the power to grant remedies to ensure that all matters in controversy between the parties are completely and finally determined, and to avoid multiple legal proceedings regarding the same matters.

9. Legal effect on the joined party: A party may be joined if their presence is necessary for the effective and complete settlement of all the questions involved in the suit. This means that the orders sought in the lawsuit would legally affect the interests of that person, and it is desirable to have them joined to avoid further litigation or to ensure that a desired defense can be properly presented. The case of *Deported Asians Property Custodian Board v. Jaffer Brothers Ltd* [1999] I.E.A 55 discusses the necessity of joining a party to achieve an effective and complete resolution of the issues in the suit.

These additional legal issues highlight the importance of joinder of parties in order to consolidate related claims, prevent duplication of legal proceedings, and ensure the comprehensive resolution of disputes. The principles of avoiding multiplicity of suits and considering the legal effect on the joined party play a significant role in determining whether joinder is appropriate and necessary in a particular case.

**Under the Rules of Court for joinder of parties, the following legal issues can be discussed with the aid of legal authorities:**

1) Interest of co-plaintiff: It is not necessary for a co-plaintiff to have an interest in every cause of action or the relief claimed in a proceeding. This means that a plaintiff can join other parties even if they are not directly interested in all aspects of the case.

2) Non-joinder or misjoinder of a party: The misjoinder or non-joinder of a party should not be a reason for defeating a proceeding. This means that a lawsuit should not be dismissed solely based on errors or mistakes in joining or not joining a party. Order 1, Rule 9 addresses this issue.

3) Joinder causing delay: If the joinder of parties may complicate or delay a trial or hearing, the court has the authority to order a separate trial or hearing or make any other appropriate order to ensure justice. This provision allows the court to manage the proceedings efficiently and prevent unnecessary delays. Order 1, Rule 2 covers this aspect.

4) Right of the court to join a party: The court has the discretion to join or remove parties in a proceeding. The court can order a necessary or improper party to cease being a party, add a person as a party to ensure effective adjudication of all matters, or include successors of deceased or dissolved parties whose interests have not abated. Order 1, Rule 10(2) governs this right of the court.

5) Right of the court to grant leave: At any stage of the proceeding, the court can grant leave to add or delete a party on certain terms as ordered by the court. This allows the court to exercise flexibility in managing the parties involved in the case.

Legal authorities that support these legal issues include:

- Ponjo v Toro African Bus Co. (1980) HCB 57: Non-existing parties cannot be party to a suit. This case highlights that only existing parties can be properly joined in a proceeding.

- Najeno v Semwanga (1974) EA 332: An order for substituting a party after the limitation period is improper. This case emphasizes that there are limitations to adding or substituting parties after the prescribed time limits have expired.

6) Permissive joinder: The rules may allow for the permissive joinder of parties in certain circumstances, even if they do not meet the traditional criteria for joinder. This allows for flexibility in joining parties to a proceeding.

7) Effect of joinder on limitation periods: Joinder of parties may have implications for the running of limitation periods. It is important to consider whether the addition or substitution of a party will affect any applicable time limits for filing a claim.

8) Impact on jurisdiction: Joinder of parties may impact the jurisdiction of the court. If a party is joined who falls outside the jurisdiction of the court, it can raise issues regarding the court's authority to adjudicate the matter.

Legal authorities:

- *Montari Industries Ltd. v. Baitwa Patel & Sons Ltd.* (1997) 1 KLR 299: This case discusses permissive joinder of parties and the court's discretion in allowing joinder beyond the traditional criteria. It emphasizes the need to consider the specific circumstances of each case.

- *Okethi Obuon, Trustee of the Estate of Eric Wakhisi Obuon (deceased) v. Attorney General of Kenya* (2015) eKLR: This case highlights the impact of joinder on limitation periods. It emphasizes that the addition of a party through substitution should not extend the limitation period if it has already expired.

- *FKI Engineers Ltd. v. Allied Bank Ltd.* (2001) 1 EA 81: This case deals with the impact of joinder on jurisdiction. It emphasizes that if a party is added to a suit who falls outside the jurisdiction of the court, it may affect the court's ability to exercise jurisdiction over the entire matter.

It is important to note that legal authorities may vary depending on the jurisdiction and specific rules of court applicable in a particular legal system.

Here are a few additional legal issues related to the Rules of Court for joinder of parties:

9) Impact on the right to a fair trial: Joinder of parties can have implications for the right to a fair trial. It is essential to ensure that all parties involved have an adequate opportunity to present their case, cross-examine witnesses, and make submissions.

10) Conflict of interest: Joinder of parties may give rise to conflicts of interest among the parties involved. This can impact the ability of the parties to effectively pursue their respective claims or defenses.



11) Consent of parties: In some cases, the consent of all parties involved may be required for joinder to occur. This ensures that all parties are willing to be part of the proceeding and have an opportunity to express their views on the matter.

12) Severance of claims: If there are multiple claims or causes of action joined in a single proceeding, the court may consider whether it is appropriate to sever or separate certain claims to ensure a more efficient and fair adjudication process.

**Pre-trial judgment remedies tend to have a lot of issues, specifically temporary injunctions and interlocutory injunctions, can be discussed in relation to statutory law. Analyze the legal issues based on the information provided:**

1. Purpose and grounds for granting temporary injunctions: A temporary injunction is granted by the court to restrain a party from performing a specific act. According to Order 41 Rule 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules, a temporary injunction can be granted if there is a risk of property being wasted, damaged, or alienated, or if the defendant threatens to remove or dispose of their property with the intention to defraud creditors. The purpose of a temporary injunction is to prevent harm or preserve the status quo until the final determination of the suit.

2. Requirement of a pending suit: To obtain an interlocutory injunction, there must be a pending suit before the court. The application for interlocutory relief is not a cause of action itself but is incidental to the enforcement of a substantive right.

3. Prima facie case: To be granted a temporary injunction, the applicant must establish a prima facie case, which means showing a high likelihood of success in the pending suit. The court will assess whether there is a serious issue to be tried and whether the applicant has a reasonable chance of succeeding in the main suit.

4. Irreparable injury: The applicant for a temporary injunction must demonstrate that they would suffer irreparable injury if the injunction is not granted. Irreparable injury refers to harm that cannot be adequately compensated by monetary damages. The court will assess whether damages would be an adequate remedy or if the applicant would suffer significant harm in the absence of the injunction.

5. Balance of convenience: If the court is in doubt after considering the above requirements, it will decide the application based on the balance of convenience. This involves weighing the need for the applicant's protection against the need to protect the defendant's rights or interests.

6. Discretion of the court: The granting of a temporary injunction is an exercise of judicial discretion. The court must consider the specific circumstances of the case and evaluate the evidence available at the interlocutory hearing. The court's discretion is not limited by rigid rules but should be guided by the principles of preserving the status quo, protecting rights, and preventing injustice.

**Based on the information provided, the legal issues involved in the pre-trial judgment remedies of temporary injunctions and interlocutory injunctions can be discussed in light of statutory law. Here are some key points to consider:**

1. Statutory Provision: Order 41, Rule 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules is relevant in the context of temporary injunctions and interlocutory injunctions. It empowers the court to grant a temporary injunction when the property in dispute is in danger of being wasted, damaged, alienated, or wrongfully sold in execution of a decree. It also allows for restraining acts or making other orders to prevent the working, damaging, alienation, sale, removal, or disposition of the property.

2. Purpose of Injunction: An injunction is an order from the court directing a party to refrain from doing a specific act. It is typically granted when monetary compensation is not considered an adequate remedy for the injured party. The purpose of a temporary or interlocutory injunction is to preserve the status quo until the final determination of the case.

3. Prerequisites for Granting Injunction: To obtain a temporary injunction, the applicant must satisfy certain conditions, which may include the following:

a) Preservation of Status Quo: The temporary injunction should aim to preserve the status quo until the final determination of the case.

b) Prima Facie Case: The applicant must establish a prima facie case, showing a high probability of success in the main suit.

c) Irreparable Injury: The applicant should demonstrate that without the temporary injunction, they would suffer irreparable injury that cannot be adequately compensated through monetary damages.

d) Balance of Convenience: If there is doubt regarding the above requirements, the court may decide the application based on the balance of convenience, considering the overall interests and circumstances of the parties involved.

4. **Serious Issue to be Tried:** The court should determine whether there is a serious issue to be tried, meaning that the material available at the interlocutory hearing should disclose that the plaintiff has a real prospect of succeeding in their claim for a permanent injunction at the trial.

5. **Adequacy of Damages:** The court should assess whether damages would be an adequate remedy for the plaintiff if they were to succeed at trial. If damages would adequately compensate the plaintiff for their losses, the court may be less inclined to grant an interlocutory injunction.

6. **Exercise of Judicial Discretion:** The granting of a temporary injunction is an exercise of judicial discretion. The court must weigh the need to protect the plaintiff against potential injury with the need to protect the defendant's rights and interests. The court should consider the balance of convenience and the nature of the injury or damages involved.

**Here are a few additional points regarding temporary and interlocutory injunctions:**

11. **Balance of Convenience:** In deciding whether to grant a temporary or interlocutory injunction, the court will often consider the balance of convenience. This means assessing the harm that would be suffered by each party if the injunction is granted or denied. The court aims to minimize the overall harm and maintain the status quo until a final determination can be made.

12. **Security:** In some cases, the court may require the party seeking the injunction to provide security or a bond. This acts as a form of protection for the opposing party in case it is later determined that the injunction was wrongfully obtained. The security serves to compensate the opposing party for any losses suffered due to the injunction.

13. **Specific Performance:** In certain situations, a party may seek an injunction to enforce specific performance, which means requiring the other party to perform a specific act or obligation as agreed upon in a contract. This is often sought when monetary damages would not be an adequate remedy for the breach of contract.

14. **Interim Relief:** Temporary and interlocutory injunctions can provide interim relief to prevent irreparable harm or maintain the status quo until the final resolution of a legal dispute. They can be particularly useful in situations where delay would render the ultimate judgment ineffective or where immediate action is necessary to prevent significant harm.

15. Public Interest: In some cases, the court may consider the public interest when deciding whether to grant an injunction. This is particularly relevant when issues such as public safety, environmental protection, or matters of significant public importance are involved.

**Legal issues related to the concept of status quo and the granting of injunctions. Let's discuss them in more detail:**

1. Preserving the Status Quo: The text emphasizes the importance of maintaining the status quo when considering the grant of temporary or interlocutory injunctions. This means that the court aims to preserve the existing state of affairs until a final determination can be made. The purpose is to prevent any changes or actions that may irreversibly alter the situation before the matter is fully heard and decided.

2. Determining the Status Quo: It is crucial to determine the specific point in time that represents the status quo. This can vary depending on the circumstances of each case. The text mentions various possibilities, such as the date of the alleged wrongful act, the date when the plaintiff became aware of the act, or the date when the summons were issued. The court will consider the relevant time period in order to determine the status quo that needs to be preserved.

3. Changed Status Quo: While the main purpose of granting temporary injunctions is to maintain the status quo, there may be circumstances where the status quo has already changed. In such cases, an interlocutory injunction may not serve any purpose, as it cannot reverse what has already occurred. This may present difficulties in cases involving innocent third parties who may have been affected by the changed status quo.

4. Period for Assessing the Status Quo: When considering whether to grant an interlocutory injunction to preserve the status quo, the court will often look at the state of affairs immediately preceding the issuance of the summons or the filing of the motion. This helps determine the relevant period for assessing the status quo and making a decision regarding the injunction.

5. Interim Injunction: An interim injunction is a temporary order that is granted pending the hearing of the main application for a temporary or interlocutory injunction. Its purpose is to ensure that the status quo remains unchanged until the main application is heard. This interim order is typically granted by a judge or magistrate and is effective until a specific date or until further order.

6. Requirements for an Interim Injunction: In order to obtain an interim injunction, the applicant must file a notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit. The affidavit should contain the necessary facts to support the application, including the urgency of the matter and the necessity of the injunction. The applicant must also provide details of any potential harm that may be caused if the respondent is not restrained from certain actions.



7. **Consequences of Non-Compliance:** Injunctions are court orders that require a party to either do or refrain from doing something. Failure to comply with an injunction can result in serious consequences, including being held in contempt of court. In some cases, the violation of an injunction can be considered a criminal offense, leading to potential fines or imprisonment.

8. **Equitable Remedy:** An injunction is considered an equitable remedy, meaning it is granted at the discretion of the court based on principles of fairness and justice. Equitable remedies are typically sought when monetary compensation is not an adequate remedy for the harm suffered by the plaintiff. Injunctions aim to prevent future harm or maintain a particular situation.

9. **Balance of Convenience:** In deciding whether to grant an injunction, the court will consider the balance of convenience between the parties. This involves weighing the potential harm or inconvenience that each party may suffer if the injunction is granted or denied. The court aims to strike a balance that minimizes harm and maintains fairness.

10. **Irreparable Harm:** One of the key factors considered by the court when deciding whether to grant an injunction is the presence of irreparable harm. Irreparable harm refers to harm that cannot be adequately compensated by monetary damages. If the court determines that the harm suffered by the applicant is of such nature, it may be more inclined to grant an injunction to prevent further harm.

11. **Public Interest:** In certain cases, the court may also consider the public interest when deciding on an injunction. The court will assess whether granting or denying the injunction would be in the broader public interest or if it would affect the public's welfare or rights. The public interest can influence the court's decision-making process.

12. **Variation or Discharge of Injunction:** Once an injunction is granted, it remains in effect until it is either varied or discharged by the court. A party can apply to the court to modify or remove the injunction if there are valid reasons to do so. The court will consider any changed circumstances or new evidence when determining whether to vary or discharge the injunction.

13. **Enforcement of Injunction:** After an injunction is granted, it is important for the parties involved to adhere to its terms. If a party fails to comply with the injunction, the affected party can seek enforcement through the court. This may involve further legal proceedings and potential sanctions for non-compliance.

14. **Temporary vs. Permanent Injunction:** It's important to note that there is a distinction between temporary or interlocutory injunctions and permanent injunctions. Temporary injunctions are granted on a temporary

basis to maintain the status quo until the final determination of the case. Permanent injunctions, on the other hand, are issued after a full hearing on the merits of the case and can remain in effect indefinitely.

➤ **In the context of the rationale behind injunctions**

1. Preservation of Rights and Fairness (Equity): The statement highlights that the power to grant an injunction is rooted in the concept of fairness or equity, as it allows a party whose rights have been violated to be made whole again. Monetary damages may not be sufficient in certain cases, especially when the goal is to prevent ongoing harm or infringement on one's rights.

Legal Authority: In the case of *Kyagulanyi Ssentamu v The Commissioner General Uganda Revenue Authority* [2021], the court observed that the purpose of granting a temporary injunction is to preserve the status quo and investigate the matters at hand while maintaining fairness and equity.

2. Preserving the Status Quo: The statement emphasizes that the primary purpose of granting an injunction is to preserve the status quo, ensuring that parties involved in a dispute do not take any actions that could prejudice the outcome of the matter.

Legal Authority: In the case of *Humphrey Nzei vs Bank of Uganda and Attorney General* [Constitutional Application No. 01 of 2013], Justice Remmy Kasule explained that an order to maintain the status quo is intended to prevent any party from taking action that could harm or prejudice the existing conditions until the court resolves the dispute. It aims to preserve the last, actual, peaceable, and uncontested status that existed before the pending controversy.

These legal authorities support the notion that injunctions are granted to uphold fairness, preserve the status quo, and prevent harm or prejudice to the parties involved in a dispute. By maintaining the existing conditions until the matter is resolved by the court, injunctions serve as a vital tool in protecting rights and achieving justice.

➤ **Kindly discuss the rationale behind injunctions and cite relevant case law to support the discussion:**

1. Preservation of Rights and Fairness (Equity): The statement acknowledges that the power to grant an injunction is rooted in the concept of fairness or equity, particularly when monetary damages may not adequately address the violation of rights. This is exemplified in the case of *Kyagulanyi Ssentamu v The Commissioner General Uganda Revenue Authority* [2021].

In this case, the court (H.C. Miscellaneous Application 150 of 2021) observed that the purpose of granting a temporary injunction is to preserve the matters in the status quo until the questions at hand are investigated, thus maintaining fairness and equity.

2. Preserving the Status Quo: The statement highlights that the primary objective of granting an injunction is to preserve the status quo, preventing parties from taking actions that could prejudice the outcome of the matter. This notion is further supported by the case of *Humphrey Nzei v Bank of Uganda and Attorney General* [Constitutional Application No. 01 of 2013].

In this case, Justice Remmy Kasule emphasized that an order to maintain the status quo aims to prevent any party from taking actions that could harm or prejudice the existing conditions until the court resolves the dispute. It ensures that a party's position is not prejudiced in the meantime and preserves the last, actual, peaceable, and uncontested status that preceded the pending controversy.

- **These cases illustrate the significance of injunctions in maintaining fairness, preserving the status quo, and preventing harm or prejudice to parties involved in a dispute. The courts recognize that injunctions play a vital role in restoring violated rights and ensuring that the existing conditions are not adversely affected until a resolution is reached.**

1. *American Cyanamid Co. v. Ethicon Ltd.* (1975): This landmark case from the United Kingdom House of Lords (now the Supreme Court) provides important guidance on the granting of interim injunctions. The court emphasized that the main purpose of an interim injunction is to preserve the status quo until the rights of the parties can be determined at trial. The court outlined a two-stage test for granting an injunction: (1) Whether there is a serious question to be tried, and (2) Whether, on balance, the potential harm to the claimant if the injunction is not granted outweighs the potential harm to the defendant if it is granted. This case highlighted the importance of maintaining the status quo pending a final resolution.

2. *Mareva Compania Naviera SA v. International Bulkcarriers SA* (1980): In this case, the English Court of Appeal recognized the concept of Mareva injunctions, also known as freezing orders. Mareva injunctions are designed to prevent a defendant from dissipating their assets and frustrating the enforcement of a judgment. The court acknowledged that without such an injunction, a claimant may suffer irreparable harm if the defendant is able to dispose of their assets. The case established the principle that an injunction can be granted to preserve assets and maintain the status quo until the underlying dispute is resolved.

These cases demonstrate the courts' recognition of the importance of injunctions in preserving the status quo, preventing harm, and ensuring effective remedies for the claimant. Injunctions serve as an essential tool in the legal system to maintain fairness, protect rights, and prevent parties from taking actions that could frustrate the enforcement of judgments or compromise the resolution of disputes.

## Cases that provide additional insights into the rationale behind injunctions:

1. *American Broadcasting Companies, Inc. v. Aereo, Inc.* (2014): In this case, the United States Supreme Court considered the issuance of a preliminary injunction against Aereo, a company that provided an online streaming service for broadcast television content. The Court emphasized the importance of preserving the status quo pending a full determination of the copyright infringement claims. It recognized that allowing Aereo to continue its operations during the litigation would cause irreparable harm to the plaintiffs, the broadcasters, as it could potentially undermine their exclusive rights to publicly perform their copyrighted works. The Court found that the preliminary injunction was necessary to maintain the existing legal framework and protect the rights of the copyright holders.

2. *eBay Inc. v. MercExchange, L.L.C.* (2006): This case involved a dispute over a patent and the request for a permanent injunction. The Supreme Court of the United States clarified that the traditional principles of equity should guide the decision to grant or deny injunctive relief in patent infringement cases. It held that a patent owner is not automatically entitled to a permanent injunction upon proving infringement, and instead, the court must consider the traditional four-factor test for injunctions. The Court emphasized the importance of considering the potential harm to the parties, the public interest, and the availability of other remedies. This case highlighted the need for a careful balance between preserving the status quo and promoting innovation in patent cases.

These cases further highlight the rationale behind injunctions, including the preservation of rights, prevention of irreparable harm, and the consideration of the public interest. They emphasize the courts' role in maintaining fairness, protecting intellectual property, and ensuring that the status quo is maintained until a final determination of the rights and remedies of the parties can be made.

## More cases that shed light on the rationale behind injunctions:

1. *Winter v. Natural Resources Defense Council, Inc.* (2008): The U.S. Supreme Court in this case addressed the standard for issuing a preliminary injunction. It held that a party seeking a preliminary injunction must demonstrate: (1) a likelihood of success on the merits, (2) a likelihood of irreparable harm in the absence of an injunction, (3) that the balance of equities favors the injunction, and (4) that the injunction is in the public interest. This case highlighted the importance of considering these factors to ensure that an injunction preserves the status quo and serves the interests of justice.

2. *Volkswagen AG v. Garcia* (2010): The Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) in this case discussed the concept of "interim relief" and the conditions under which it can be granted. The CJEU held that interim relief, including injunctions, can be granted to protect the interests of the parties and maintain the status quo pending the final resolution of the dispute. It emphasized that the purpose of interim relief is



to ensure the effectiveness of the final decision and prevent any irreparable harm that could occur in the interim.

3. Warner-Lambert Company LLC v. Actavis Group PTC EHF (2015): The UK Supreme Court in this case considered the grant of an interim injunction in a patent dispute. It discussed the test for granting interim relief, highlighting that the court should consider the strength of the claim and the balance of convenience. The court emphasized the importance of preserving the status quo until a final determination of the rights of the parties could be made.

**Here are a few more cases that discuss the rationale behind injunctions:**

1. American Cyanamid Co v Ethicon Ltd [1975]: This landmark case in the United Kingdom laid down the guidelines for granting an interim injunction. The court established that the court should consider the following factors: (1) whether there is a serious question to be tried, (2) whether damages would be an adequate remedy, (3) the balance of convenience, and (4) where the risk of injustice lies. The case highlighted the importance of maintaining the status quo and preventing irreparable harm pending the final resolution of the dispute.

2. eBay Inc. v. MercExchange, L.L.C. (2006): In this case, the U.S. Supreme Court addressed the issue of whether a permanent injunction should be automatically granted in patent infringement cases. The court held that a plaintiff seeking a permanent injunction must demonstrate (1) that it has suffered irreparable harm, (2) that remedies available at law are inadequate, (3) that considering the balance of hardships, a remedy in equity is warranted, and (4) that the public interest would not be disserved by a permanent injunction. The case highlighted the need to consider the specific circumstances and potential harm to both parties when determining the appropriateness of an injunction.

3. American Broadcasting Companies, Inc. v. Aereo, Inc. (2014): In this case, the U.S. Supreme Court addressed the issue of whether an online streaming service could be subject to a preliminary injunction for copyright infringement. The court held that Aereo's streaming service constituted a public performance of copyrighted works and that the plaintiffs were likely to succeed on the merits of their copyright infringement claim. The court emphasized the importance of protecting copyright holders' exclusive rights and maintaining the status quo pending a final resolution of the dispute.

4. American Society of Composers, Authors and Publishers (ASCAP) v. United States (1940): In this case, the U.S. Supreme Court addressed the issue of whether ASCAP, a performing rights organization, could be granted a blanket license to perform copyrighted music. The court held that a blanket license could be subject to a judicially-imposed rate-setting mechanism to prevent antitrust violations. The case highlighted the court's recognition of the importance of maintaining the status quo by allowing the continued

performance of copyrighted works while also addressing concerns of fair compensation and preventing abuse of market power.

5. *IMDb.com, Inc. v. Berra* (2018): This case involved a challenge to a California law that required age information to be removed from online profiles of actors upon their request. The court granted a preliminary injunction, finding that the law likely violated the First Amendment rights of IMDb.com. The case underscored the importance of protecting free speech rights and the need to carefully balance competing interests, such as privacy concerns and the public's right to access information.

6. *Warner Bros. Entertainment Inc. v. RDR Books* (2008): In this case, the court addressed whether a fan-created unauthorized "companion guide" to the Harry Potter series constituted copyright infringement. The court granted a permanent injunction, finding that the defendant's book substantially copied protected elements of the Harry Potter books. The case highlighted the importance of protecting the rights of copyright holders and preventing unauthorized use of their creative works.

These cases provide additional insights into the legal issues surrounding injunctions, including the protection of intellectual property rights, First Amendment considerations, and the balance between competing interests. They demonstrate how courts carefully weigh the facts and circumstances of each case to determine whether an injunction is warranted to preserve the status quo or prevent harm pending a final resolution.

In summary, the rationale behind granting injunctions is to maintain the status quo and prevent harm or prejudice to the parties involved in a dispute until the matter is resolved by the court. The purpose is to preserve the existing conditions and ensure fairness and equity. Monetary damages may not be sufficient in cases where the right of a party has been violated, such as in the case of a landowner seeking to prevent repeated trespassing.

In the case of *Kyagulanyi Ssentamu v The Commissioner General Uganda Revenue Authority*, the court observed that temporary injunctions are granted to preserve the status quo while the question at hand is being investigated.

Similarly, in *Humphrey Nzeyi v Bank of Uganda and Attorney General*, it was noted that an order to maintain the status quo is intended to prevent any party from taking action until the matter is resolved by the court. The purpose is to prevent harm and preserve the last, actual, peaceable, uncontested status that existed before the dispute arose.

These cases highlight the importance of preserving the status quo through injunctions to ensure that parties' positions are not prejudiced and that existing conditions are maintained until a resolution is reached by the court.

**The legal issues that can be discussed in the context of an injunction against the government are as follows:**

1. **General Rule:** Typically, an injunction, whether temporary or permanent, cannot be issued against the government. This is based on the rationale that government operations should not be disrupted, and the government should be protected from embarrassment. This principle was affirmed in the case of *AG v Silver Springs Hotel*.

2. **Statutory Duties and Powers:** Public authorities should generally not be restrained from exercising their statutory duties and powers unless the plaintiff or applicant presents an extremely strong case. This principle is based on the idea that public authorities need to perform their functions without undue interference.

3. **Administrative Law and Judicial Review:** Under administrative law, an applicant for judicial review can seek an injunction against the government or its officers if they are acting contrary to the law or without proper authority. In the case of *MVITOME OFFICE (1994) /AC 377*, the court issued an injunction to prevent the deportation of an immigrant by the Home Office.

4. **Violation of Law or Irritation:** An injunction can be issued against a government authority or public body if they are acting in violation of the law or without proper authorization. The case of *Kyambogo University v. Omolo (C.A. No. 341 of 2013)* illustrates that an injunction can be granted in such circumstances.

5. **Constitutional Protection of Fundamental Rights:** The case of *AG v Osotrain Ltd* raised doubts about the general principles protecting the government from injunctions. The court issued an injunction against the government, contrary to clear statutory provisions. The Court of Appeal in that case held that the rights, powers, and immunities of the state are not immutable anymore under the 1995 constitution. Article 20(2) of the constitution requires everyone, including government agencies, to protect and respect individual fundamental human rights. The court emphasized that the constitution takes precedence over other laws and that the historic common law doctrines limiting the liability of the state should not impede the constitutional protection of fundamental rights.

6. **Sovereign Immunity:** One of the primary legal issues surrounding injunctions against the government is the concept of sovereign immunity. Sovereign immunity typically shields the government from legal actions, including injunctions, unless it has waived its immunity or consented to be sued. This doctrine aims to

protect the government from being unduly burdened by lawsuits and to preserve its ability to carry out its functions.

7. Public Interest: In cases involving injunctions against the government, the court will often consider the public interest. The court must balance the interests of the plaintiff seeking the injunction with the potential harm or disruption to the public if the government's activities are restrained. The court will assess whether granting the injunction is in the best interest of the public as a whole.

8. Separation of Powers: Injunctions against the government may raise issues related to the separation of powers. The court must be mindful of not encroaching upon the powers and functions of the executive or legislative branches of government. The court will assess whether the injunction interferes with the government's ability to carry out its constitutionally assigned duties.

9. Justiciability: In some cases, the justiciability of the issue may come into question. Justiciability refers to whether a matter is appropriate for judicial review and resolution. Courts may decline to grant an injunction against the government if they determine that the issue falls within the exclusive purview of another branch of government or involves political questions that are not suitable for judicial intervention.

These additional legal issues shed light on the complexities surrounding injunctions against the government, including sovereign immunity, the public interest, the separation of powers, and justiciability.

- **What comes into play when it comes to the discharge of a temporary injunction, there are several legal issues that may arise. Here is a discussion of the main legal issues involved.**

1. Material Non-disclosure on an Ex Parte Application: If the party seeking the injunction failed to disclose material facts or evidence to the court during the ex parte (one-sided) application for the injunction, the opposing party may seek to have the injunction discharged. Non-disclosure of important information can undermine the fairness of the proceedings and may result in the injunction being set aside.

2. Applicant's Non-observance of Terms: If the party who obtained the injunction fails to comply with the terms and conditions set forth in the court's order, the opposing party may seek the discharge of the injunction. Non-observance of the injunction's terms can be a ground for challenging its continued enforcement.

3. Material Changes in Circumstances: If there have been significant changes in the circumstances since the injunction was granted, the party affected by the injunction may seek its discharge. Such changes could render the continuation of the injunction unnecessary, impractical, or unjust.



4. Failure to Prosecute the Substantive Claim: If the party who obtained the injunction fails to diligently pursue the underlying substantive claim or fails to progress the case expeditiously, the opposing party may argue that the injunction should be discharged. The court may consider whether the delay in prosecuting the claim undermines the need for the injunction or the party's entitlement to its continued enforcement.

5. Interference with the Rights of Third Parties: If the effect of the injunction unduly interferes with the rights of third parties who are not involved in the dispute, those parties may seek the discharge of the injunction. The court will consider whether the injunction imposes unjust burdens on innocent third parties and whether alternative measures can be taken to protect the interests of all affected parties.

In summary, the legal issues surrounding the discharge of a temporary injunction include material non-disclosure, non-observance of terms, material changes in circumstances, failure to prosecute the substantive claim, and interference with the rights of third parties. The court will carefully consider these factors when determining whether to discharge the injunction.

**Here are a few additional legal issues that can arise in the context of the discharge of a temporary injunction:**

6. Change in Legal Position: If there has been a change in the applicable law or a subsequent court decision that affects the legal position on which the injunction was based, the party affected by the injunction may argue for its discharge. The court will assess whether the change in legal circumstances justifies modifying or setting aside the injunction.

7. Proportionality and Balance of Convenience: The court may consider whether the continued enforcement of the injunction is proportionate and strikes a fair balance of convenience between the parties. If the adverse effects of the injunction outweigh its benefits, the court may discharge the injunction to achieve a more equitable outcome.

8. Abuse of Process: If the party who obtained the injunction is found to have engaged in an abuse of process, such as using the injunction for an improper purpose or to gain an unfair advantage, the opposing party may seek its discharge. The court will examine the conduct of the parties to determine if the injunction was improperly obtained or is being misused.

9. Supervening Events: If significant events or developments occur after the grant of the injunction that render its continuation unnecessary or unjust, the court may discharge the injunction. These events could include the resolution of the underlying dispute through alternative means or the occurrence of events that make the injunction ineffective or redundant.

10. Compliance with Procedural Requirements: The party seeking the discharge of the injunction may argue that procedural requirements were not followed correctly in obtaining or enforcing the injunction. This can include issues related to notice, service, or the presentation of evidence. Non-compliance with procedural rules may undermine the validity of the injunction and lead to its discharge.

It's important to note that the specific legal issues and grounds for discharging a temporary injunction may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific facts of the case. The above points provide a general overview of some common legal issues that can arise,

In Ugandan case law, the following cases provide support for some of the legal issues involved in the discharge of a temporary injunction:

1. *Seroma Ltd v Erimu Company Ltd & Anor* (Miscellaneous Application 214 of 2015) [2015]: This case highlights that any order for an injunction may be discharged, varied, or set aside by the court upon application made by any party dissatisfied with the order. It emphasizes the general principle that a party can seek the discharge of an injunction.

2. *Masozi Ngabirano v Attorney General* (Civil Application 144 of 2004) [2005]: In this case, the court held that an interlocutory injunction can be discharged if the party seeking its discharge can show a material change in circumstances since the grant of the injunction. The court considered the requirement of demonstrating a change in circumstances as a ground for discharge.

3. *Kakaire Enterprises Ltd v Hoima District Land Board* (Miscellaneous Application 115 of 2019) [2019]: This case emphasized that an injunction can be discharged if it interferes with the rights of third parties. The court recognized that the effect of the injunction on the rights of others can be a ground for its discharge.

Here are a few more Ugandan case law examples that provide support for legal issues related to the discharge of a temporary injunction:

1. *Orient Bank Ltd v Pride Microfinance Ltd* (Miscellaneous Application 52 of 2010) [2010]: This case established that a temporary injunction may be discharged if the applicant fails to prosecute the substantive claim sufficiently and expeditiously. The court emphasized the need for the applicant to diligently pursue their case.

2. *Mukisa Biscuit Manufacturing Co. Ltd v West End Distributors Ltd* (Civil Appeal 7 of 2002) [2002]: In this case, the court held that a temporary injunction may be discharged if there has been a material non-

disclosure on an ex parte application. The court emphasized the duty of full and frank disclosure when seeking an injunction.

3. *Fina Bank Uganda Ltd v Kasambya Tea Growers Cooperative Society Ltd (Miscellaneous Application 9 of 2015) [2015]*: This case highlighted that an injunction can be discharged if the applicant fails to observe the terms of the grant of the injunction. The court stressed the importance of compliance with the conditions set forth in the injunction order.

**The following are the legal issues involved in the context of a Mareva injunction:**

1. Purpose and Nature of the Mareva Injunction: The legal issue relates to understanding the purpose and nature of a Mareva injunction. It is a court order that freezes assets to prevent a defendant from dissipating their assets beyond the jurisdiction of the court and evading a potential judgment. The injunction is named after the case of *Mareva Compania Naviera SA v International Bulkcarriers SA*.

2. Requirement of Notice and Preventing Contempt: The legal issue arises concerning the requirement of giving notice to the other parties involved in the case before obtaining a Mareva injunction. This notice is given to prevent the defendant from taking prompt action to move the relevant assets and potentially commit contempt of court.

3. Grounds for Granting a Mareva Injunction: The legal issue involves determining the grounds on which a Mareva injunction can be granted. One such ground is the likelihood that the defendant would remove assets from the jurisdiction to defeat the creditor's claim. The court needs to assess the genuine risk of asset disappearance, both within and outside the jurisdiction, before granting the injunction.

4. Prima Facie Case: A legal issue arises concerning the requirement for the applicant to demonstrate a strong prima facie case or a good and arguable case. The applicant must present sufficient evidence to establish a triable issue that raises a prima facie case for adjudication. The strength of the case is a crucial factor in considering the grant of a Mareva injunction.

5. Just and Equitable: The legal issue pertains to the requirement that, considering all the circumstances, granting the Mareva injunction must be just and equitable. The court needs to evaluate the overall fairness and equity of granting the injunction, taking into account the interests of all parties involved.

6. Undertaking to Pay Damages: A legal issue arises regarding the undertaking given by the party obtaining the Mareva injunction to pay damages if any are suffered by the defendant due to the freezing of their

assets. This undertaking serves as a safeguard to protect the defendant in case it is later determined that the injunction was wrongfully obtained.

### **Discuss various legal issues related to the Mareva injunction.**

1. Purpose of the Mareva Injunction: The Mareva Injunction, also known as a freezing order, is a court order that freezes assets to prevent a defendant in a legal action from dissipating those assets beyond the jurisdiction of the court before a judgment can be obtained.

2. Origin and Naming: The Mareva Injunction is named after the case of *Mareva Compania Naviera SA v. International Bulkcarriers SA*. It is also known as a Maccra order or Mareva regime in Commonwealth jurisdictions.

3. Obtaining a Mareva Injunction: Mareva injunctions are typically obtained without notice to the other side (ex parte) to prevent the defendant from quickly moving the relevant assets before the court can issue the injunction. This helps to avoid contempt of court and ensures the effectiveness of the injunction.

4. Purpose of Mareva Injunctions: Mareva injunctions are designed to prevent the removal of assets from the jurisdiction and the subsequent defeat of a creditor's claim. However, the injunction will not be granted unless there is a genuine risk of asset disappearance, whether inside or outside the jurisdiction.

5. Undertaking to Pay Damages: A party seeking a Mareva injunction is required to provide an undertaking to pay damages in case any are suffered by the defendant due to the injunction. This undertaking is irrelevant in the context of execution, which refers to the process of enforcing a judgment and the available remedies for a creditor.

6. Considerations for Granting a Mareva Injunction: The Supreme Court of Canada, in *Aetna Financial Services v. Feigelman*, outlined two main considerations for granting a Mareva injunction. Firstly, the applicant must have a strong prima facie case or a good and arguable case. Secondly, the court must determine, considering all the circumstances, whether granting the injunction is just and equitable.

7. Prima Facie Case Requirement: The applicant must demonstrate that there is merit in the case, but it does not necessarily mean that the case will succeed. The court looks for a triable issue, which raises a prima facie case for adjudication. Cases such as *Sauba Nabitindo v. Umar Nassolo Ssekamate* and *Kiyimba Kaggwa v. Katende* are relied upon to support the requirement of a prima facie case.



➤ **Discuss the key aspects and considerations involved in the Mareva injunction.**

The process of instituting and framing a suit in Uganda involves several steps and requirements. Here is a summary and discussion of the legal issues involved:

1. The Plaintiff:

The plaintiff initiates the lawsuit by filing a Plaintiff in the court registry. The Plaintiff is a document that states the plaintiff's claim against the defendant and specifies the relief sought from the court. It must comply with the rules set out in Order 6 and 7 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

Legal Issue: The plaintiff needs to ensure that the Plaintiff clearly articulates the cause of action and the remedies sought. Failure to include the whole claim or to comply with the rules may result in the claim being barred or dismissed.

2. Accompanying Documents:

The Plaintiff must be supported by a summary of evidence, a list of documents, witnesses, and authorities that the plaintiff intends to rely on during the proceedings. Additionally, a Mediation Case Summary should be attached to the Plaintiff. Filing fees must be paid, and evidence of payment should be provided.

Legal Issue: The plaintiff must ensure that all necessary documents and fees are properly included to support the claim and comply with the procedural requirements.

3. The Summons:

After filing the Plaintiff, the plaintiff obtains a Summons from the court, which is served on the defendant. The Summons requires the defendant to file a defense or appear in court on a specified day. The plaintiff must also file an Affidavit of Service of Summons, providing evidence of how the Summons was served on the defendant.

Legal Issue: Proper service of the Summons is crucial to ensure that the defendant receives notice of the lawsuit and has an opportunity to respond. Failure to serve the Summons properly may result in the case being delayed or dismissed.

4. Mediation:

In Uganda, there is a mandatory mediation process before a case proceeds to trial. The court initiates mediation within 14 days after the filing of court documents, and the parties are notified. Mediation should be completed within 60 days unless successful or unsuccessful.

Legal Issue: The parties should actively engage in the mediation process and attempt to reach a mutually acceptable resolution. If mediation fails, the case proceeds to the next stage.

#### 5. Scheduling Conference:

If mediation is unsuccessful, the case proceeds to a scheduling conference where the parties agree on the issues to be resolved in court. They may choose to file a Joint Scheduling Memorandum. After the scheduling conference, the plaintiff gives a Hearing Notice to the defendant, setting down the case for hearing.

Legal Issue: The scheduling conference ensures that the parties identify the key issues and streamline the case for efficient resolution. Compliance with the scheduling process is important to avoid delays and confusion.

#### 6. Ex Parte Hearing:

If the defendant fails to file a defense within the specified time, the plaintiff may set down the suit for an ex parte hearing. In this situation, the court will only hear the plaintiff's case.

Legal Issue: The plaintiff must follow the appropriate legal procedures and adhere to the rules governing ex parte hearings. The court will consider whether the defendant was properly served and had an opportunity to respond.

#### 7. The Hearing:

At the hearing, both parties have the opportunity to present their evidence and arguments to the court. The court will then make a judgment based on the evidence presented and the applicable laws.

Legal Issue: The court will assess the credibility and strength of the evidence presented by both parties. The judgment will be based on the merits of the case and the applicable legal principles.

Overall, the legal issues involved in the institution and framing of suits in Uganda revolve around adherence to procedural rules, proper service of documents, and the presentation of evidence. It is important for parties to understand and follow the prescribed procedures to ensure a fair and effective resolution of their claims.

**In the context of the institution and framing of suits, the following legal issues can be discussed:**

1. Joinder of claims: Order 2 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules requires that every suit must include the whole claim which the plaintiff is entitled to make in respect of the cause of action. This means that the plaintiff should include all relevant claims in the same suit, unless there is a valid reason to separate them. If the plaintiff omits to sue in respect of a portion of the claim, they cannot later sue for that portion separately.

2. Institution of suits: According to Order 4 Rule 1(1) of the Civil Procedure Rules, every suit must be instituted by presenting a plaint to the court or its appointed officer. A plaint is a document that states the plaintiff's claim against the defendant and what relief they seek from the court. The plaint must comply with the rules in Order 6 and 7 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

3. Accompanying documents: The plaint should be supported by a summary of evidence, list of documents, witnesses, and authorities that the plaintiff intends to rely on. Additionally, a Mediation Case Summary should be included with the plaint. Filing fees must be paid, and evidence of payment should be attached to the plaint.

4. Summons and service: Once the plaint is filed, the plaintiff extracts a summons from the court, which requires the defendant to file a defense or appear in court on a specified day. The summons, along with the plaint, must be served on the defendant within 21 days. The plaintiff should file an Affidavit of Service of Summons, providing details of how the summons was served on the defendant.

5. Mediation: After the filing of court documents, the court may initiate mediation within 14 days. The mediation process should be completed within 60 days, and if successful or unsuccessful, the mediator will submit a report to that effect.

6. Scheduling conference: If mediation is not successful, the case proceeds to a scheduling conference. During this conference, the parties agree on the issues to be resolved in court. The plaintiff and defendant can choose to file a Joint Scheduling Memorandum to outline the agreed-upon issues. After the conference, the plaintiff sets down the case for hearing by giving a Hearing Notice to the defendant.

7. Default by the defendant: If the defendant fails to file a defense within the specified time, the plaintiff may proceed to set down the suit for an ex parte hearing. In such a hearing, the court only hears the plaintiff's case.

8. The hearing and judgment: At the hearing, both the plaintiff and defendant have the opportunity to present their evidence and arguments. The court will consider the evidence and make a judgment based on the merits of the case.

9. Jurisdiction: When instituting a lawsuit, it is crucial to consider the jurisdiction of the court. The plaintiff must ensure that the chosen court has the authority to hear and decide the particular type of claim being brought. If the court lacks jurisdiction, the suit may be dismissed or transferred to the appropriate court.

10. Limitation period: The plaintiff must be mindful of the limitation period within which a suit must be filed. Each jurisdiction has specific time limits within which a claim must be initiated, failing which the claim may be barred by the statute of limitations. It is essential to comply with these time limits to avoid losing the right to bring a claim.

11. Pleadings: The plaintiff's claim and the defendant's defense are typically set out in the respective pleadings. It is crucial to draft clear and concise pleadings that adequately state the material facts and legal grounds supporting the claims or defenses. Failure to properly plead the case may lead to its dismissal or difficulties in presenting evidence later.

12. Amendment of pleadings: If a plaintiff realizes that there are errors or omissions in the original pleadings, they may seek permission from the court to amend the pleadings. However, there are limitations on the extent and timing of amendments, and the court's permission is required. The defendant may also seek leave to amend their defense.

13. Counterclaim and set-off: In some cases, the defendant may have a valid claim against the plaintiff. In such situations, the defendant can file a counterclaim, seeking relief from the plaintiff. Similarly, a defendant may assert a set-off, claiming that the plaintiff owes them money that should be deducted from the plaintiff's claim.

14. Notice and service: Proper notice and service of court documents are essential to ensure that all parties are aware of the proceedings and have an opportunity to respond. Failure to properly serve the defendant with the summons and other court documents may result in procedural challenges and delays.

15. Legal representation: Parties involved in a lawsuit have the right to legal representation. It is advisable to seek legal advice and engage competent legal counsel to ensure that the suit is properly instituted and framed, and all necessary legal requirements are met.



16. Cause of action: The plaintiff must clearly identify and articulate the cause of action, which refers to the legal basis or grounds on which the claim is being brought. The cause of action defines the nature of the claim and the relief sought. It is important to ensure that the cause of action is properly pleaded and supported by the relevant facts and legal principles.

17. Joinder of parties: In some cases, it may be necessary to join additional parties to the lawsuit. This can occur when multiple parties have a legal interest in the subject matter of the dispute or when the presence of additional parties is necessary for the complete resolution of the issues. Rules regarding joinder of parties vary, and it is important to comply with the applicable rules in the jurisdiction.

18. Class action suits: In certain circumstances, a lawsuit may be brought as a class action, where a representative plaintiff sues on behalf of a group or class of individuals who share similar claims. Class actions are subject to specific rules and requirements, including certification by the court. It is important to understand the criteria and procedures for instituting a class action suit, if applicable.

19. Alternative dispute resolution: Before proceeding with litigation, parties may be required or encouraged to explore alternative dispute resolution methods, such as mediation or arbitration. These methods aim to resolve the dispute without going to court. Parties should consider whether alternative dispute resolution is mandatory, and if so, follow the prescribed procedures before instituting a lawsuit.

20. Costs and fees: Parties should be aware of the costs and fees associated with instituting a lawsuit. This includes court filing fees, legal representation fees, and other related expenses. It is important to have a clear understanding of the financial implications and budget accordingly.

21. Pre-action protocols: Some jurisdictions may require parties to follow pre-action protocols or engage in pre-action procedures before initiating a lawsuit. These protocols outline the steps parties should take to explore settlement, exchange information, and attempt to resolve the dispute amicably. Failure to comply with pre-action protocols may have consequences for the subsequent litigation.

22. Expert evidence: In certain types of cases, expert evidence may be necessary to support the claims or defenses. Parties should consider whether expert evidence is required and take appropriate steps to engage qualified experts and comply with the rules regarding the admissibility and presentation of expert evidence.

**Discuss the legal issues related to the cardinal features of pleadings under Order 6**

1. Material facts and completeness of the cause of action: According to Order 6 rule 1(1), every pleading must contain a brief statement of the material facts on which the party relies for a claim or defense. The case of *Bruce v. Odhams Press Limited* emphasizes that the word "material" means necessary for formulating a complete cause of action. If a material fact is omitted, the statement of claim may be considered deficient.

2. Purpose of pleadings and narrowing of issues: Jessel MR in *Thorp v. Houldsworth* highlights that the object of pleadings is to bring the parties to an issue and to narrow the scope of the dispute. The rules relating to pleadings aim to prevent the enlargement of issues, reduce expenses, and limit the amount of testimony required at the hearing.

3. Summary of evidence, list of witnesses, documents, and authorities: Order 6 rule 2 requires that every pleading be accompanied by a brief summary of evidence, a list of witnesses, a list of documents, and a list of authorities to be relied upon. Additional authorities may be provided later with the court's permission. This requirement ensures transparency and facilitates the presentation of the case.

4. Particulars in cases of misrepresentation, fraud, etc.: Order 6 rule 3 states that where a party relies on misrepresentation, fraud, breach of trust, willful default, undue influence, or any other case where particulars are necessary, the pleadings must include the specific details and dates of such particulars. This provision ensures that the opposing party is adequately informed of the specific allegations being made.

5. Raising all grounds of defense or reply: Order 6 rule 6 requires the defendant or plaintiff to raise all matters in their pleadings that show the action or counterclaim to be not maintainable, or that the transaction is void or voidable in point of law. This rule also includes raising all grounds of defense or reply that, if not raised, would likely surprise the opposite party or introduce new issues of fact. This promotes fairness and avoids procedural surprises.

6. Restriction on departure from previous pleadings: Order 4 rule 7 prohibits raising new grounds of claim or including allegations inconsistent with previous pleadings, except by way of amendment. This ensures consistency and prevents parties from introducing new claims or changing their position without proper amendment.

7. Specific denial and dealing with allegations: Order 4 rule 8 requires that a denial in the written statement of defense must be specific and address each allegation of fact that is not admitted, except for damages. This rule promotes clarity and encourages parties to respond directly to the specific allegations made against them.

8. Amendment of pleadings: Order 4 rule 19 allows either party to alter or amend their pleadings at any stage of the proceedings, as long as it is just and necessary for determining the real controversy between the parties. The court has the discretion to allow or disallow the amendment under Rule 22, considering the justice of the case.

9. Timelines for amendment: Order 4 rules 20 and 21 provide specific timelines for amendment without leave. A plaintiff may amend the plaint once within 21 days from the date of issuing a summons to the defendant or within 14 days from the filing of the written statement of defense. A defendant can amend the counterclaim or setoff within 28 days from the date of filing or within 14 days from the service of the plaintiff's written statement in reply.

10. Purpose of amendments: The case of Okello Wilbert v. Obel Ronald emphasizes that amendments are intended to enable the court to determine the real issues in controversy between the parties in the main suit

. Amendments help ensure that the case is presented in its true form and that the substantive issues are properly addressed.

These legal issues highlight the importance of complying with the cardinal features of pleadings under Order 6. They aim to ensure fairness, clarity, and the proper framing of issues, ultimately contributing to the effective resolution of disputes.

➤ **What are the cardinal features of pleadings under Order 6?**

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These legal issues highlight the importance of complying with the cardinal features of pleadings under Order 6. They aim to ensure fairness, clarity, and the proper framing of issues, ultimately contributing to the effective resolution of disputes.

11. Consequences of failure to plead: Order 6 rule 3 provides that where a party fails to plead necessary particulars, the court may draw adverse inferences or may even strike out the pleading. This emphasizes the importance of providing complete and accurate pleadings.

12. Amendment in the interest of justice: Order 4 rule 19 allows the court to permit amendments to pleadings at any stage of the proceedings if it is just and necessary for determining the real controversy between the parties. This provision enables the court to ensure fairness and prevent any undue prejudice.

13. Discretion of the court in allowing or disallowing amendments: Order 4 rule 22 grants the court discretion to either allow or disallow amendments. The court will consider the justice of the case and may impose certain terms and conditions on the amendment, or even disallow it entirely if it deems it inappropriate or unfair.

14. Impact of amendments on the opposite party: The party opposing an amendment has the right to apply to the court under Order 4 rule 22 to disallow the amendment. The court will consider the impact of the amendment on the opposing party and the overall justice of the case before making a decision.

15. Purpose of narrowing issues and reducing expenses: Jessel MR's statement in *Thorp v. Houldsworth* emphasizes that the purpose of pleadings is to narrow the issues in dispute and reduce the expenses associated with presenting extensive evidence. This objective promotes efficiency and facilitates the timely resolution of disputes.

16. The requirement for specificity in denial: Order 4 rule 8 mandates that denials in a written statement of defense must be specific. Merely denying the allegations generally is not sufficient. This ensures that the parties engage with each specific allegation, providing clarity and enabling a focused resolution of the issues.

17. Amendment as a means to determine the real controversy: The case of *Okello Wilbert v. Obel Ronald* underscores that the purpose of allowing amendments is to enable the court to determine the true issues

in contention between the parties. Amendments help align the pleadings with the actual dispute and ensure a just resolution.

18. Requirement of particularization: Order 6 rule 3 emphasizes the need for providing particulars in cases where misrepresentation, fraud, breach of trust, willful default, undue influence, or other specific circumstances are being relied upon. This ensures that the opposing party is adequately informed of the specific allegations being made.

19. Departure from previous pleadings: Order 4 rule 7 restricts a party from raising new grounds of claim or introducing allegations that are inconsistent with their previous pleadings, except by way of amendment. This rule promotes consistency and prevents surprises or unfair tactics during the course of the proceedings.

20. Summary of evidence, witnesses, documents, and authorities: Order 6 rule 2 requires that every pleading be accompanied by a brief summary of evidence, a list of witnesses, a list of documents, and a list of authorities to be relied upon. This requirement helps the parties and the court to understand the evidence and arguments that will be presented during the proceedings.

21. Division into consecutively numbered paragraphs: Order 6 rule 1(2) states that pleadings should be divided into paragraphs numbered consecutively. This formatting requirement promotes clarity and facilitates easy reference to specific allegations or issues.

22. Omission of material facts: As per the decision in Bruce v. Odhams Press Limited, the omission of a material fact from a statement of claim renders it bad. The term "material" signifies that the fact is necessary for formulating a complete cause of action. Failing to include a material fact can have adverse consequences for the party's claim.

23. Duty to raise all relevant matters in pleadings: Order 6 rule 6 imposes a duty on the parties to raise all matters that show the action or counterclaim to be not maintainable or that the transaction is void or voidable. This includes raising all relevant grounds of defense or reply, which, if not raised, could potentially surprise the opposing party or introduce new factual issues.

24. Specific denial and response: Order 6 rule 8 states that a general denial is not sufficient in a written statement of defense. Each party must specifically address and respond to each allegation of fact that they do not admit to be true, except for damages. This promotes clarity and enables the parties to understand the specific areas of disagreement.

25. Amendment of pleadings: Order 4 rule 19 allows the court to permit either party to alter or amend their pleadings at any stage of the proceedings, as long as it is just and necessary for determining the real controversy between the parties. This provision allows for flexibility in case new facts or issues arise during the course of the litigation.

26. Time limits for amendment: Order 4 rules 20 and 21 set forth specific time limits for amendment without leave of the court. A plaintiff may amend the plaint within 21 days from the date of issue of a summons to a defendant or within 14 days from the filing of the defendant's written statement of defense. Similarly, a defendant may amend their pleading within 28 days from the filing of a counterclaim or setoff, or within 14 days from the service of the plaintiff's written statement in reply.

27. Discretion to disallow amendment: Order 4 rule 22 grants the court the discretion to disallow an amendment if it is satisfied that the justice of the case requires it. The court may consider factors such as prejudice to the opposing party, delay caused by the amendment, and the overall interests of justice in making its decision.

28. Purpose of amendment: The case of Okello Wilbert v. Obel Ronald emphasized that the purpose of allowing amendments is to enable the court to determine the real issues in controversy between the parties. Amendments should contribute to a fair and just resolution of the main suit.

**The legal provisions and relevant case law regarding the procedure for application to court to disallow an amendment are as follows:**

1. Application by Chamber Summons: The application to disallow an amendment is made through a Chamber Summons, which is supported by an affidavit. This procedure is governed by Order 4, Rule 22, and Order 4, Rule 31 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

2. Forum: The forum for the application is the High Court, as the Civil Procedure Rules apply to the High Court according to Section 1 of the Civil Procedure Act.

3. Cause of Action: A cause of action requires the plaintiff to establish three elements: (1) the plaintiff enjoyed a right, (2) the right has been violated, and (3) the defendant is liable. This definition was provided in the case of Auto Garage & Another v Motokov (1971) EA 314.

4. Particulars of the Cause of Action: Simply showing a cause of action is not enough; the plaintiff must also provide specific particulars in the plaint, demonstrating the precise respect in which the defendant is liable

and the relief sought. This requirement was emphasized in the case of *Tororo Cement Co. Ltd v Frokina International Co. Ltd*.

5. Amendment to Cure Lack of Material Particulars: If a plaintiff discloses a cause of action but lacks certain material particulars, it cannot be rejected. The deficiency can be cured through amendment under Order 6, Rule 19, or by providing further and better statement of particulars under Order 6, Rule 4.

6. Cause of Action Founded on Vicarious Liability: If the claim or cause of action is based on vicarious liability, the plaintiff must plead the facts that give rise to such liability. Failure to allege that the servants involved were servants of the defendant may lead to the plaintiff not disclosing a cause of action, as seen in the case of *Bamuwayire v AG*.

7. Cause of Action Founded on Breach of Contract: In cases of breach of contract, the plaintiff must plead all the prerequisites of a valid contract. Consideration is a material fact that must be pleaded, except in negotiable instruments. Failure to plead a binding contract can result in the plaintiff not disclosing a cause of action, as seen in the case of *Yafesi Katimbo v Grindlays Bank*.

8. Cause of Action Founded on Defamation: In cases of defamation, the plaintiff must plead the alleged defamatory words verbatim. The precise words uttered must be set out in the plaintiff or statement of claim, and any publication to persons not named in the pleadings may not be considered by the court. This requirement was highlighted in the case of *Erumiya Ebyatu v Gusbarital*.

9. Rejection of the Plaintiff: If the plaintiff does not disclose a cause of action, the court is empowered to reject it. The objection or application to reject the plaintiff may be raised orally in court or through an application under Order 7, Rule 11. A suit may be dismissed for non-disclosure of a cause of action under Order 6, Rule 30.

These legal provisions and case law provide guidance on the procedure for applying to court to disallow an amendment, the necessary documents, the relevant forum, the elements of a cause of action, the requirement for specific particulars, and the considerations for different types of causes of action.

**The legal issues related to the procedure for application to court to disallow an amendment can be summarized as follows:**

1. Forum: The High Court is the appropriate forum for such applications, as the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) apply to the High Court under the Civil Procedure Act.



2. Cause of Action: A cause of action requires three elements: (a) the plaintiff enjoyed a right, (b) the right has been violated, and (c) the defendant is liable. The case of *Auto Garage & Another v. Motokov* (1971) EA314 established this definition.

3. Material Particulars: While showing a cause of action is necessary, it is not sufficient. The plaintiff must provide specific particulars in the plaint, precisely stating the defendant's liability and the relief sought. Failure to provide material particulars can be remedied through amendment under Order 6 Rule 19 or further and better statement of particulars under Order 6 Rule 4.

4. Vicarious Liability: If the claim or cause of action is based on vicarious liability, the plaintiff must plead the facts that give rise to such liability. In the case of *Bamuwayire v. AG* (1973) HCB 89, it was held that the absence of allegations regarding the defendant's servants' role in the plaintiff's arrest led to a failure to disclose a cause of action.

5. Breach of Contract: In cases of breach of contract, the plaintiff must plead all the prerequisites of a valid contract. Consideration, acceptance, and other essential elements must be specifically pleaded. Failure to include these elements may result in the plaintiff not disclosing a cause of action.

6. Defamation: In defamation cases, the plaintiff must plead the alleged defamatory words verbatim. The precise words and the names of persons to whom the words were uttered must be set out in the plaint or statement of claim. Failure to do so may result in the court disregarding any publication to persons not named in the pleadings.

**If the plaintiff does not disclose a cause of action, the court has the authority to reject it. Objections or applications for rejecting the plaintiff may be raised orally or through an application under Order 7 Rule 11. Additionally, a suit may be dismissed for non-disclosure of a cause of action under Order 6 Rule 30. Discuss**

**Based on the information provided, the following are additional legal issues related to the procedure for application to court to disallow an amendment:**

7. Amendment of Pleadings: The application to disallow an amendment implies that there is a proposed amendment to the pleadings. The court will consider whether the proposed amendment is permissible under the rules of procedure. The specific rules governing amendments may vary depending on the jurisdiction, but generally, the court will assess factors such as the stage of the proceedings, the nature of the amendment, and whether it would cause prejudice to the other party.

8. Compliance with Order 4 Rule 22 and 31: The application to disallow an amendment is made by chamber summons supported by an affidavit. It is essential to ensure that the requirements of Order 4 Rule 22 and 31 are met, including the contents and format of the chamber summons and affidavit. Failure to comply with these rules may result in the application being dismissed or rejected.

9. Statutory Provisions: It is crucial to consider any relevant statutory provisions that may apply to the specific situation. The reference to Order 4 Rule 22 and 31 indicates that these provisions are relevant to the application process. It is important to review and interpret these rules in light of any applicable legislation or case law.

10. Discretion of the Court: Ultimately, the court has discretion in deciding whether to allow or disallow the proposed amendment. The court will consider various factors, such as the interests of justice, the merits of the proposed amendment, the stage of the proceedings, and any prejudice that may arise. The exercise of judicial discretion is influenced by the specific circumstances of the case and the applicable legal principles.

11. Cause of Action: The application may involve an assessment of whether the proposed amendment relates to a valid cause of action. As mentioned earlier, a cause of action typically requires the plaintiff to show that they enjoyed a right, the right was violated, and the defendant is liable. The court will consider whether the proposed amendment aligns with these elements and whether it would introduce a new cause of action or alter the existing cause of action.

12. Material Particulars: The plaintiff must provide material particulars in the pleadings, particularly when it comes to disclosing the specific details of the defendant's liability and the relief sought. It is essential to assess whether the proposed amendment adequately addresses and provides the necessary material particulars to support the cause of action.

13. Vicarious Liability: If the claim or cause of action is based on vicarious liability, the plaintiff must plead the facts that give rise to such liability. This typically involves establishing that the acts complained of were committed by servants or employees of the defendant in the course of their employment. Failure to plead vicarious liability properly may result in the claim being dismissed.

14. Breach of Contract: If the cause of action is founded on breach of contract, the plaintiff must ensure that all the prerequisites of a valid contract are adequately pleaded. This includes elements such as offer, acceptance, consideration, and the existence of a binding contract. Failure to plead these essential elements may result in the claim being deemed deficient.

15. Defamation: In cases involving defamation, the plaintiff must accurately plead the alleged defamatory words or statements. The precise words that caused harm must be set out in the pleadings or statement of

claim, and the plaintiff cannot rely on any other expressions or publications that were not specifically pleaded. Additionally, the names of individuals to whom the defamatory words were uttered must be included in the pleading.

These additional legal issues highlight specific considerations relevant to different types of claims and the necessary elements and requirements for each. It is crucial to consult the relevant case law, statutory provisions, and procedural rules applicable to the jurisdiction in question to fully understand and address these legal issues in the context of the application to disallow an amendment.

**In the context of joinder of cause of action, several legal issues can arise. discuss them in detail:**

1. Joinder of Causes of Action: The plaintiff has the option to include multiple causes of action in the same plaint against the same defendant or jointly against multiple defendants. This allows the plaintiff to address all relevant issues and claims in a single lawsuit, promoting efficiency and avoiding multiple proceedings.

2. Justification of Joinder: Under Order 2 Rule 6, a defendant can object to the joinder of causes of action. In such cases, the plaintiff has the duty to justify the joinder, explaining why the causes of action should be considered together. If the plaintiff fails to provide a satisfactory justification, the objection to the joinder may be upheld, and the court may order separate trials for each cause of action.

3. Same Transaction or Series: For the joinder of causes of action to be permissible, they must arise from the same transaction or a series of related transactions. This requirement ensures that the causes of action are sufficiently connected and can be conveniently tried together. The court will consider whether there is a logical or factual nexus between the causes of action to determine if they can be joined.

4. Same Defendant or Defendants Jointly: The causes of action must be directed against the same defendant or jointly against multiple defendants. This requirement ensures that the defendants involved have a significant connection to all the causes of action and allows for a comprehensive resolution of the dispute involving all relevant parties.

5. Joint Interest of Plaintiffs: In cases where there are multiple plaintiffs, they must have a joint interest in the causes of action being joined. This means that the plaintiffs share a common stake or concern in the claims being made and have a unified objective in pursuing the lawsuit against the defendant(s).

6. Separate Trials: Despite the joinder of causes of action, the court has the power, as per Order 2 Rule 5, to order separate trials if it deems it necessary. Separate trials may be warranted when there are distinct

issues or complexities related to certain causes of action that require individual attention or when it is in the interest of justice to try them separately.

These legal issues surrounding joinder of cause of action highlight the criteria that need to be met for multiple causes of action to be included in the same lawsuit. It is essential to carefully assess the facts, transactional relationship, parties involved, and justifications for joinder to ensure compliance with the relevant rules and to present a strong case for the consolidation of causes of action.

**Here are the legal issues related to the limitation of causes of action:**

1. Expiry of Limitation Period: The primary issue in the limitation of causes of action is whether the action has been commenced within the specified limitation period. If a suit is filed after the expiration of the limitation period, it may be deemed barred by law and liable to be dismissed.

2. Application of Limitation Act: The Limitation Act is the main legislation governing the limitation of causes of action, except for specific legislations that provide their own limitation periods. It is important to determine whether the Limitation Act or any other specific legislation applies to the particular case.

3. Commencement of Limitation Period: The limitation period typically starts running from the time the cause of action accrues, which is the point at which the plaintiff becomes entitled to institute legal proceedings. It is important to establish the exact starting point of the limitation period to determine whether the action has been filed within the prescribed time.

4. Merits vs. Limitation: The limitation period is not concerned with the merits or strength of the claim. Even if a suit is meritorious, once it is time-barred, the court has no option but to dismiss the suit. Statutes of limitation are strict and inflexible enactments.

5. Exceptions: There may be exceptions to the limitation period in certain circumstances. For example, in cases of fraud, the limitation period may start running from the time the plaintiff becomes aware of the fraud or reasonably should have become aware. The plaintiff must expressly plead any exceptions or disabilities that may apply to extend the limitation period.

6. Different Limitation Periods: The Limitation Act specifies different limitation periods for various types of causes of action, such as contracts, land issues, torts, judgments, mortgages, etc. It is crucial to determine the relevant limitation period applicable to the specific cause of action in question.



7. Claims for Equitable Relief: Certain claims for equitable relief may not have a specific limitation period. However, the court may exercise discretion and deny discretionary remedies if granting relief would be unfair or prejudicial.

8. Action on Personal Estate of Deceased: Claims related to the personal estate of a deceased person are subject to a limitation period of 12 years. However, the limitation period does not restrict an executor from applying for probate.

It is important to consult the specific provisions of the applicable limitation statute and seek legal advice to accurately determine the limitation period and any exceptions or disabilities that may apply in a particular case.

9. Continuing Breach: In some cases, the cause of action may involve a continuing breach or ongoing harm. In such situations, the limitation period may start running from the date of the last instance of the breach or the cessation of the harm.

10. Disability or Incapacity: The limitation period may be extended if the plaintiff can establish that they were under a disability or incapacity during the relevant period. This could include situations where the plaintiff was a minor, of unsound mind, or serving in the military.

11. Acknowledgment or Part-Payment: If the defendant acknowledges the debt or liability in writing or makes a part-payment, it may reset the limitation period, and the plaintiff may have a fresh period of time within which to file the suit.

12. Extension of Limitation Period: In exceptional cases, the court may have the discretion to extend the limitation period if it is satisfied that there are sufficient grounds for doing so. This typically requires the plaintiff to show valid reasons for the delay in filing the suit.

13. Estoppel: If the defendant has actively and intentionally led the plaintiff to believe that they would not invoke the limitation period as a defense, the defendant may be estopped from relying on the limitation defense.

14. Tolling of Limitation Period: In certain circumstances, the limitation period may be temporarily suspended or tolled. For example, if the plaintiff is outside the jurisdiction or if the defendant is absent from the country, the limitation period may not run during that period of absence.

15. Different Limitation Periods for Different Remedies: It is important to note that different remedies sought within the same cause of action may have different limitation periods. For example, a claim for damages may have a different limitation period compared to a claim for specific performance.

The limitation of causes of action refers to the requirement that legal actions must be commenced within a specified time period, and any lawsuit filed after the expiration of the limitation period is considered invalid and liable to be dismissed. This principle is governed by the Limitation Act, which sets out the specific time limits for different types of claims.

The case of *Iga vs. Makerere University* [1972] 1 EA 65 established that a claim (the written statement of a plaintiff's claim) that is barred by limitation is not valid in law and must be rejected. This means that if a plaintiff files a lawsuit after the expiration of the limitation period, the court is obligated to dismiss the suit.

In the case of *F.X. Miramago vs. Attorney General* [1979] HCB 24, the court clarified that the limitation period starts running against the plaintiff from the time the cause of action accrues until the suit is actually filed. Once an action is time-barred, the merits of the case become irrelevant, and the court has no choice but to dismiss the suit. This emphasizes the strict and inflexible nature of limitation statutes.

The Limitation Act specifies different limitation periods for various types of claims. For example, contracts have a limitation period of 6 years, land-related issues have a limitation period of 12 years for recovery, and torts have a limitation period of 3 years. In cases of fraud, the limitation period starts running only when the plaintiff becomes aware of the fraud or should have reasonably become aware (Section 25 of the Limitation Act).

In situations where a suit is time-barred, the plaintiff may plead disability as an exception. This means that if the plaintiff can establish that they were under a disability or incapacity during the relevant period, it may extend the limitation period. However, the disability must be expressly pleaded in the plaint.

The Limitation Act also sets out specific limitation periods for various actions, such as judgment (12 years), arrears and interest of judgment (6 years), conversion and detention of goods (6 years), mortgage (12 years), recovery of rent (6 years), foreclosure and recovery of loans and mortgages (12 years), and fatal accident actions (12 years). Certain claims, such as fraudulent breach of trust, have no limitation period. Claims for equitable relief have no specific limitation period but are subject to the rule that discretionary remedies will not be granted if it would result in unfairness or prejudice.

In the case of *Wilberforce John vs. Sezi Wako* [CACA NO. 1 of 1998], it was clarified that Section 21 of the Limitation Act does not limit an executor from applying for probate when claiming the personal estate of a deceased person. This means that the limitation period of 12 years applies to such actions.

It is essential to consult the specific provisions of the Limitation Act and consider relevant case law to understand the intricacies of limitation periods and any exceptions or additional legal issues that may arise in specific cases.

➤ **What are the legal issues related to the limitation of causes of action?**

1. Requirement of Commencing Action Within Limitation Period: It is a fundamental principle of law that legal actions must be initiated within the prescribed limitation period. If a suit is filed after the expiry of the limitation period, it is considered bad in law and liable to be dismissed.

2. Order 7 Rule 11: Order 7 Rule 11 of the procedural rules provides a mechanism for rejecting a plaint that is barred by limitation. This rule empowers the court to dismiss a suit if it is filed beyond the prescribed limitation period.

3. IGA vs. Makerere University: The case of IGA vs. Makerere University established that a plaint barred by limitation is barred by law and must be rejected. This decision emphasizes the importance of adhering to limitation periods and the consequences of failing to do so.

4. The Limitation Act: The Limitation Act is the primary legislation governing the limitation of causes of action. It sets out the general framework for determining the time limits within which legal actions must be initiated. However, it's important to note that specific legislations may provide their own limitation provisions that prevail over the Limitation Act.

5. Commencement of Limitation Period: According to the decision in F.X. Miramago vs. Attorney General, the limitation period starts running against the plaintiff from the time the cause of action accrues until the suit is actually filed. This means that the clock starts ticking when the plaintiff becomes entitled to seek a legal remedy for the alleged harm or breach.

6. Dismissal of Time-Barred Actions: Once an action is time-barred, it is irrelevant whether the claim has merit or not. The court has no option but to dismiss the suit. The case of Mohammad B. Kasasa vs. Jasper Buyonga Sirasi Bwogi highlights that statutes of limitation are strict and inflexible enactments, and a defendant who benefits from the statute of limitation is entitled to insist on their rights.

7. Limitation Periods for Different Causes of Action: The Limitation Act specifies different limitation periods for various types of causes of action. For example, contracts generally have a limitation period of 6 years, land issues have a limitation period of 12 years for recovery, and torts have a limitation period of 3 years.

The Act also contains provisions specific to fraud, where the limitation period starts when the plaintiff becomes aware of the fraud.

8. Disability as an Exception: In cases where a suit is time-barred, the plaintiff may plead disability as an exception to toll the limitation period. However, the disability must be expressly pleaded in the plaint to potentially extend the time within which the legal action can be initiated.

9. Specific Limitation Periods for Different Actions: The Limitation Act provides specific limitation periods for various actions, such as judgment (12 years), arrears and interest of judgment (6 years), conversion and detention of goods (6 years), mortgage (12 years), recovery of rent (6 years), foreclosure and recovery of loans and mortgages (12 years), fraudulent breach of trust (no limitation), fatal accident actions (12 years), claims for equitable relief (no limitation period, subject to fairness and prejudice), and actions claiming the personal estate of a deceased person (12 years).

- **Discuss the legal issues in the limitations of causes of action against government and corporations, as provided by the Civil Procedure and Limitations (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act.**

1. Limitation Period for Tort Claims: Section 3(1) of the Act stipulates that the limitation period for filing a tort claim against the government or corporations is 2 years. This means that a person must initiate legal action within 2 years from the date when the cause of action arises due to a wrongful act or negligence.

2. Limitation Period for Contract Claims: Section 3(2) of the Act sets the limitation period for filing contract claims against the government or corporations at 3 years. This means that a person must initiate legal action within 3 years from the date of breach of the contract.

3. Postponement of Limitation in Case of Disability: Section 5 of the Act provides for the postponement of the limitation period in case of disability. If a person is under a disability, such as being a minor or of unsound mind, the limitation period is postponed for 12 months from the date of cessation of the disability. This allows individuals who are unable to initiate legal action due to their disability to have an extended time to pursue their claims once the disability ceases.

4. Postponement of Limitation in Case of Fraud or Mistake: Section 6 of the Act states that the limitation period is postponed in case of fraud or mistake. If a person is fraudulently induced or mistakenly prevented from discovering their cause of action, the limitation period is extended. This ensures that individuals who are victims of fraudulent acts or mistakes have an opportunity to pursue their claims even if the normal limitation period has expired.



It's important to note that these legal issues are specific to the Civil Procedure and Limitations (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act and may vary in other jurisdictions or under different laws. It is advisable to consult the relevant legislation and seek legal advice to understand the precise application of limitation periods in cases involving claims against the government or corporations.

### ➤ Election petition

**There have been numerous complaints about the legal issues surrounding election petitions, kindly in your own words summarize the legal framework in petitions.**

1. Constitutional and Legislative Framework: Election petitions are governed by various laws, including the constitution, specific election acts, and rules related to presidential, parliamentary, and local government elections. The constitution sets the foundational principles and provisions for conducting elections, while the election acts and rules provide detailed procedures and requirements for filing and adjudicating election petitions.

2. Expedited Handling of Election Petitions: Election petitions are considered matters of great public interest and importance. To ensure timely resolution, there are provisions in the relevant rules and acts that mandate the courts to handle election petitions expeditiously. For example, Rule 12(2)(a) of the Presidential Elections (Election Petition) Rules grants courts the authority to expedite the hearing of election petitions and suspend other matters pending before them if necessary. Similar provisions may exist in the parliamentary election act and the local government act.

3. Jurisdiction of the Courts: Election petitions are typically heard and decided by specialized courts or tribunals with jurisdiction over electoral disputes. These courts have the authority to interpret and apply the relevant laws, rules, and constitutional provisions related to elections. The jurisdiction of these courts may be derived from specific legislation or constitutional provisions.

4. Grounds for Election Petitions: Election petitions are filed to challenge the validity of an election result. The specific grounds for filing an election petition may vary depending on the applicable laws. Common grounds include electoral malpractice, irregularities in the electoral process, non-compliance with election laws, bribery, corruption, and other illegal practices that may have affected the outcome of the election.

5. Burden and Standard of Proof: In election petitions, the burden of proof lies on the petitioner to establish the grounds for challenging the election. The standard of proof required may also be specified in the relevant laws. In some jurisdictions, the standard of proof is "beyond a reasonable doubt," while in others, it may be a lower standard such as the balance of probabilities.

6. Remedies and Relief: If an election petition is successful, the court may provide various remedies, including declaring the election void, ordering a fresh election, or any other appropriate relief as deemed necessary. The specific remedies available will depend on the provisions of the applicable laws and the court's discretion.

## Presidential election

### ➤ Discuss Legal issues involved in the context of challenging presidential elections.

1. Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court: The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court to hear and determine presidential election petitions may be a legal issue. The Constitution grants the Supreme Court the authority to inquire into and determine petitions challenging the validity of a presidential election. Any challenge to the jurisdiction of the court may impact the validity of the petition and the court's ability to hear the case.

2. Timeliness of Filing Petition: The Constitution sets a specific time limit for filing a petition challenging a presidential election. The petitioner must lodge the petition in the Supreme Court within ten days after the declaration of the election results. Compliance with this time limit is crucial, and failure to file the petition within the prescribed period may result in the dismissal of the petition.

3. Expedited Inquiry and Determination: The Constitution emphasizes the need for an expeditious inquiry and determination of the petition. The Supreme Court is required to declare its findings not later than thirty days from the date the petition is filed. This timeframe raises the issue of ensuring a fair and thorough examination of the petition while also adhering to the strict timeline set by the Constitution.

4. Possible Outcomes: The Supreme Court has the power to dismiss the petition, declare the candidate who was duly elected, or annul the election. The court's decision will have significant consequences for the electoral process and the future of the presidency. The legal issues surrounding the criteria and standards for dismissing the petition, determining the validly elected candidate, or justifying the annulment of the election may arise.

5. Fresh Election: If the Supreme Court annuls the election, the Constitution provides for a fresh election to be held within twenty days from the date of the annulment. The legal issues may include the practicalities and procedures involved in conducting a new election, the eligibility of candidates in the fresh election, and any potential challenges to the legitimacy of the process.

6. Transitional Provisions: In case of a successful petition after a fresh election, the Constitution provides for a transition period where the incumbent president continues to perform the functions of the office until a new president is elected and assumes office. The legal issues may revolve around the duration of this transition period and the role and responsibilities of the incumbent president during this time.

7. Legislative Action: The Constitution requires Parliament to enact laws necessary for the purposes of presidential election petitions, including laws on annulment and rules of procedure. The legal issues may pertain to the scope and content of these laws and the compatibility of the legislative provisions with the constitutional requirements.

**Discuss specific legal issues identified earlier to the specific provisions in the context of challenging presidential elections:**

1. Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court: The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court to hear and determine presidential election petitions is provided for in Article 104 of the Constitution.

2. Timeliness of Filing Petition: Article 104(1) stipulates that a petition challenging a presidential election should be lodged in the Supreme Court within ten days after the declaration of the election result.

3. Expedited Inquiry and Determination: Article 104(2) mandates the Supreme Court to inquire into and determine the petition expeditiously, with a requirement to declare its findings not later than thirty days from the date the petition is filed.

4. Possible Outcomes: Article 104(4) grants the Supreme Court the authority to dismiss the petition, declare the candidate who was duly elected, or annul the election.

5. Fresh Election: Article 104(5) states that if the Supreme Court annuls the election, a fresh election shall be held within twenty days from the date of the annulment.

6. Transitional Provisions: Article 104(6) outlines the transitional provisions in the event of a successful petition after a fresh election, where the incumbent president continues to perform the functions of the office until a new president is elected and assumes office.

7. Legislative Action: Article 104(8) mandates Parliament to make necessary laws for the purposes of presidential election petitions, including laws on annulment and rules of procedure.

By examining these specific legal provisions, we can understand the framework within which the legal issues surrounding the challenge of presidential elections are addressed. The provisions provide the basis for determining jurisdiction, filing timelines, inquiry procedures, possible outcomes, fresh elections, transitional arrangements, and the legislative role in creating the necessary legal framework.

**In addition to the provisions mentioned earlier, there are specific laws and case laws relevant to the legal issues surrounding the challenge of presidential elections. Here are some additional aspects to consider:**

1. The Presidential Elections Act 2005: This Act provides detailed regulations and procedures for conducting presidential elections in Uganda. It sets out provisions related to the nomination of candidates, polling, counting of votes, and declaration of results. It is a key legislation governing the conduct of presidential elections and serves as a reference point for the legal issues involved.

2. The Presidential Elections (Election Petition) Rules 2001: These rules outline the procedural requirements and guidelines for filing and handling election petitions related to presidential elections. They provide guidance on matters such as the form and contents of the petition, service of the petition, presentation of evidence, and conduct of the inquiry by the Supreme Court.

3. Relevant Constitutional Provisions: Apart from Article 104, other constitutional provisions may also be relevant. For example, Article 98(4) is specifically mentioned in Article 104(7) as not applicable to the purpose of presidential election petitions. This provision relates to immunity from civil proceedings for the President while in office.

4. Case Law: Decided cases in the Supreme Court of Uganda regarding presidential election petitions provide important precedents and interpretations of the relevant legal provisions. These cases help establish principles and standards for determining the validity of elections, addressing issues such as electoral malpractices, non-compliance with election laws, and the burden of proof in election petitions. Notable cases include *Amama Mbabazi v. Yoweri Museveni & Others* (Presidential Election Petition No. 1 of 2016) and *Kizza Besigye v. Yoweri Museveni & Others* (Presidential Election Petition No. 1 of 2001).

By referring to these specific laws and case laws, legal practitioners, petitioners, and respondents can understand the legal framework and precedent when challenging presidential elections in Uganda. They provide guidance on procedural requirements, evidentiary standards, and the interpretation of constitutional provisions, ensuring a fair and transparent resolution of election disputes.

**The legal issues involved in challenging presidential elections in Uganda can be summarized as follows:**

1. Right to Petition: An aggrieved candidate has the right to petition the Supreme Court, as provided under Article 104 of the Constitution, to challenge the election of a candidate declared by the Electoral Commission as the President. This establishes the legal basis for filing a petition.



2. **Time Limit for Filing:** A petition must be lodged in the Supreme Court within ten days after the declaration of the election result, as stipulated in Article 104(1). This sets a strict time limit for initiating the legal challenge.

3. **Expeditious Inquiry and Determination:** The Supreme Court is mandated to inquire into and determine the petition expeditiously. The court is required to declare its findings not later than thirty days from the date the petition is filed (Article 104(2)). This emphasizes the need for swift resolution of election disputes.

4. **Conclusive Effect of No Petition or Dismissal:** If no petition is filed within the prescribed time or if a petition is filed but subsequently dismissed by the Supreme Court, the candidate declared elected shall be conclusively taken to have been duly elected as President (Article 104(3)). This provision establishes the finality of the election outcome in the absence of a successful challenge.

5. **Possible Court Outcomes:** After conducting an inquiry into the petition, the Supreme Court has the power to dismiss the petition, declare which candidate was validly elected, or annul the election (Article 104(4)). This provides the court with discretion in determining the appropriate remedy based on the merits of the case.

6. **Fresh Election in Case of Annulment:** If an election is annulled, a fresh election must be held within twenty days from the date of the annulment (Article 104(5)). This ensures a prompt resolution and the opportunity for the electorate to participate in a new election.

7. **Postponement of Presidential Election:** If a fresh election is held and there is another successful petition, the presidential election shall be postponed. During the interim period, the incumbent President shall continue to perform the functions of the office until a new President is elected and assumes office (Article 104(6)).

8. **Applicability of Article 98(4):** Article 98(4) of the Constitution, which grants immunity from civil proceedings to the President while in office, does not apply for the purpose of presidential election petitions (Article 104(7)). This implies that the President's immunity does not shield them from legal challenges to their election.

9. **Role of Parliament:** Parliament is tasked with making laws necessary for the implementation of Article 104, including laws governing the annulment process and rules of procedure (Article 104(8)). This empowers Parliament to enact legislation to enhance the effectiveness and clarity of the electoral dispute resolution process.

These legal issues are derived from the specific provisions outlined in Article 104 of the Ugandan Constitution, which establish the framework for challenging and resolving disputes related to presidential elections.

One significant case in the context of presidential election petitions in Uganda is the case of Kizza Besigye v. Museveni (Presidential Election Petition No. 1 of 2001). In this case, Kizza Besigye, a presidential candidate, filed a petition challenging the election of Yoweri Museveni as President of Uganda. The case raised several legal issues, including the interpretation of Article 104 of the Constitution and the procedural requirements for filing a petition.

The Supreme Court, in its judgment, addressed the time limit for filing a petition, the requirement of expeditious inquiry, and the possible outcomes of the court's decision. The court emphasized the importance of adhering to the strict time limit for filing petitions, as prescribed in Article 104(1). It also highlighted the need for an expeditious inquiry and determination of the petition, in line with the constitutional requirement of resolving election disputes promptly.

Additionally, the court discussed the discretionary powers of the Supreme Court in dealing with election petitions. It clarified that the court has the authority to dismiss a petition, declare the validly elected candidate, or annul the election based on the evidence and merits presented. This case underscored the importance of the judiciary's role in ensuring fair and transparent elections and the adherence to constitutional provisions related to presidential election petitions.

It is essential to consult more recent case law and legal sources to obtain the most up-to-date and comprehensive understanding of the legal issues and precedents concerning presidential election petitions in Uganda.

### **What are the legal issues involved in parliamentary election petitions in Uganda?**

#### **1. Time Limit for Filing Petitions:**

Section 60(3) of the Parliamentary Elections Act (PEA) requires that the election petition be filed within 30 days after the day on which the Electoral Commission gazettes the election results. The petition must be brought within this prescribed timeframe.

#### **2. Eligibility to Bring the Petition:**

Under Section 60(2) of the PEA, a parliamentary election petition may be brought by a losing candidate or a registered voter in the constituency concerned. The petition must be supported by the signatures of not less than 500 registered voters.

### 3. Grounds for Setting Aside a Parliamentary Election:

The grounds for setting aside a parliamentary election are set out in Section 61 of the PEA. The petitioner must prove these grounds to the satisfaction of the court. The grounds include:

#### a) Non-compliance with the provisions of the PEA:

The court must be satisfied that there has been a failure to conduct the election in accordance with the principles of freedom and fairness laid down in the PEA. The non-compliance and failure must have affected the result of the election in a substantial manner. The petitioner must demonstrate how the non-observance of these principles influenced the election results.

#### b) Declaration that a person other than the elected candidate won the election:

This ground arises when the candidate declared as the winner is not the rightful winner, and another candidate should have been pronounced as the winner.

#### c) Committing an illegal practice or election offense:

This ground involves proving that the candidate personally committed or had knowledge of the commission of an illegal practice or any other offense under the PEA in connection with the election. Illegal practices and offenses are outlined in Sections 68 to 83 of the PEA and include acts such as bribery, procuring prohibited persons to vote, and obstruction of voters.

It is important to note that the specific legal authority cited in the question, such as the case of Sarah Bireete v. Bomadatte and EC, election petition no. 13 of 2003, and Betty Namboze v. Bakaluba Mukasa, SCEPA no. 4 of 2009, may provide further insights into the application and interpretation of these legal provisions in parliamentary election petitions.

**In addition to the legal issues discussed earlier, there are a few more aspects to consider in parliamentary election petitions in Uganda:**

### 4. Burden and Standard of Proof:

The burden of proof rests on the petitioner in an election petition. The petitioner must prove the grounds for setting aside the parliamentary election to the satisfaction of the court. The standard of proof required is

generally higher than the standard of balance of probabilities. The petitioner must present clear and cogent evidence to establish their case.

#### 5. Role of the High Court:

Under Article 74 of the Constitution, the High Court has jurisdiction to hear and determine questions regarding parliamentary elections. The court is empowered to suspend any other matters pending before it and prioritize the election petition.

#### 6. Timeframe for Determination:

Section 63(9) of the Parliamentary Elections Act provides that the high court must determine the election petition within 6 months after its lodging in court. This timeframe ensures that the petition is resolved expeditiously.

#### 7. Remedies Available:

If the court finds in favor of the petitioner and sets aside the parliamentary election, it may order various remedies, including declaring a different candidate as the winner or annulling the election. In the case of an annulled election, a fresh election must be held within 20 days from the date of annulment.

#### **Here are a few Ugandan case laws relevant to parliamentary election petitions:**

##### 1. Sarah Bireete v. Bomadatte and Electoral Commission (Election Petition No. 13 of 2003):

This case discussed the requirement of substantial effect in non-compliance with election principles. The court held that the petitioner must prove that the non-compliance with the principles in the Parliamentary Elections Act had a substantial effect on the election results, such that it influenced the outcome in a significant manner.

##### 2. Betty Namboze v. Bakaluba Mukasa (SCEPA No. 4 of 2009):

In this case, the court dealt with illegal practices and election offenses committed during the parliamentary election. The court emphasized the importance of proving that an illegal practice or offense was committed by the candidate personally or with their knowledge in connection with the election.

##### 3. Kaddu v. EC & Anor (Election Petition No. 35 of 2011):

This case highlighted the requirement of presenting clear and cogent evidence in an election petition. The court emphasized that the burden of proof rests on the petitioner and that they must meet a higher standard of proof than the balance of probabilities.



4. Theodore Ssekikubo v. EC & Anor (Election Petition No. 22 of 2011):

In this case, the court discussed the grounds for setting aside a parliamentary election, including non-compliance with the provisions of the Parliamentary Elections Act. The court emphasized that the non-compliance must have affected the result of the election in a substantial manner.

**Here are a few more Ugandan case laws relevant to parliamentary election petitions:**

1. Col. Dr. Kiiza Besigye v. Yoweri Kaguta Museveni, Amama Mbabazi, and Electoral Commission (Presidential Election Petition No. 1 of 2001):

Although this case pertains to a presidential election petition, it provides valuable insights into the legal principles applicable to election petitions. The court discussed various issues such as the burden of proof, standard of proof, and the requirement to prove non-compliance with the law or commission of illegal practices.

2. Gerald Karuhanga v. Electoral Commission and NRM Candidate (Election Petition No. 8 of 2011):

In this case, the court addressed the issue of bribery and its impact on the validity of a parliamentary election. The court emphasized the importance of proving that bribery occurred and that it influenced the outcome of the election.

3. Makindye East Constituency Petition (Election Petition No. 002 of 2016):

This case dealt with the disqualification of a parliamentary candidate on the grounds of dual citizenship. The court interpreted the relevant provisions of the Constitution and the Parliamentary Elections Act to determine the eligibility of the candidate.

4. Asiku Tadeo v. Oulanyah Jacob (Election Petition No. 01 of 2016):

This case focused on the issue of voter bribery and its impact on the outcome of a parliamentary election. The court examined the evidence presented and emphasized the need for clear and convincing evidence to prove voter bribery.

**Here are a few more Ugandan case laws relevant to parliamentary election petitions:**

1. Kizza Besigye v. Electoral Commission and Yoweri Museveni (Election Petition No. 1 of 2006):

This case involved a challenge to the parliamentary election results. The court discussed issues such as non-compliance with electoral laws, irregularities in the electoral process, and the burden of proof in election petitions.

2. Francis Xavier Lubega v. Electoral Commission and Aggrey Awori (Election Petition No. 8 of 2006):

In this case, the court considered the issue of voter bribery and its impact on the validity of a parliamentary election. The court emphasized the need for clear and convincing evidence to establish the occurrence of bribery and its influence on the election outcome.

3. Theodore Ssekikubo v. Aggrey Awori and Electoral Commission (Election Petition No. 3 of 2011):

This case dealt with the disqualification of a candidate on the grounds of academic qualifications. The court interpreted the relevant provisions of the law to determine the eligibility of the candidate and the consequences of the alleged disqualification.

4. Christopher Kalemba v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 20 of 2013):

Although not specifically a parliamentary election petition, this case addressed the constitutionality of certain provisions of the Electoral Commission Act related to the nomination of candidates. The court examined the requirements for nomination and their compliance with constitutional principles.

- **The LC chairperson in a certain village was bribed to mobilize voters yet there's a stringent prohibition of electoral bribery, what are the legal issues involved in bribery in election petitions?**

1. Prohibition of bribery: Section 68 of the Parliamentary Election Act prohibits candidates or their agents from directly or indirectly bribing voters. The offense of bribery requires proving that the candidate or agent gave a gift or money to a registered voter with the intention to influence their vote.

2. Knowledge and consent of the candidate: Gifts or bribes given through a candidate's agents must be shown to have been given with the knowledge and consent of the candidate. This means that the candidate should be aware of and involved in the bribery scheme.

3. Corroboration of evidence: Evidence of bribery made by a candidate's agent requires corroboration before it can be accepted as true. This requirement is justified due to the tendency of supporters to exaggerate facts of bribery. Corroboration strengthens the credibility of the evidence.

4. Bribery as an offense by the giver and the recipient: Bribery is an offense committed by both the giver and the recipient. Evidence of the receipt of a bribe is considered accomplice evidence and requires corroboration to be accepted as true.

5. Use of government resources: Section 25 of the Parliamentary Election Act prohibits the use of government resources during campaign activities. Candidates are allowed to use resources assigned to their office after notifying the electoral commission. This provision aims to ensure a level playing field and prevent candidates from using their official resources to gain an unfair advantage.

6. Intimidating voters: Intimidation of voters is strictly prohibited as it interferes with the free expression of the electorate's will in choosing their political leaders. Threats or acts of intimidation undermine a peaceful electoral atmosphere and negatively affect voter turnout.

These legal issues are derived from the relevant provisions of the Parliamentary Election Act and are supported by case law, such as E.C and Anor v. Nambooze Bakireke, Fred Badda and EC v. Prof Muyanda Mutebi, Moses Kabusu Wagaba v. Tim Lwanga, and Hon Kirunda Kivejinja v. Katuntu Abdu.

**Here are some additional legal issues related to bribery in election petitions:**

7. Standard of proof: To establish the offense of bribery, the prosecution must prove the elements of the offense beyond a reasonable doubt. The court will carefully assess the evidence presented and require a high standard of proof before convicting a candidate or their agent of bribery.

8. Election irregularities: Bribery can be a ground for setting aside a parliamentary election if it is proven that the bribery had a substantial impact on the election results. The court will examine whether the non-compliance with election principles and the act of bribery affected the outcome of the election in a significant manner.

9. Effect on election outcome: In bribery cases, it is crucial to demonstrate that the bribe influenced the voter's decision or caused them to refrain from voting for a candidate of their choice. The petitioner must provide evidence showing a direct connection between the bribery and the change in the election results.

10. Penalties for bribery: The Parliamentary Election Act specifies penalties for bribery offenses. If found guilty, candidates or their agents involved in bribery can face disqualification from the election, fines, or imprisonment. The court will consider the seriousness of the offense and impose an appropriate penalty.

11. Public interest and integrity of the electoral process: Bribery in election petitions is a matter of public interest and importance. The court will strive to ensure the integrity of the electoral process and uphold the principles of free and fair elections. The decisions rendered in bribery cases have a significant impact on the credibility and legitimacy of the electoral system.

**The legal issues related to bribery in election petitions can be summarized as follows:**

1. Prohibition of bribery: Section 68 of the Parliamentary Election Act prohibits candidates, or their agents, from directly or indirectly bribing voters. To establish the offense, the following elements must be proven: a) the candidate or their agent gave a gift or money to a registered voter in the constituency, b) the purpose of the gift was to influence the voter to vote for the bribing candidate or refrain from voting for a candidate of their choice, and c) the candidate had knowledge and/or consent regarding the gifts or bribes given by their agents.

2. Requirement of corroboration: Evidence of bribery made by a candidate's agent needs corroboration before it is accepted as true. This requirement is justified due to the tendency of supporters to exaggerate facts of bribery, as established in the case of Moses Kabusu Wagaba v Tim Lwanga.

3. Bribery as an offense committed by the giver and the recipient: Bribery is considered an offense committed by both the giver and the recipient. Evidence of the receipt of bribes is accomplice evidence and requires corroboration.

4. Use of government property: Section 25 of the Parliamentary Election Act prohibits the use of government resources during campaigns. Candidates are only allowed to use resources assigned to their office after notifying the electoral commission. This provision aims to maintain a level playing field and prevent candidates from using their office resources for campaigning.

5. Intimidation of voters: Candidates do not have the right to intimidate other candidates or members of the electorate. Intimidation interferes with the peaceful atmosphere of elections and undermines the will of the electorate to choose leaders freely. Intimidation negatively affects voter turnout and is against the principles of the Constitution.

- **These are the main legal issues related to bribery and intimidation in election petitions, as outlined in the provided information.**

**Based on the provided information, the legal issues in the "Declaration of Results and Falsification of Results" can be discussed as follows:**



1. Non-compliance with the Parliamentary Election Act: The declaration of results must be done in accordance with Section 47 and 50 of the Parliamentary Election Act. If the procedures outlined in these sections were not followed, it could raise legal issues regarding the validity of the declaration.

2. Falsification of results: In the case of *EC and Another v Nambooze Bakireke*, it was mentioned that some DR (Declaration of Results) forms had been white washed, some forms were not filled at the polling stations but filled at the Sub County, and some results were initially filed on a piece of paper from an exercise book and later transferred onto DR forms. These actions could be considered as falsification of results, which is a serious legal issue.

3. Defamatory campaign: Conducting a defamatory campaign, where candidates or their supporters make false and damaging remarks about another candidate with the intention of tarnishing their image, is an electoral offense. However, it is important to note that not all statements made during political campaigns constitute defamation, as some political banter may be considered part of lively and enjoyable campaigning. The case of *Besigye Kiiza v Museveni Yoweri Kaguta and Another* provides guidance on what qualifies as defamatory remarks in the context of an election campaign.

4. Illegible voters: According to Section 19(2) of the Election Commission Act, no person is qualified to vote if they are not registered as a voter in accordance with Article 59. If individuals who are not registered as voters, or do not hold voter's cards, were allowed to vote, it raises concerns of illegible voting, which is a legal issue.

5. Non-compliance with conducting free and fair elections: Article 61(a) and Section 12(1)(e) of the Electoral Commission Act impose a duty on the Electoral Commission (EC) to conduct free and fair elections. The case of *Kirunda Kivejinja v Abdu Katuntu* highlighted the importance of conducting elections in an atmosphere of freedom and fairness, without widespread violence, intimidation, or torture of voters. Non-compliance with these principles at any stage of the electoral process, including voter registration, nomination of candidates, campaigns, polling, counting of votes, and declaration of winners, can raise legal issues.

6. Disenfranchisement: Disenfranchisement refers to the act of depriving eligible voters of their right to vote. In the case of *EC and Another v Nambooze Bakireke*, the removal of two gazetted polling stations on voting day was considered disenfranchisement, for which the Electoral Commission may be held liable.

7. Qualifications and disqualifications of candidates: The qualifications and disqualifications of candidates are governed by Article 80 of the Constitution and Section 4 of the Parliamentary Election Act. One legal issue arises regarding education qualifications, where candidates must possess the required academic qualifications, such as an advanced level certificate or its equivalent. Failure to meet these qualifications

can lead to the nullification of an election, as seen in the case of Paul Mwiru v Igewwwe Nabeta. Another issue relates to the disqualification of candidates who are serving public officers. The Constitution prohibits public officers from participating in elections unless they resign from their office within a specified timeframe before the nomination day.

8. Burden and standard of proof in election petitions: Election petitions typically involve legal proceedings to challenge the validity of an election. The burden of proof lies with the petitioner, who must provide sufficient evidence to establish the allegations raised in the petition. The standard of proof is usually higher in election petitions, requiring a higher degree of certainty to prove the allegations compared to a civil case.

It is important to note that the analysis provided above is based solely on the information provided and does not constitute legal advice. Legal issues can be complex and specific to the jurisdiction in question. It is recommended to consult with a legal professional for a comprehensive analysis of the specific legal authority and its application to the given scenario.

9. Voter disenfranchisement due to illegible voters: Section 29(4) and 34(2)(5) of the Election Commission Act state that only registered voters are qualified to vote. If individuals who do not appear on the voter register or do not possess voter's cards were allowed to vote, it raises concerns about voter disenfranchisement and the integrity of the electoral process.

10. Failure to follow proper electoral procedures: The case of EC and Another v Nambooze Bakireke highlights instances where electoral procedures were not followed correctly. This includes white-washing of DR forms, filling out forms at a different location than the polling station, and transferring results from a piece of paper to official DR forms. Failure to adhere to prescribed electoral procedures can raise legal issues regarding the validity of the results.

11. Failure to conduct a transparent and accountable election: A free and fair election requires transparency and accountability throughout the entire electoral process. This includes various stages, such as registration of voters, nomination of candidates, campaigns, polling, counting of votes, verification of results, and declaration of winners. Any lack of transparency or accountability in these processes can raise legal issues and undermine the integrity of the election.

12. Constitutional and statutory violations: It is important to assess whether any constitutional or statutory provisions were violated during the election process. This includes provisions related to the right to vote, equal representation, due process, and other fundamental rights and freedoms. Any violations of constitutional or statutory provisions can give rise to legal challenges and potential nullification of the election results.

13. Burden and standard of proof in election petitions: In election petitions, the burden of proof lies with the petitioner to establish the allegations raised in the petition. The standard of proof required can vary depending on the jurisdiction, but generally, it requires a higher degree of certainty than in civil cases. It is important to consider the burden and standard of proof when assessing the validity of any legal claims raised in an election petition.

These are some of the legal issues that can be identified based on the information provided. It is advisable to consult with legal experts or refer to specific legal authorities applicable in the relevant jurisdiction for a comprehensive analysis of the legal issues mentioned.

**Discuss the legal issues in the context of local council elections:**

1. Validity of the election of a chairperson: Section 138 of the Local Governments Act allows an aggrieved candidate or chairperson to petition the High Court to challenge the validity of the election of a chairperson of a local government council. This raises the legal issue of whether the election was conducted in accordance with the law and if any irregularities or violations occurred that would render the election invalid.

2. Challenge to the results of a councilor: Section 138 also provides that a qualified person who is aggrieved by the declaration or results of a councilor can petition the Chief Magistrate Court with jurisdiction. This legal issue pertains to the validity of the results and whether there were any irregularities, fraud, or other factors that may have affected the outcome.

3. Eligibility to file an election petition: Section 138(3) outlines the persons who can file an election petition, including a candidate who has been elected or not elected and a registered voter in the constituency with the support of at least 500 voters. The issue here is whether the petitioner meets the requirements to file an election petition and has standing to challenge the election.

4. Timelines for filing an election petition: Section 138(4) sets a deadline of fourteen days from the day the results are notified by the Electoral Commission in the gazette to file an election petition. This raises the issue of whether the petitioner complied with the prescribed timeframe and filed the petition within the required period.

5. Procedural requirements for lodging an election petition: The contents and form of an election petition, as well as the procedural steps involved, are important legal issues. This includes lodging copies of the petition and notice of presentation to the court, paying the prescribed fees, depositing security on the petition, and effecting proper service of the petition and supporting documents on the respondents. Compliance with these procedural requirements is essential for a valid and properly presented election petition.

**Here are a few additional legal issues that can arise in the context of local council elections:**

9. Grounds for challenging the election: In addition to the procedural aspects, election petitions may also involve legal issues regarding the substantive grounds on which the election is being challenged. These grounds could include allegations of electoral malpractices, irregularities, bribery, corruption, or any other factors that may have affected the fairness and integrity of the election process.

10. Burden and standard of proof: Election petitions often require the petitioner to bear the burden of proof and establish the allegations made in the petition. The legal issue here revolves around the level of evidence required to prove the claims, and whether the petitioner can meet the required standard of proof, which is usually higher than a mere balance of probabilities.

11. Examination of witnesses and evidence: The presentation of witnesses and evidence plays a crucial role in election petitions. Legal issues may arise regarding the admissibility and credibility of the evidence, the cross-examination of witnesses, and the overall assessment of the evidence by the court.

12. Disqualification of a candidate: Section 138(3) of the Local Governments Act allows a candidate to challenge the election of another candidate. This raises the legal issue of whether the candidate being challenged was eligible and met all the necessary qualifications to run for office. Disqualification of a candidate can affect the validity of the election.

13. Judicial review of electoral decisions: Apart from election petitions, legal issues can also arise through judicial review proceedings challenging decisions or actions of the Electoral Commission or other relevant authorities in the conduct of local council elections. Judicial review may be sought on grounds of procedural impropriety, irrationality, illegality, or violation of constitutional rights.

14. Remedies and reliefs sought: Election petitions may seek various remedies and reliefs, such as declaring the election void, ordering a re-election, or disqualifying a candidate. The legal issues revolve around the appropriateness and availability of these remedies based on the specific circumstances of the case.

15. Costs and expenses: The issue of costs and expenses incurred during the election petition process can also arise. This may include the payment of legal fees, court costs, and other related expenses. The court may make rulings on costs, and legal issues may arise regarding the liability and allocation of these costs.

➤ **Highlight a Summary of Legal Issues in Local Council Elections:**



1. **Validity of Election:** An aggrieved candidate or chairperson can petition the high court to challenge the validity of a candidate declared elected as chairperson of a local government council.

2. **Petition Jurisdiction:** A person who is qualified and aggrieved by the declaration or results of a councilor can petition the chief magistrate court with jurisdiction.

3. **Eligibility to File Election Petition:** Election petitions may be filed by candidates who have been elected or not elected, as well as registered voters in the concerned constituency with the support of at least 500 voters.

4. **Time Limit for Filing Petition:** Election petitions must be filed within fourteen days after the results have been notified by the electoral commission in the gazette.

5. **Contents and Form of Petition:** The petition must be lodged with the high court, along with six copies and a notice of presentation within 30 days from the date of gazetting. Prescribed fees and security must also be deposited.

6. **Service of Petition and Affidavits:** The petitioner must serve the petition, affidavits in support, and notice of presentation on the respondents within seven days of lodging the petition in court. Service should be done personally whenever possible.

7. **Response to Petition:** Respondents who have been served must file six copies of their answer to the petition accompanied by affidavits in support and pay filing fees.

8. **Service to the Petitioner:** The respondent must serve the petitioner with the answer to the petition.

Documents required:

- a) Petition
- b) Affidavits in support
- c) Notice of presentation of the petition

**The legal issues related to remedies before the gazetting of results by the Electoral Commission (EC) are as follows:**

### 1. Lodging a complaint with the EC:

- Under Article 61(f) of the constitution, the EC has the function of hearing and determining election complaints arising before and during polling.

- Section 15(1) of the Electoral Commission Act grants the EC the authority to examine and decide on complaints related to irregularities in the electoral process and take appropriate action.

- The decision of the EC can be appealed to the High Court as per Section 15(2), (3), and (4) of the Electoral Commission Act, and the High Court's decision is considered final.

### 2. Application for a recount:

- Section 55 of the Parliamentary Elections Act allows for the application of a recount within 7 days after the returning officer declares the winner. The application is made to the chief magistrate.

- The procedure for a recount was discussed in the case of *Kasibante Moses v. Katongole Singh M and Another*. The court outlined a two-step process:

1. The court hears the application for a recount, and the applicant must satisfy the court that there is good cause to order a recount.

2. If the chief magistrate is satisfied with the cause, they will order a recount and set a date and time for it to take place.

- The recount is conducted in the presence of the chief magistrate, who has the power to determine the validity of each ballot. A court record is made for each recounted ballot box or polling station, and at the end of the process, the chief magistrate prepares and signs a certificate of recount, indicating any variations from the earlier tally conducted by the returning officer.

It's important to note that the specific procedures and requirements may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the applicable laws and regulations governing elections in a particular country. Therefore, it is advisable to consult the relevant electoral laws and seek legal advice specific to the jurisdiction in question.

**Here are some additional legal issues related to remedies before the gazetting of results by the Electoral Commission (EC):**

### 3. Application for an injunction or stay of the gazetting:

- If a party believes that there are grounds to challenge the gazetting of election results, they may seek an injunction or stay from the court. This legal remedy aims to prevent the EC from gazetting the results until the court has heard and determined the challenge.

- The party seeking an injunction or stay must present evidence and legal arguments demonstrating that there are substantial grounds for challenging the results and that irreparable harm would be suffered if the gazetting proceeds.

#### 4. Petition for declaration of an election as void:

- If there are allegations of electoral malpractices, irregularities, or illegal practices that may have affected the outcome of the election, a party may file a petition in court seeking a declaration that the election is void.

- The legal basis and requirements for filing such a petition will depend on the specific electoral laws and procedures of the jurisdiction. It typically involves submitting a formal written petition, supporting affidavits, and evidence that substantiate the allegations of irregularities.

#### 5. Challenging the validity of candidates' nominations:

- In some cases, the eligibility or qualification of a candidate may be called into question, such as their age, citizenship, or disqualification under specific laws.

- A party may challenge the validity of a candidate's nomination by filing a petition with the relevant court, seeking a declaration that the candidate's nomination was invalid and that the election should be nullified or the candidate disqualified.

#### 6. Allegations of electoral offenses:

- If there are allegations of electoral offenses, such as bribery, intimidation, or fraudulent practices, a party may file a complaint or report with the appropriate law enforcement authorities or electoral tribunals.

- The authorities will investigate the allegations, and if sufficient evidence is found, legal proceedings may be initiated against the alleged offenders.

#### **Regarding the pleadings by the plaintiff, the following legal issues can be identified:**

##### 1. Proper description and residence of the plaintiff:

- The plaintiff's name, description, and place of residence must be accurately stated in the plaint. If the plaintiff is an artificial person or a company, it should be mentioned that the entity is incorporated under the laws of Uganda.

- If the plaintiff is suing in a representative capacity, such as acting on behalf of another person or entity, this fact should be disclosed in the plaint. Failure to disclose the representative capacity may have implications for the validity of the plaint.

##### 2. Sufficient description of the defendant:

- The plaint should provide the name, description, and place of residence of the defendant, to the extent that these details can be ascertained.

- It is important to provide adequate information about the defendant to ensure proper service of the plaint and to enable the defendant to understand the allegations brought against them.

### 3. Statement regarding the status of the plaintiff or defendant:

- If the plaintiff or defendant is a minor or a person of unsound mind, this fact should be stated in the plaint.

- The status of the parties may have implications for the legal capacity to sue or be sued, and it is necessary to disclose this information for a complete understanding of the case.

### 4. Clear articulation of the cause of action:

- The plaint must include the facts that constitute the cause of action and specify when it arose.

- A cause of action generally consists of three elements: the existence of a right, its violation, and the liability of the defendant.

- The cause of action should be sufficiently pleaded to enable the court to understand the legal basis for the plaintiff's claim.

### 5. Establishment of court's jurisdiction:

- The plaint should include facts demonstrating that the court has jurisdiction over the matter.

- Mere assertions of jurisdiction are not sufficient; there must be a statement of facts supporting the court's jurisdiction.

### 6. Relief sought by the plaintiff:

- The plaintiff should clearly state the specific relief or remedies they are seeking.

- Damages claimed by the plaintiff should be pleaded, with special damages requiring specific and detailed allegations.

- While general damages may not need to be explicitly pleaded, there should be an averment that the plaintiff claims damages for pain, suffering, or other applicable grounds.

### 7. Signing of the pleading:

- Every pleading should be signed by either an advocate or the party themselves if they are representing themselves in the case.



- Failure to sign the pleading may be a procedural issue but does not necessarily affect the merits of the case.

➤ **What are the legal issues in the pleadings by the plaintiff?**

1. Identification of the Court: The plaint must state the name of the court in which the suit is brought.

2. Plaintiff's Information: The plaintiff's name, description, place of residence, and address for service must be provided. If the plaintiff is an artificial person like a company, it should be mentioned that it is incorporated according to the laws of Uganda. If the plaintiff is suing in a representative capacity, this fact must be disclosed.

3. Defendant's Information: The name, description, and place of residence of the defendant should be stated as far as ascertainable.

4. Status of the Parties: It should be indicated whether the plaintiff or defendant is a minor or a person of unsound mind.

5. Cause of Action: The plaint should contain the facts constituting the cause of action and when it arose. A cause of action includes three essential elements: the plaintiff's right, its violation, and the defendant's liability. It is a bundle of facts that, when taken with the applicable law, gives the plaintiff a right to relief against the defendant.

6. Jurisdiction: The facts showing that the court has jurisdiction must be included in the plaint. A mere assertion of jurisdiction is not sufficient; there should be a statement of fact demonstrating that the court has jurisdiction.

7. Relief Claimed: The plaint should specify the relief sought by the plaintiff. While general damages need not be specifically pleaded, there should be an averment that the plaintiff claims damages for pain, suffering, etc. Special damages, on the other hand, should be specifically pleaded.

8. Signature: Every pleading should be signed by an advocate or by the party if they sue or defend in person. Failure to sign the plaint is a matter of procedure and does not affect the merits of the case.

**The provided text discusses various aspects of the pleading requirements for a plaintiff in a lawsuit. discuss each of these elements with specific references to relevant legal authorities:**

a) The name of the Court in which the suit is brought: Order 7 Rule 1 requires the plaintiff to mention the name of the court where the lawsuit is filed. This is a basic requirement to properly identify the court where the case will be heard.

b) The name, description, and place of residence of the plaintiff and his or her address for service: In the case of an artificial person or a company, it is important to include the name of the company and state that it is incorporated according to the laws of Uganda. If the plaintiff is suing in a representative capacity, this material fact should be stated. Failure to disclose such information may have consequences, as seen in the case of *Otim v. Okuza*, where the court held that the judgment in the preceding case should be set aside because the plaintiff did not disclose that the plaintiff was suing in a representative capacity. Additionally, a mere box number as a description of the plaintiff's residence is insufficient for service, as established in *Ram Nath v. Mohamed Rawji*.

c) Whether the plaintiff or defendant is a minor or person of unsound mind: It is important to include a statement indicating whether the plaintiff or defendant is a minor or a person of unsound mind. This information helps the court determine if any special provisions or considerations need to be made for such individuals.

d) The facts constituting the cause of action and when it arose: A cause of action consists of three essential elements: the plaintiff enjoying a right, the violation of that right, and the defendant being liable. This was established in *Autogarage v. Motokov*, where the court held that a cause of action means every fact that, if traversed, would be necessary for the plaintiff to prove to support their right to a judgment of the court. The cause of action must include some act done by the defendant, as without such an act, no cause of action can accrue.

e) The facts showing that the court has jurisdiction: Mere assertions in the plaint that the court has jurisdiction are not enough. The plaintiff must provide a statement of fact showing that the court has jurisdiction. This was discussed in the case of *Cat Bisuti v. Buziga District Administration*, where it was held that it is not the assertion but the statement of fact that matters to establish the court's jurisdiction.

f) The relief which the plaintiff claims: The plaintiff must plead the relief they are seeking in the lawsuit. While general damages need not be specifically pleaded, there should be an averment that the plaintiff claims damages for pain, suffering, etc. On the other hand, special damages should be specifically pleaded. This practice has developed as a matter of legal practice.

Additionally, Order 6 Rule 26 requires that every pleading be signed by an advocate or by the party if they are representing themselves. The failure to sign the pleading, as discussed in *Transgem Trust v. Tanzania Zoisiten Corp. Ltd.*, is considered a matter of procedure and would not affect the merits of the case.

These are the key elements discussed in the provided text regarding the pleadings by the plaintiff. Each of these requirements plays an important role in ensuring that the plaint meets the necessary legal standards and provides the required information to proceed with the lawsuit effectively.

**Discuss and outline the key elements and requirements for a plaint, as specified in Order 7 of the relevant legal authority:**

1. The name of the Court: The plaint should state the name of the court where the suit is filed.
2. Plaintiff's particulars: The plaintiff's name, description, place of residence, and address for service should be included. For artificial persons like companies, it should be mentioned that they are incorporated under the laws of Uganda. If the plaintiff is suing in a representative capacity, this fact must be disclosed.
3. Defendant's particulars: The plaint should include the name, description, and place of residence of the defendant, as far as it can be ascertained.
4. Status of plaintiff or defendant: If either the plaintiff or defendant is a minor or a person of unsound mind, it should be stated in the plaint.
5. Facts constituting the cause of action: The plaint must outline the facts that establish the cause of action, including when it occurred. A cause of action requires the plaintiff to have a right, the violation of that right, and the defendant's liability.
6. Jurisdiction of the court: The plaint should provide facts demonstrating that the court has jurisdiction over the case, rather than making a mere assertion. The court needs to have the authority to hear and decide the matter.
7. Relief claimed by the plaintiff: The plaint should state the specific relief sought by the plaintiff. While general damages may not require specific pleading, there should be an averment that the plaintiff claims damages for pain, suffering, etc. Special damages, on the other hand, should be specifically pleaded.

8. Signature requirement: Every pleading, including the plaint, should be signed by an advocate or the party themselves if they sue or defend in person. Failure to sign the plaint is a procedural matter and does not affect the merits of the case.

The references to legal cases, such as Otim vs. Okuza, Ram Nath vs. Mohamed Rawji, Autogarage vs. Motokov, Attorney General vs. Major General David Tinyefuza, Cat Bisuti vs. Buziga District Administration, and Transgem Trust vs. Tanzania Zoisiten Corp. Ltd, provide examples and interpretations related to the mentioned elements of a plaint.

Overall, the text provides an overview of the essential requirements and considerations for drafting a plaint in accordance with Order 7.

➤ **Discuss the legal issues that can lead to the rejection of a plaint examine each issue:**

a) Failure to disclose a cause of action: A cause of action refers to the bundle of facts that, if proven, would give the plaintiff a right to obtain relief from the court. If the plaint fails to disclose a cause of action, meaning it does not present the necessary facts to support the claim, the court may reject it.

b) Undervalued relief and failure to correct valuation: The plaintiff is responsible for properly valuing the relief sought in the plaint. If the court determines that the relief claimed is undervalued, it can request the plaintiff to correct the valuation within a specified time. Failure to comply with this requirement may result in the rejection of the plaint.

c) Insufficient fee payment: The plaintiff is also required to pay the appropriate court fees when filing a plaint. If the fee paid is insufficient, the court may ask the plaintiff to rectify the payment. Failing to do so can lead to the rejection of the plaint.

d) Barred by law: If the plaint reveals that the suit is barred by any law, such as a statute of limitations or a jurisdictional requirement, the court can reject it. The court will not entertain claims that are legally prohibited or time-barred.

e) Frivolous or vexatious suit: If the plaint is found to be frivolous or vexatious, meaning it lacks merit or is intended to cause annoyance, harassment, or delay, the court has the discretion to reject it. However, the power to strike out such pleadings should be exercised only in plain and obvious cases, as stated in the case of Sarwan Singh v Michael Notkin.



In summary, a plaintiff may be rejected if it fails to disclose a cause of action, if the relief claimed is undervalued or there is insufficient fee payment, if the suit is barred by law, or if the suit is deemed frivolous or vexatious. The court has the authority to exercise discretion in these matters, ensuring that only legitimate claims proceed to further proceedings.

**Here are a few more points to consider:**

1. Cause of Action: A cause of action refers to the legal basis or grounds on which the plaintiff seeks a remedy from the court. It must contain all the essential elements required to support a valid claim. If the plaintiff fails to include the necessary facts constituting a cause of action, the court may reject it.

2. Valuation of Relief: The plaintiff is responsible for correctly valuing the relief sought in the plaintiff. The value assigned to the relief determines the court fees payable. If the court determines that the relief has been undervalued, it can ask the plaintiff to correct the valuation within a specified time. Failure to comply with this requirement may result in the rejection of the plaintiff.

3. Insufficient Court Fee: Along with the valuation of relief, the plaintiff is required to pay the appropriate court fees when filing the plaintiff. If the court finds that the fee paid is insufficient, it may give the plaintiff an opportunity to rectify the payment. If the plaintiff fails to do so, the plaintiff may be rejected.

4. Suit Barred by Law: The plaintiff can be rejected if it appears from the statement in the plaintiff that the suit is barred by any law. For example, if the claim is time-barred under the applicable statute of limitations or if the court lacks jurisdiction over the matter, the court may reject the plaintiff.

5. Frivolous or Vexatious Suit: If the plaintiff is found to be frivolous or vexatious, meaning it lacks a reasonable basis in law or is intended to harass, annoy, or cause unnecessary delay to the defendant, the court has the power to reject it. However, this power should be exercised cautiously, and the court will typically require that the case is indeed plain and obvious in its lack of merit before rejecting the plaintiff.

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These are important considerations in assessing the validity and acceptability of a plaintiff. The court's primary objective is to ensure that the claims presented are legally sound, properly valued, and not intended to abuse the legal process.

**Here are a few additional points to consider regarding the rejection of a plaintiff:**

6. Defective Presentation: The plaint may be rejected if it is not presented in the prescribed format or does not comply with the procedural requirements set forth by the court. This could include issues such as incorrect numbering of paragraphs, failure to provide necessary documents or exhibits, or failure to include mandatory information.

7. Lack of Jurisdiction: If the court finds that it does not have jurisdiction to hear the case based on the facts presented in the plaint, it may reject the plaint. Jurisdiction refers to the authority of a court to hear and decide a particular type of case within a specific geographical area or subject matter.

8. Non-Compliance with Pre-Filing Requirements: Some jurisdictions require specific pre-filing requirements to be fulfilled before a plaint can be accepted. These requirements may include attempts at mediation, settlement negotiations, or the submission of mandatory pre-litigation documents. Failure to comply with these requirements can lead to the rejection of the plaint.

9. Contravention of Court Orders: If the plaintiff fails to comply with any court orders or directions regarding the filing or presentation of the plaint, the court may reject it. This includes non-compliance with time limits, failure to rectify deficiencies or errors pointed out by the court, or non-submission of required documents.

10. Violation of Public Policy: The court may reject a plaint if it is contrary to public policy or if the relief sought is illegal or against the principles of justice and equity. This typically applies to cases involving unlawful activities, immoral contracts, or claims that would be harmful to society at large.

It is important to note that the specific grounds for rejection may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the procedural rules applicable in a particular legal system. Therefore, it is essential to refer to the relevant laws and rules of the jurisdiction in question to fully understand the grounds for rejection of a plaint.

**Provide a summary of the legal issues discussed with specific references to legal authority in light of rejection of a plaint:**

1. Application for Rejection of the Plaint:

- The application to reject the plaint is made by way of summons in chambers under Order 7 rule 19.
- The judge must record an order with reasons for rejecting the plaint.
- Legal authority: Order 7 rule 19 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

2. Documents Needed:

- The application for rejection of the plaint must be supported by an affidavit.
- Legal authority: Not explicitly mentioned.

### 3. Forum:

- The forum for the application is the High Court, as the Civil Procedure Rules apply to the High Court based on the Civil Procedure Act.
- Legal authority: Section 1 of the Civil Procedure Act.

### 4. Pleadings by Way of Defense:

- The defendant is required to file a defense either at the time of issue of the summons or within the time prescribed by the court.
- Failure to file a written statement of defense may result in the defendant being unable to be heard.
- Legal authority: Order 8 of the Civil Procedure Rules, particularly rule 1(1) and *SENGENDO –VS- ATTORNEY GENERAL* [1972] HCB at Pg. 356.

### 5. Consequences of Defective Pleadings:

- The Civil Procedure Rules address the consequences of defective pleadings in Orders 6 and 7.
- Amendment of pleadings is allowed to correct errors or defects in pleadings, either with or without leave of court.
- Legal authority: Orders 6 and 7 of the Civil Procedure Rules, specifically Order 6 rule 19, 20, 21, 31, Order 8 rule 11, and Order 52 rule 1 and 2.
- The principles for amendment of pleadings were emphasized in *MULOWOZA AND BROTHERS LTD VERSUS ENSHIRE & CO. LTD, CIVIL APPEAL NO.26 OF 2010*.
- Leave to amend pleadings will generally be granted unless the party applying is acting mala fide and where it is not necessary for determining the real question in controversy.
- Legal authority: *BRIGHT CHICKS UGANDA LTD. V DAN BAHINGIRE (MISCELLANEOUS APPLICATION 254 OF 2011)* and Mulla, *The Code of Civil Procedure, 17th Edition Volume 2*.

### 6. Failure to Plead and Consequences:

- If a defendant fails to file a written statement of defense, they may be considered to have put themselves out of the court and may not be heard.
- Legal authority: *SENGENDO –VS- ATTORNEY GENERAL* [1972] HCB at Pg. 356.

#### 7. Amendment of Pleadings without Leave of Court:

- The plaintiff may amend the plaint once within a specific time frame without needing leave from the court.
- The defendant may amend a counterclaim or setoff within a specific time frame without needing leave from the court.
- Legal authority: Order 6 rule 20 and 21 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

#### 8. Amendment of Pleadings with Leave of Court:

- If the time frame for amendment has expired, the plaintiff or defendant must seek leave from the court to amend the pleadings.
- Legal authority: Order 6 rule 2 and 21 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

#### 9. Purpose of Amendment of Pleadings:

- The rationale for allowing amendments is to determine the real questions in controversy between the parties.
- Legal authority: Order 6 rule 19.

#### **The procedure for applying for the rejection of a plaint involves the following key points:**

1. Application Process: The application is made through a summons in chambers under Order 7 Rule 19 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The applicant must provide a chamber summons supported by an affidavit, relying on the grounds specified in Order 7 Rule 11.

2. Rejection Order: If the plaint is rejected, the judge will record an order stating the rejection and providing the reasons for the decision.

3. Forum: The forum for this procedure is the High Court, as the Civil Procedure Rules apply to the High Court under Section 1 of the Civil Procedure Act.

4. Pleadings by Way of Defense: The defense is governed by Order 8 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The defendant is required to file their defense at or before the first hearing or within the time prescribed by the court. Failure to file a written statement of defense may result in the defendant being unable to be heard.



5. Consequences of Defective Pleadings: The Civil Procedure Rules outline the consequences of defective pleadings in Orders 6 and 7. Amendments to pleadings may be made with or without the leave of the court.

6. Amendment of Pleadings without Leave of Court: The plaintiff can amend the plaint within specific time frames without requiring leave from the court. Similarly, the defendant can amend a counterclaim or setoff within specific time frames without leave.

7. Amendment of Pleadings with Leave of Court: If the specified time frames have expired, the plaintiff or defendant must seek leave from the court to amend their pleadings.

8. Principles for Amendment of Pleadings: Amendments are generally allowed freely unless they cause prejudice to the opposite party, which cannot be remedied. The purpose of amendment is to determine the real questions in controversy between the parties.

➤ **Summarize the legal principles that can be derived about the amendment of pleadings:**

1. No Departure from Proceedings: An amendment should not amount to a departure from the proceedings, as stated in the case of *Kasolo Magidu & 3 Others v. Victoria Nile Bus Service Co.*

2. Time Limit for Amendment: Amendments should be made within the limitation period and not circumvent statutes of limitation, as established in the case of *Epaineto Mubiru v. UCB.*

3. New Cause of Action: An application for leave to amend cannot be allowed if it discloses a new cause of action inconsistent with the pleadings, as held in *African Overseas Company v. Acharya.*

4. Procedure for Amendment: The procedure involves drafting a chamber summons supported by an affidavit, swearing or affirming that it will cause no injustice to the other party and determine the real issues in dispute. The application is filed and given a reference number, and a date for hearing is fixed by the Registrar.

5. Striking Out Pleadings: The court may order the striking out of any pleading that discloses no reasonable cause of action or answer, or if the suit or defense is shown to be frivolous or vexatious, as provided in Order 6 Rule 30.

6. Dismissal of Suit: If a point of law substantially disposes of the whole suit or any distinct cause of action, ground of defense, setoff, counterclaim, or reply, the court may dismiss the suit or make other appropriate orders, according to Order 6 Rule 2.

7. Discontinuance of a Suit: If the plaintiff's suit is stayed, discontinued, or dismissed, but the defendant sets up a counterclaim, the counterclaim may still proceed, as stated in Order 8 Rule 13.

8. Settlement of Preliminary Objections: When both issues of law and fact arise in a suit, the court may try the issues of law first if it deems that the case can be disposed of based on those issues alone, as provided in Order 15 Rule 2.

9. Withdrawal of Suits: A plaintiff can withdraw or discontinue a suit against all or any of the defendants before the delivery of the defendant's defense or after its receipt, with the permission of the court, as outlined in Order 25 Rule 1(1) and Rule 1(2). Withdrawal of a suit by the defendant requires leave of court, as stated in Order 25 Rule 1(3). Withdrawal can also be done by consent if both parties agree, as per Order 25 Rule 2.

The forum for these procedures is the High Court, and the necessary documents include a chamber summons supported by an affidavit. It's important to note that the cited cases are provided for reference and may not cover all relevant case law on these topics.

10. Dismissal for Want of Prosecution: If a party fails to take steps to prosecute or proceed with a suit, the court may dismiss the suit for want of prosecution, as provided in Order 17 Rule 6 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

11. Amendment of Decree or Order: A court may amend a decree or order to correct any error or omission, or to clarify or remove any ambiguity, as stated in Order 20 Rule 10 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

12. Consequence of Amendment: An amendment made to a pleading relates back to the date of the original pleading, unless the court orders otherwise, as per Order 6 Rule 19 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

13. Striking Out Defense: Just as a pleading can be struck out, the court may also strike out a defense on the grounds that it discloses no reasonable defense or is frivolous or vexatious, as provided in Order 8 Rule 20 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

14. Amendment of Judgment: The court may correct clerical or arithmetical mistakes in a judgment or order, or make an amendment to give effect to the intention of the court, as outlined in Order 34 Rule 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

15. Amendment of Written Statement of Defense: A defendant may seek leave to amend the written statement of defense if it is necessary for a proper determination of the real issues in dispute, as provided in Order 8 Rule 6 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

16. Amendment to Correct Parties: The court may allow an amendment to correct the names or descriptions of parties, or to add or strike out any party, as necessary, to ensure a fair and effective determination of the suit, as stated in Order 1 Rule 10 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

17. Withdrawal of Counterclaim: A counterclaim can be withdrawn with the permission of the court, upon such terms as to costs and other matters as may be just, as per Order 8 Rule 10 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

**Here are some case laws that support the legal principles mentioned:**

1. Kasolo Magidu & 3 Others v. Victoria Nile Bus Service Co. (No case citation provided): This case supports the principle that an amendment should not amount to a departure from the proceedings.

2. Epaineto Mubiru v. UCB [1971] 1 ULR 144: In this case, the court held that amendments should be made within the limitation period and that the law does not allow statutes of limitation to be circumvented.

3. African Overseas Company v. Acharya [1963]: This case held that an application for leave to amend cannot be allowed if it discloses a new cause of action that is inconsistent with the pleadings.

4. Ntambara v. Segawole (Miscellaneous Application 1082 of 2019) [2020]: This case noted that a dismissal of a suit under Order 17 Rule 4 of the Civil Procedure Rules finally disposes of the suit.

5. Ntalo Mohamed v. Stanbic Bank of Uganda Limited (Misc. App. No. 211 of 2017): This case held that a dismissal of a suit under Order 17 Rule 4 of the Civil Procedure Rules finally disposes of a suit.

6. *Namubiru v. Katongole & Anor* (Civil Suit 345 of 2015) [2017]: In this case, the court observed the procedure for discontinuance of a suit and the requirements for withdrawal or discontinuance of a suit by the plaintiff.

7. *Mulondo v. Semakula* [1982]: This case provides a principle laid out in Order 25 Rule 1(1) regarding the withdrawal of a suit by the plaintiff.

These case laws illustrate the application of the legal principles discussed and provide support for their validity and implementation.

**Discuss legal issues arising from the discussion on the issue and service of summons:**

1. **Mandatory Requirements:** The summons must be signed and contain the seal of the court. Failure to comply with these requirements renders the summons a nullity. This issue was highlighted in the case of *Kaur v. City Auto Mart* (1967) EA 108.

2. **Service of Summons:** The service of court process, including summons, is governed by Order 5 of the Civil Procedure Rules. Order 5 Rule 10 stipulates that service of summons should be made on the defendant in person or on their appointed agent. Personal service is preferred, but if not possible, service on an agent or an advocate is acceptable. The case of *Dr. B.B Byarugaba v. Kantarama* (Civil Miscellaneous Application 229 of 2019) [2020] discussed the requirement of personal service and the acceptability of service on an agent.

3. **Proof of Service:** Proper and effective service requires proof of service by a serving officer or process server. Order 5 Rule 16 of the Civil Procedure Rules mandates the serving officer to make or annex an affidavit of service, stating the time, manner, and the name and address of the person identifying the person served. Failure to record these details renders the affidavit of service incurably defective, as established in the cases of *MB Automobiles v. Kampala Bus Service* [1966] EA 400 and *Owani v. Bukenya Salongo* [1976] HCB 62.

4. **Effect of Irregularities:** Irregularities in the court process, such as unsigned or undated hearing notices, may arise due to the negligence of court registry staff. The case of *Tommy Otto v. Uganda Wildlife Authority* illustrated that despite such irregularities, if the hearing notice served its intended purpose and did not cause any injustices to the parties, it may still be considered valid.



These legal issues highlight the importance of complying with the procedural requirements for issuing and serving summons, as well as the need for proper documentation and proof of service to ensure fairness and adherence to due process.

5. **Validity of Service:** The validity of service may be challenged if there are deficiencies or irregularities in the manner in which the summons was served. For example, if the summons was not served within the prescribed time limit or if it was not served personally or on an authorized agent, the validity of the service may be called into question.

6. **Substituted Service:** In situations where personal service is not practicable, the court may allow for substituted service. Substituted service involves serving the summons by an alternative method, such as through publication in a newspaper or by affixing it to the defendant's property. The rules and requirements for substituted service may vary depending on the jurisdiction.

7. **Service on a Corporation or Company:** When serving a summons on a corporation or company, there may be specific rules and procedures to follow. Generally, service can be made on a designated agent or representative of the corporation or company, such as a registered agent or the company's secretary.

8. **Service on a Defendant outside the Jurisdiction:** If the defendant is located outside the jurisdiction where the court proceedings are taking place, there may be specific rules regarding service of summons on an out-of-jurisdiction defendant. These rules often involve international service conventions or bilateral agreements between countries.

9. **Proof of Service:** It is essential to maintain proper documentation and proof of service. This typically includes an affidavit of service or a certificate of service, which provides details of when, how, and on whom the summons was served. Proof of service may be required to demonstrate that the defendant was properly notified of the legal proceedings.

10. **Remedies for Inadequate Service:** If there are defects or irregularities in the service of summons, the court may deem the service invalid. This can result in the court setting aside any subsequent judgments or orders obtained as a result of inadequate service. The defendant may also have the opportunity to challenge the jurisdiction of the court based on improper service.

These legal issues highlight the importance of following proper procedures for issuing and serving summons to ensure that the parties involved are adequately notified and have an opportunity to participate in the legal proceedings.

**The legal issues related to "What must accompany the summons?" can be summarized as follows:**

1. Contents of Summons: Order 5 Rule 2 mandates that a summons must be accompanied by a copy of the plaint, a brief summary of the evidence to be addressed, a list of witnesses, a list of documents, and a list of authorities. These accompanying documents provide essential information to the defendant about the nature of the claim and the evidence that will be presented.

**Summarize the legal issues related to "On whom are summons served?"**

2. Personal Service: Order 5 Rule 10 requires that summons be served personally on the defendant. Personal service ensures that the defendant is directly notified of the legal proceedings against them. The case of *Kasirivu and 4 ORS v Bamurangye and 3 ORS* (2010) CA 25 supports the requirement of personal service.

3. Service on Agent/Adult Member: If it is not possible to personally serve the defendant, service may be done on the defendant's agent or an adult member of their family, as stated in Order 5 Rule 13. The case of *Erukaria Karuma v Mehla* highlights the importance of due diligence in attempting to serve the defendant personally before resorting to service on an agent or adult member.

4. Fixing of Summons at a Conspicuous Place: If all reasonable efforts to serve the defendant fail, the process server may affix a copy of the summons on the outer doors or another conspicuous part of the defendant's residence, place of business, or workplace, as per Order 5 Rule 15. This serves as a notice to the defendant of the legal proceedings.

**The legal issues related to "Substituted Service" can be summarized as follows:**

5. Substituted Service: When it is not possible to serve the summons in the ordinary way, the court may order substituted service. This can include fixing a copy of the summons in a conspicuous place in the court house or using other methods deemed fit by the court, as stated in Order 5 Rule 18. Substituted service is granted when the court is satisfied that there is a practical impossibility of actual service and that the method chosen by the plaintiff/petitioner will effectively bring knowledge of the claim to the defendant. However, substituted service should only be effected if the person to be served is within the jurisdiction of the court.

6. Proof of Service: Proper proof of service is essential. The person served or someone receiving service on behalf of the defendant should sign the original court process, acknowledging receipt. Various rules and provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure govern the nature of proof required for different types of service, as explained in the provided excerpts.

It is important to note that failure to duly serve the summons may prevent the court from proceeding with the case ex parte (in the absence of the defendant). The court may require an affidavit or examination in court to prove the process server's report of service. The adequacy and validity of service are crucial to ensure that the defendant has been properly notified of the legal proceedings and has an opportunity to respond.

**Provide a summary of the legal issues related to "What must accompany the summons?" and "On whom are summons served?":**

1. What must accompany the summons?

- Order 5 Rule 2 mandates that the summons must be accompanied by:
  - A copy of the complaint
  - A brief summary of evidence to be addressed
  - A list of witnesses
  - A list of documents
  - A list of authorities

➤ **2. On whom are summons served?**

- Order 5 Rule 10 requires that summons be served personally on the defendant.
- In the case of *Kasirivu and 4 ORS v Bamurangye and 3 ORS*, it was affirmed that summons should be served personally on the defendant.

➤ **3. Summons on agent/adult member:**

- According to Order 5 Rule 13, if personal service is not possible, summons can be served on the defendant's agent or an adult member of their family.
- In the case of *Wadamba v Mutasa & 2 ORS*, it was held that service can be done on the defendant's agent or adult family member if personal service is not possible.

➤ **4. Fixing of summons at a conspicuous place:**

- If the process server cannot find the defendant or any person for service despite reasonable diligence, they can affix a copy of the summons on the outer doors or another conspicuous part of the defendant's residence, business premises, or workplace, as per Order 5 Rule 15.

5. Substituted service:

- If the court is satisfied that the summons cannot be served in the ordinary way, it may order substituted service, such as by fixing a copy in a conspicuous place in the court house or through newspaper ads, as per Order 5 Rule 18.

- Substituted service should only be used if the person to be served is within the jurisdiction of the court.

➤ **6. Proof of service:**

- The person served or receiving service on behalf of the defendant should sign the original court process as acknowledgment of receipt, as per Order 5 Rule 14.

- The nature of proof of service varies depending on the method used, such as personal service, service on agent, service on an adult male member of the family, or service by affixation, as outlined in the provided excerpts.

It is important to note that courts cannot proceed ex parte (without the defendant) if the summons has not been duly served. The court may require proof of service through an affidavit or examination in court by the process server.

➤ **7. Important to note:**

- No court can proceed ex parte (without the defendant) until it is proved to the satisfaction of the court that the summons has been duly served, as stated in the provided excerpts.

- The process server's report of service of summons should be proved by an affidavit or examination in court, especially in ex parte proceedings under Order IX, Rule 6 of the Code of Civil Procedure.

➤ **8. Nature of proof of service in different cases:**

- Personal service: When the summons or notice is served on the defendant or respondent personally, the service and the signature of the defendant or respondent on the back of the process should be proved.

- Service on agent: If the service is made on an agent under Order V, Rule 12, it should be proved that the person was empowered to accept service as per the relevant provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure.

- Service on in-charge of property: If the service is made under Order V, Rule 14, it should be proved that the summons or notice could not be served on the defendant or respondent in person, and that the person to whom the process was delivered was an agent of the defendant or respondent in charge of the property involved in the suit.

- Service on adult male member of the family: If the service is made under Order V, Rule 15, it should be proved that the defendant could not be found or was absent from their residence, had no agent empowered to accept service, and that the person to whom the process was delivered was an adult male member of their family residing with them.

- Service by affixation under Order 5, Rule 17: If the service is made under Order V, Rule 17, it should be proved that the defendant could not be found or was absent from their residence, had no agent empowered



to accept service, and that a copy of the process was affixed to the defendant's ordinary residence or place of business.

It is the duty of the court to satisfy itself, after taking the process server's affidavit or statement on solemn affirmation and conducting further inquiry if necessary, that reasonable efforts were made to serve the defendant personally. The court must declare whether the summons was duly served under Order V, Rule 19. Without such a declaration, the summons cannot be considered duly served.

9. Consequences of improper service: If the summons is not served in the proper manner as prescribed by law, the court cannot proceed with the case ex parte. Proper service is essential to ensure that the defendant has been given notice of the proceedings and an opportunity to be heard.

10. Service outside the jurisdiction: If the person to be served is outside the jurisdiction of the court, the provisions of Order V, Rule 22 of the Civil Procedure Rules, which govern service outside the jurisdiction, apply. Substituted service should only be effected if the person to be served is within the jurisdiction of the court.

11. Proof of service: The person served or who receives service on behalf of the defendant should sign on the original court process, acknowledging receipt of the process. This helps establish the fact that the summons has been duly served.

12. Affixing summons at a conspicuous place: If the process server, after carrying out all due and reasonable diligence, cannot find the defendant or any person on whom service can be effected, they can affix a copy of the summons on the outer doors or some other conspicuous part of the defendant's residence, place of business, or where they personally work for gain. The process server must then return the original summons to the court with a report stating that they have affixed the copy.

13. Substituted service: When the court is satisfied that for any reason the summons cannot be served in the ordinary way, it may order substituted service. This can involve fixing a copy of the summons in a conspicuous place in the court house where the defendant is known to have last resided, carried on business, or worked for gain. The court may also order other methods of substituted service, such as through newspaper advertisements. Substituted service is considered as effective as personal service if it is likely to bring knowledge of the proceedings to the defendant.

14. Nature of proof of service in different cases: The nature of proof of service required by the court depends on the specific circumstances of the case. Here's a summary of the proof required for different types of service:

- Personal service: When the summons or notice is served on the defendant personally, the service and the defendant's signature on the back of the process should be proved.

- Service on agent: If the service is made on an agent under Order V, Rule 12, it must be proved that the person was empowered to accept service on behalf of the defendant, as specified in Order III, Rules 2, 5, or 6, or Order V, Rule 13 of the Code of Civil Procedure.

- Service on in charge of property: If the service is made under Order V, Rule 14, it must be proved that the summons or notice could not be served on the defendant personally, and that the person to whom the process was delivered was an agent of the defendant in charge of the land or other immovable property involved in the suit.

- Service on adult male member of the family: If the service is made under Order V, Rule 15, it should be proved that the defendant could not be found or was absent from their residence, and that the person to whom the process was delivered was an adult male member of the defendant's family residing with them at the time of service. It's important to note that a servant is not considered a member of the family for this rule.

- Service by affixation under Order V, Rule 17: If the service is made by affixation, it must be proved that the defendant could not be found or was absent from their residence, and there was no agent empowered to accept service or any other person on whom the service could be made. It should also be established that the house where the copy of the process was affixed was the defendant's ordinary residence or place of business at that time. The court needs to satisfy itself that reasonable efforts were made, without success, to serve the defendant personally before declaring that the summons was duly served.

These guidelines help ensure that the court has proper evidence of service in each case and that the defendant has been effectively notified of the legal proceedings. Proof of service is crucial to establish the validity of the summons and to proceed with the case.

15. Court cannot proceed ex parte without proper service: No court can proceed to hear a case ex parte (in the absence of one party) until it has been proved to the satisfaction of the court that the summons to the defendant has been duly served. In other words, the court cannot proceed with the case if the summons has not been served properly according to the law.

16. Process-server's report to be proved by affidavit or examination in court: In ex parte proceedings under Order IX, Rule 6 of the Code of Civil Procedure, where it is necessary to have the report of service of summons proved, the process-server should be ordered by the court to appear before the proper officer or the court itself and provide an affidavit or statement confirming the service.

These legal issues regarding the summons and its service are important to ensure that the defendant is properly notified and given an opportunity to participate in the legal proceedings. Failure to comply with the rules and requirements for service of summons may result in the court refusing to proceed with the case or setting aside any ex parte judgments or orders obtained without proper service. It is essential for the plaintiff to adhere to the prescribed procedures to ensure a fair and just legal process.

To support the legal issues related to the summons and its service, provide some general examples of case law that are relevant to the concepts discussed:

1. *Kasirivu and 4 ORS v Bamurangye and 3 ORS* (2010) CA 25: This case supports the requirement of personal service of summons on the defendant, as mandated by Order 5 Rule 10. It establishes that summons should be served personally on the defendant rather than through alternative methods.
2. *Wadamba v Mutasa & 2 ORS* (HCT-04-CV-CA 32 OF 2015): This case discusses Order 5 Rule 13 of the Civil Procedure Rules, which allows for service of summons on the agent or adult member of the defendant's family when the defendant cannot be personally served. It clarifies that service on an agent or adult member is permissible when the defendant cannot be found, but due diligence must be undertaken to establish their whereabouts.
3. *Erukaria Karuma v Mehla*: This case emphasizes the importance of due diligence by the process server in determining the defendant's whereabouts. It clarifies that serving an agent or adult member is only appropriate when the defendant cannot be found after reasonable efforts have been made to locate them. Failure to undertake proper inquiries about the defendant's location can result in the inadequacy of serving an agent or adult member.
4. *Satuinder Singh v Sarinder Kaur*: This case discusses substituted service and highlights that it should only be employed when there is a practical impossibility of actual service. It emphasizes that substituted service should be within the jurisdiction of the court and the method chosen must reasonably and effectively bring knowledge of the lawsuit to the defendant.

**Discuss the necessity of issuing and serving summons in a lawsuit, as outlined in Order 5 of the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR):**

1. Summons and Defence: Order 5 Rule 1(1) states that a summons may be issued to the defendant in a suit, either ordering them to file a defense within a specified time or to appear and answer the claim on a specific day. The legal issue here pertains to ensuring that the defendant receives proper notice of the lawsuit and has an opportunity to respond.

2. Contents of Summons: Rule 2 mandates that the summons must be accompanied by various documents, including a copy of the plaint, a summary of evidence, a list of witnesses, authorities, and documents to be relied upon. The legal issue involved is the requirement to provide the defendant with all the necessary information related to the claim against them.



3. Modes of Service: Rule 8 specifies that service of summons should be made by delivering or tendering a duplicate of the summons signed by the judge or an appointed officer, sealed with the court's seal. The legal issue here is to ensure that the summons is properly served on the defendant according to the prescribed method.

4. Personal Service: Rule 10 states that service should be made on the defendant personally, unless they have an authorized agent to accept service on their behalf. If the defendant cannot be found, service may be made on an agent or an adult member of their family residing with them. The legal issue involves ensuring that personal service is attempted and alternative methods are used when necessary.

5. Acknowledgement of Service: The defendant is required to endorse an acknowledgment on the original summons. If the defendant or their agent refuses to endorse, the court may declare the summons to have been duly served. The legal issue pertains to establishing proper service and the consequences of a refusal to acknowledge.

6. Service by Affixing: Rule 15 allows for service by affixing a copy of the summons on the defendant's residence or place of business when the defendant cannot be found. The serving officer must report the details of the affixing. The legal issue involves ensuring that diligent efforts are made to locate the defendant and that the affixing is carried out properly.

7. Affidavit of Service: Rule 16 requires the serving officer to make an affidavit of service, stating the time, manner, and details of the service. The legal issue pertains to the accuracy and validity of the affidavit, as it serves as evidence of proper service.

8. Service on Special Defendants: Rules 19, 20(1), and 20(2) provide specific provisions for serving defendants who are in prison, public officers, railway company or local authority servants, or soldiers. The legal issue here is to ensure that service is effectively carried out on these specialized categories of defendants.

9. Service out of Jurisdiction: Rule 24 outlines the procedure for seeking leave to serve summons or notice on a defendant outside the jurisdiction. The legal issue involves obtaining court permission to serve the summons outside the normal jurisdiction and complying with the prescribed requirements.

10. Service on Non-Commonwealth Defendants: Rule 27 specifies that when the defendant is neither a Commonwealth citizen nor a British protected person and is not in a Commonwealth country, notice of the summons (not the summons itself) should be served upon them. The legal issue relates to the service requirements for non-Commonwealth defendants.



11. Service on Sundays: Rule 9 of Order 51 prohibits service of pleadings, notices, and summonses (except summonses on plaintiffs) on Sundays. The legal issue is to ensure compliance with the prescribed restrictions on serving documents on Sundays.

12. Substituted Service: Rule 18 allows for substituted service when the court is satisfied that the summons cannot be served by traditional methods. The legal issue pertains to the court's discretion in approving and implementing substituted service when deemed necessary.

13. Period of Limitation for Service: Summons must be served within 21 days from the date of issue, as stated in Order 5. Failure to effect service within this period without an application for extension may result in dismissal of the suit. The legal issue relates to the importance of timely and proper service to ensure the progress of the lawsuit.

14. Extension of Time for Service: When service cannot be completed within the prescribed period, an application for extension of time must be made, supported by sufficient reasons. The legal issue involves justifying the need for additional time to effect service and obtaining court approval.

These are the legal issues discussed in relation to the necessity of issuing and serving summonses in a lawsuit, as outlined in Order 5 of the CPR. Here are a few more legal issues related to the necessity of issuing and serving summonses:

15. Application for Leave to Serve Out of Jurisdiction: When serving a summons outside the jurisdiction, an application for leave must be made, supported by an affidavit showing the place or country where the defendant is or is likely to be found. The legal issue here involves obtaining court permission to serve the summons outside the jurisdiction and providing sufficient evidence to justify such service.

16. Translation of Documents: When serving a notice outside the jurisdiction, Rule 28 states that a copy of the notice, translated into the language of the country where service is to be effected, must be forwarded to the Minister together with the sealed notice. The legal issue pertains to the requirement of translating the notice and ensuring compliance with the language requirements of the country in which service is to be made.

17. Service on Different Kinds of Parties: The text mentions that service may vary depending on the type of party being served, such as public officers, railway company or local authority servants, soldiers, etc. The legal issue involves understanding and complying with the specific rules and procedures for serving different categories of defendants.

18. Period of Limitation of Service: Order 5 specifies a 21-day period for serving the summons. Failure to effect service within this timeframe, without an application for extension, may lead to the dismissal of the suit. The legal issue here is ensuring strict compliance with the time limit and taking appropriate steps to effect service within the prescribed period.

19. Service on Non-Commonwealth Defendants: Rule 27 states that notice of the summons (not the summons itself) should be served on defendants who are neither Commonwealth citizens nor British protected persons and are not in a Commonwealth country. The legal issue involves understanding and following the specific requirements for serving such defendants, including the form of notice and the mode of service.

20. Documents and Lists: The text mentions the requirement of submitting various documents and lists, such as the plaint, summary of evidence, list of witnesses, list of authorities, and list of documents to be relied upon. The legal issue pertains to the accurate preparation and submission of these documents as required by the rules.

These additional legal issues further elaborate on the complexities and considerations involved in the necessity of issuing and serving summons in a lawsuit. It is crucial to consult the relevant laws and rules in the specific jurisdiction to ensure proper compliance and procedural adherence. Here are a few more legal issues related to the necessity of issuing and serving summons:

21. Service on Minors or Persons under Legal Disability: When the defendant is a minor or a person under legal disability, special provisions may apply to ensure proper service and protection of their rights. The legal issue involves complying with the specific rules and procedures for serving such individuals, which may include appointing a guardian or representative.

22. Service on Foreign Defendants: When serving a summons on a foreign defendant, additional legal issues may arise, such as jurisdictional challenges, international service of process requirements, and compliance with applicable international treaties or conventions. The legal issue here involves navigating the complexities of serving foreign defendants and ensuring proper adherence to international legal frameworks.

23. Service in Multi-Defendant Cases: In cases where there are multiple defendants, the issue of service becomes more complex. Each defendant must be properly served, and variations in service requirements or methods may arise depending on the circumstances. The legal issue involves coordinating and ensuring proper service on each individual defendant in multi-defendant cases.

24. Service of Summons in Special Situations: The text mentions specific situations, such as serving a defendant in prison, serving public officers, railway company or local authority servants, or serving soldiers. Each of these scenarios may have its own legal requirements and considerations for service. The legal issue involves understanding and complying with the specific rules and procedures applicable to these special situations.

25. Service by Electronic Means: In some jurisdictions, there may be provisions for service of summons and other legal documents through electronic means, such as email or fax. The legal issue involves understanding and complying with the requirements and procedures for electronic service, including issues related to consent, authenticity, and privacy.

26. Validity of Service: The validity of service is a crucial legal issue. If service is not properly carried out according to the prescribed rules and procedures, it may be challenged by the defendant, potentially leading to complications or even the dismissal of the lawsuit. The legal issue involves ensuring that service is conducted in strict compliance with the law to avoid any challenges to its validity.

27. Personal Service vs. Service on Agent: Rule 10 states that personal service on the defendant is preferred, unless the defendant has an agent authorized to accept service. The legal issue involves determining whether personal service is feasible and necessary or if service on the defendant's agent is acceptable, ensuring compliance with the rules.

28. Service on Absent Defendants: Rule 13 allows for service on an agent or adult family member of the defendant when the defendant cannot be found. The legal issue pertains to the requirements and validity of service on a third party in the absence of the defendant and ensuring proper identification and authority to accept service.

29. Affixing Summons on Defendant's Property: Rule 15 allows for affixing a copy of the summons on the defendant's property if the serving officer cannot locate the defendant or any person for service. The legal issue involves the criteria and circumstances under which affixing the summons on the defendant's property is deemed acceptable and valid.

30. Affidavit of Service: Rule 16 requires the serving officer to make an affidavit of service, detailing the time, manner, and identification of the person served. The legal issue involves the accuracy and validity of the affidavit of service, which serves as proof of proper service.

31. Service on Sunday: Rule 9 of Order 51 prohibits the service of pleadings, notices, and summonses (except summonses on plaintiffs) on Sundays. The legal issue pertains to ensuring compliance with the prohibition on serving documents on Sundays and the consequences of violating this rule.

32. **Substituted Service:** Rule 18 allows for substituted service when traditional methods are not feasible. The legal issue involves satisfying the court that substituted service is necessary and determining the appropriate method of substituted service that will be deemed as effective as personal service.

33. **Service on Unknown Defendants:** In some cases, the identity or whereabouts of the defendant may be unknown. The legal issue here involves the procedures and requirements for serving summonses on unknown defendants, which may include seeking court permission and taking steps to identify and locate the defendant.

34. **Service on Corporate Defendants:** When the defendant is a corporation or other legal entity, specific rules and procedures may apply for serving the summons. The legal issue pertains to understanding and complying with the requirements for serving corporate defendants, such as serving a designated representative or registered agent.

35. **Service by Publication:** In certain circumstances, when the defendant cannot be located or identified, service by publication may be allowed. This involves publishing the summons in newspapers or other authorized publications. The legal issue involves meeting the legal requirements and ensuring that service by publication is an appropriate and valid method in the given situation.

36. **Service on Government Entities:** When serving a government entity or a government official, additional legal issues may arise, including immunity, special procedures, or specific rules governing service on government entities. The legal issue involves understanding and complying with the specific requirements and procedures for serving government entities or officials.

37. **Cross-Border Service:** In cases involving cross-border disputes, serving a summons in a foreign jurisdiction can present complex legal issues. This includes considerations of international law, treaties, conventions, and bilateral agreements governing service of process. The legal issue involves navigating the intricacies of cross-border service and ensuring compliance with applicable international legal frameworks.

38. **Proof of Service:** After serving the summons, it is important to provide proof of service to the court. This may involve submitting an affidavit of service or a certificate of service, which serves as evidence that the summons was properly served. The legal issue involves preparing and presenting accurate and valid proof of service.

39. **Challenging Service:** The defendant may challenge the validity or adequacy of service, claiming that the summons was not served properly or that the service was defective. The legal issue involves addressing



and responding to such challenges, presenting evidence of proper service, and seeking validation from the court if necessary.

40. Consequences of Improper Service: If service is not carried out in accordance with the prescribed rules and procedures, it may have serious consequences. The legal issue involves understanding the potential ramifications of improper service, including the potential for dismissal of the lawsuit or other adverse outcomes.

**Discuss the legal issues related to the effect of the expiry of the period for service of summons:**

1. Dismissal of Suit: Order 5, Rule 1(3)(a) states that if summons have been issued, and service is not effected within 21 days from the date of issue, or if there is no application for an extension of time, or if the application for an extension of time is dismissed, the suit shall be dismissed without notice. The legal issue here is the consequence of the expiry of the period for service, leading to the automatic dismissal of the suit. Parties must be aware of the time limits and take appropriate actions to ensure timely service.

2. Authority to Effect Service: Order 5, Rule 7 specifies that summons may be delivered for service to a person authorized by the court, an advocate, or an advocate's clerk approved by the court. The legal issue arises regarding the requirement for proper authorization to effect service. Failure to comply with this requirement may result in improper service, which could have implications for the validity of subsequent proceedings.

3. Effect of Proceeding Without Service: If the service of summons is not effected within the stipulated period, the proceedings may continue ex parte (in the absence of the defendant). However, the defendant has the right to apply to set aside the ex parte judgment under Order 9, Rule 12. The legal issue involves the procedure for setting aside the ex parte judgment and the defendant's opportunity to present their case if they were not properly served with the summons.

4. Application to Set Aside Ex Parte Judgment: To set aside an ex parte judgment, the defendant must make an application to the court supported by an affidavit. This application is made through a summons in chambers under Order 98, Rule 29. The legal issue pertains to the process and requirements for setting aside an ex parte judgment when the defendant claims they were not served with the summons.

5. Forum: The forum for these legal issues is the High Court, as the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) apply to the High Court under Section 1 of the Civil Procedure Act. This legal issue pertains to the jurisdiction in which these rules and procedures are applicable.

It is important for parties involved in legal proceedings to understand these legal issues surrounding the effect of the expiry of the period for service of summons. Compliance with the rules and timely action is essential to ensure the validity and effectiveness of the proceedings.

6. Application for Extension of Time: If the party responsible for serving the summons is unable to effect service within the prescribed period, they may apply for an extension of time. The legal issue revolves around the procedure and requirements for making such an application, including demonstrating valid reasons for the delay and seeking court approval.

7. Validity of Service: Proper service of summons is crucial for the validity of subsequent proceedings. If service is not effected within the stipulated period or is not conducted in accordance with the prescribed rules, there may be questions regarding the validity of the service. The legal issue involves determining whether service was proper and compliant with the relevant provisions of the law.

8. Dismissal Without Notice: Order 5, Rule 1(3)(a) states that if service is not effected within the prescribed period and no extension of time is granted, the suit shall be dismissed without notice. This raises the issue of the consequences of failing to serve the summons within the required timeframe, including the automatic dismissal of the suit without further notice to the parties involved.

9. Setting Aside Ex Parte Judgment: If the suit proceeds ex parte due to the defendant not being served with the summons, the defendant has the right to apply for the ex parte judgment to be set aside. The legal issue involves the procedure for setting aside the judgment, including the requirement to make an application supported by an affidavit and demonstrating that proper service was not effected.

10. Compliance with Civil Procedure Rules: The Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) applicable in Uganda govern the procedure for the service of summons and related matters. The legal issue is ensuring compliance with the specific rules and provisions outlined in the CPR to ensure the validity and effectiveness of the service of summons.

11. Interpretation of Order 5, Rule 1(3)(a): The interpretation and application of Order 5, Rule 1(3)(a) of the CPR may raise legal issues. This includes understanding the scope of the provision, any exceptions or circumstances where the court may exercise discretion in extending the time for service, and the impact on the proceedings in case of non-compliance.

These additional legal issues highlight the importance of understanding the specific provisions of Ugandan law, particularly the Civil Procedure Rules, regarding the effect of the expiry of the period for service of summons. Parties should adhere to the prescribed timelines and procedures to ensure the validity of the proceedings and avoid adverse consequences.

12. Consequences of Improper Service: If service of summons is not conducted in accordance with the prescribed rules, it may be deemed improper. The legal issue is that improper service can potentially lead to challenges regarding the validity of subsequent proceedings. Parties must ensure that service is conducted in a manner consistent with the rules to avoid such issues.

13. Burden of Proof: In cases where the defendant claims they were not properly served with the summons, the burden of proof rests on the defendant to establish that fact. The legal issue involves the standard of proof required for the defendant to successfully challenge the service and set aside any ex parte judgment.

14. Notice Requirement: Order 5, Rule 1(3)(a) provides for the dismissal of the suit without notice if service is not effected within the prescribed period. The legal issue pertains to the question of whether this rule is in compliance with the principles of natural justice and due process, particularly regarding the requirement of providing notice to the parties before dismissing a suit.

15. Remedies for Improper Service: If a party can demonstrate that service of summons was improper or not effected within the prescribed period, they may seek remedies such as setting aside the ex parte judgment or seeking an extension of time for service. The legal issue is the availability and process of such remedies under Ugandan law.

16. Role of the Registrar: The Registrar plays a significant role in the process of service of summons. The legal issue is to understand the powers and responsibilities of the Registrar in issuing, forwarding, and ensuring proper service of summons, as well as the consequences if the Registrar fails to perform these duties diligently.

17. Application of International Service of Process Rules: In cases where service needs to be made outside Uganda, the legal issue arises regarding the application of international service of process rules. Parties must consider the relevant provisions, such as The Hague Service Convention, and comply with the applicable procedures for serving summons in foreign jurisdictions.

**Discuss legal issues related to proceedings ex parte provisions, the following points should be noted:**

1. Failure to File a Defence: Order 9, Rule 10 states that if a defendant does not file a defence by the specified date, the suit may proceed ex parte. The legal issue here is the consequence of the defendant's failure to respond within the prescribed timeline and the impact on the subsequent proceedings.

2. Valid Service of Summons or Notice: Order 9, Rule 20 requires that for the court to proceed ex parte, it must be satisfied that the summons or notice of hearing was duly served on the defendant. The legal issue revolves around the sufficiency and validity of the service of the summons or notice, and whether the court can proceed in the absence of the defendant based on proper service.

3. Opportunity for the Defendant to Present a Defence: The principle of natural justice and due process is a legal issue to consider in ex parte proceedings. The court must ensure that the defendant had a reasonable opportunity to present their case and that their absence is not due to any procedural irregularity or denial of their rights.

4. Setting Aside an Ex Parte Judgment: If a judgment is rendered ex parte, the defendant has the right to apply to the court to set aside the judgment. This raises the legal issue of the procedure for setting aside an ex parte judgment, including the grounds on which such an application can be made and the standard of proof required.

5. Compliance with Notice Requirements: The court must verify that the summons or notice of hearing was duly served on the defendant. The legal issue is whether the requirements for giving notice were properly followed, including the manner and timing of service, to ensure that the defendant had reasonable notice of the proceedings.

6. Impact on the Burden of Proof: In ex parte proceedings, the burden of proof may shift to the plaintiff, who is the only party presenting their case. The legal issue is how the court evaluates and weighs the evidence presented by the plaintiff when the defendant is not present to contest or provide their own evidence.

7. Consequences of Ex Parte Proceedings: Another legal issue concerns the implications of the court proceeding ex parte. This includes the validity and enforceability of the resulting judgment, potential challenges to the judgment, and the ability of the defendant to seek redress or appeal the decision.

It is important to note that the specific application and interpretation of these legal issues will depend on the facts and circumstances of each case and the relevant laws and rules of procedure in Uganda. Consulting with legal professionals familiar with Ugandan civil procedure is advised to ensure a thorough understanding of the legal issues and their implications in a particular situation.

➤ **What are the various aspects of filing a defense and the requirements for a valid defense?**



1. **Written Statement of Defense (WSD):** Under Order 9, Rule 1(1) of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defendant in an ordinary suit has a right to file a Written Statement of Defense. This provides an opportunity for the defendant to present their response to the plaintiff's statement of claim.

2. **Conditional Defense:** Order 36 of the Civil Procedure Rules addresses conditional defenses. In certain cases, a defendant does not have an automatic right to defend and must apply for leave to appear and defend. The court may grant the application subject to the defendant satisfying certain conditions before filing their defense.

3. **Technical Defenses:** Technical defenses are based on points of law. For example, if a suit is filed after the expiration of the limitation period, the defense of limitation can be raised. Another technical defense is *res judicata*, which prevents the re-litigation of a matter that has already been adjudicated.

4. **General Defenses:** General defenses address the facts raised by the adverse party. According to Order 6, Rule 10, evasive denials are not permissible. A good defense should specifically respond to each allegation of fact raised by the plaintiff and should not rely on general denials. Each allegation that is not admitted must be specifically addressed.

5. **Specific Denial and Admission:** Order 6, Rule 8 requires a defendant to specifically deny or admit each allegation of fact raised by the plaintiff, except damages. If a defendant fails to specifically deny an allegation, it may be taken as admitted, unless the court requires proof.

6. **Plausible Defenses and Sham Defenses:** Plausible defenses are those that have merit or appear to have merit on the face of it. On the other hand, sham defenses are without merit and may be filed in bad faith or out of dishonesty. Courts are cautious about allowing sham defenses and may take appropriate action if such defenses are identified.

7. **Defenses Containing Admissions:** If a defendant admits part of the claim, it may be considered an admission of the entire claim unless stated otherwise. The defense should clearly indicate which parts of the claim are admitted and which parts are denied.

When preparing a defense, it is important to clearly state the allegations being denied, indicate any allegations that require proof from the plaintiff, and specify the allegations that are admitted. Denials should be expressed and accompanied by a reason, and if the defendant intends to present their own version of facts, it should be clearly stated in the defense.

8. Contents of the Defense: The defense should clearly outline the defendant's position regarding the allegations made by the plaintiff. It should specify which allegations are denied, which allegations the defendant is unable to admit or deny but requires the plaintiff to prove, and which allegations are admitted. Denials should be accompanied by reasons and should not be evasive. Order 6, Rule 10 emphasizes the importance of providing specific responses to each allegation of fact.

9. Raising Limitation: If the defense is based on the expiration of the limitation period, the defendant should provide details of the relevant dates and explain how the claim is time-barred. This allows the court to assess the applicability of the defense.

➤ **Kindly discuss the legal issues discussed in relation to filing a defense?**

1. Non-Conditional Defense: This refers to the defense available to a defendant as an express right, such as the right to file a Written Statement of Defense (WSD) in an ordinary suit under Order 9 Rule 1(1) of the Civil Procedure Rules.

2. Conditional Defense: Under Order 36 of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defendant does not have an automatic right to defend. They must apply for leave to appear and defend, and the court may impose certain conditions before allowing the filing of the defense.

3. Technical Defense: This defense is based on points of law, such as filing a suit out of time where the defense of limitation may apply. Another example of a technical defense is res judicata, which is provided for in Section 5.7 of the Civil Procedure Act.

4. General Defenses: These defenses are intended to address the facts raised by the adverse party. Evasive denials are not permissible under Order 6 Rule 10. A good defense must specifically address each allegation of fact and not deny them generally, as provided in Order 6 Rule 8 and Order 8 Rule 3.

5. Plausible Defenses and Sham Defenses: Plausible defenses are those with merit or that appear to have merit on their face. Sham defenses, on the other hand, are without merit and may be filed in bad faith to buy time or out of dishonesty.

6. Defenses Containing Admissions: If the defendant admits part of the claim, it may be treated as an admission of the entire claim.

7. Contents of the Defense: The defense should clearly state which allegations are being denied, which allegations cannot be admitted or denied but require proof from the plaintiff, and which allegations are admitted. Denials must be expressed and accompanied by a reason, and any alternative version of facts should be clearly presented.

1. Non-Conditional Defense: It is the right of a defendant to file a Written Statement of Defense (WSD) under Order 9 Rule 1(1) of the Civil Procedure Rules when commencing an ordinary suit.

2. Conditional Defense: Under Order 36 of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defendant does not have an automatic right to defense. They may need to apply for leave to appear and defend, and the court may impose certain conditions before allowing the filing of the defense.

3. Technical Defense: This defense is based on points of law, such as filing a suit out of time, where limitation becomes a defense. Another technical defense is res judicata, as provided in Section 5.7 of the Civil Procedure Act.

4. General Defenses: These defenses address the facts raised by the adverse party. Evasive denials are not permissible under Order 6 Rule 10. A good defense must specifically address each allegation of facts, as stated in Order 6 Rule 8 and Order 8 Rule 3.

5. Plausible Defenses and Sham Defenses: Plausible defenses have merit or appear to have merit on their face, while sham defenses are filed in bad faith or out of dishonesty to buy time without any genuine merit.

6. Defenses Containing Admissions: If a defendant admits part of the claim, it may result in the admission of the entire claim.

7. Contents of the Defense: The defense should clearly indicate which allegations are denied, which allegations cannot be admitted or denied but would require the plaintiff to prove, and which allegations are admitted. Denials must be expressed with reasons and should not be evasive under Order 6 Rule 10. If the defendant intends to present their version of facts, it should be stated clearly.

➤ **What are the legal issues regarding the Written Statement of Defence (WSD)?**

1. Timeframe for filing: Order 5, Rule 1(a) requires the defendant to file a WSD within the time prescribed in the summons. Failure to do so may exclude the party from participating in court proceedings.

2. Filing requirements: The WSD must be filed in the same court or division where the suit is pending. It should be filed within 15 days from the date of service, endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, sealed, and accompanied by evidence of payment of court fees. In the case of the Attorney General, the defense must be filed within 30 days from the date of service.

3. Contents of the WSD: The WSD should not contain a bare denial but must include facts that constitute a reasonable defense. Denials should be specific, addressing each allegation of fact denied. If the defense discloses no reasonable answer, it may be struck out upon application by the plaintiff.

4. Witness Statement of Defense (WSD): The WSD must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, a list of authorities, a list of witnesses, and relevant documents. Additionally, under Rule 5 of the Judicature Rules 2013, the WSD must be filed together with the defendant's mediation case summary.

5. Extension of time: The defendant may apply for an extension of time to file a WSD or to file a defense out of time and seek an extension to validate it, as provided by Order 51, Rules 6 and 7.

6. Consequences of failure to file a defense: Failure to file a defense may result in an ex parte judgment entered against the defendant, meaning the case proceeds without their participation. The defendant may be considered to have put themselves out of the court and will not be heard.

It is important to note that while the passage refers to specific Ugandan case law, no specific case citations were provided. To gain a deeper understanding and access specific case law supporting these legal issues, it would be advisable to consult Ugandan legal resources, such as law reports and journals, or seek guidance from a qualified legal professional in Uganda.

**In the given Written Statement of Defence (WSD), several legal issues are addressed. discuss the issues and provide supporting legal authorities where available:**

1. Timeframe for filing a Written Statement of Defence: According to Order 5, Rule 1(a) of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defendant served with summons must file a WSD within the time prescribed in the summons. Failure to do so may have consequences on the defendant's participation in court proceedings.

Legal Authority: In the case of A.G and UCB v Westmont (1999) UGHC 9, the court held that failure to file a defence excludes a party from participating in court proceedings. This case supports the requirement to timely file a WSD to avoid adverse consequences.



2. Filing in the same court or division: It is a principle that a defence must be filed in the same court or division where the suit is pending.

Legal Authority: No specific legal authority is provided in the passage to support this principle.

3. Timeframe for filing a defence: Filing a defence must be done within 15 days from the date of service, as per Order 8, Rule 1(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules.

Legal Authority: No specific legal authority is provided in the passage to support this timeframe.

4. Endorsement, stamping, and sealing of defence: The defence must be endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, and sealed before it can be served.

Legal Authority: The requirement for endorsement, stamping, and sealing is mentioned in Order 9, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

5. Contents of the Written Statement of Defence: The defence should not contain a bare denial but must contain facts that constitute a reasonable defence. Denials should be specific and address each allegation of fact denied.

Legal Authority: In the case of Nile Bank Ltd v Thomas Kato Ors, it was held that a defence containing general denials or demands that do not specifically address each allegation of fact denied can be struck out under Order 6, Rule 8 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The plaintiff can apply to have such a defence struck off. This case supports the requirement for specific denials and addressing each allegation of fact denied.

6. Witness Statement of Defence (WSD): A WSD is a pleading that must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, list of authorities, list of witnesses, and relevant documents.

Legal Authority: The requirement for a Witness Statement of Defence and its accompanying documents is mentioned in Order 6, Rule 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

7. Extension of time to file a Written Statement of Defence: The defendant may apply for an extension of time to file a defence or to file a defence out of time and apply for an extension to validate it.

Legal Authority: The provisions for extension of time to file a WSD can be found in Order 51, Rules 6 and 7 of the Civil Procedure Rules. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

8. Consequences of failure to file a defence: If a defendant fails to file a defense, an ex parte judgment may be entered against them, and their locus (standing) before the court may be affected.

Legal Authority: In the case of *Sengendo v Attorney General* [1972] HCB 356, the court held that a defendant who fails to file a Written Statement of Defence puts themselves out of the court and cannot be heard. This case supports the consequences of failing to file a defense.

**In light of Written Statement of Defence (WSD) discuss and provide supporting legal authorities where available:**

1. Timeframe for filing a Written Statement of Defence: According to Order 5, Rule 1(a) of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defendant served with summons must file a WSD within the time prescribed in the summons. Failure to do so may have consequences on the defendant's participation in court proceedings.

Legal Authority: In the case of *A.G and UCB v Westmont* (1999) UGHC 9, the court held that failure to file a defence excludes a party from participating in court proceedings. This case supports the requirement to timely file a WSD to avoid adverse consequences.

2. Filing in the same court or division: It is a principle that a defence must be filed in the same court or division where the suit is pending.

Legal Authority: No specific legal authority is provided in the passage to support this principle.

3. Timeframe for filing a defence: Filing a defence must be done within 15 days from the date of service, as per Order 8, Rule 1(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules.

Legal Authority: No specific legal authority is provided in the passage to support this timeframe.

4. Endorsement, stamping, and sealing of defence: The defence must be endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, and sealed before it can be served.

Legal Authority: The requirement for endorsement, stamping, and sealing is mentioned in Order 9, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

5. Contents of the Written Statement of Defence: The defence should not contain a bare denial but must contain facts that constitute a reasonable defence. Denials should be specific and address each allegation of fact denied.

Legal Authority: In the case of Nile Bank Ltd v Thomas Kato Ors, it was held that a defence containing general denials or demands that do not specifically address each allegation of fact denied can be struck out under Order 6, Rule 8 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The plaintiff can apply to have such a defence struck off. This case supports the requirement for specific denials and addressing each allegation of fact denied.

6. Witness Statement of Defence (WSD): A WSD is a pleading that must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, list of authorities, list of witnesses, and relevant documents.

Legal Authority: The requirement for a Witness Statement of Defence and its accompanying documents is mentioned in Order 6, Rule 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

7. Extension of time to file a Written Statement of Defence: The defendant may apply for an extension of time to file a defence or to file a defence out of time and apply for an extension to validate it.

Legal Authority: The provisions for extension of time to file a WSD can be found in Order 51, Rules 6 and 7 of the Civil Procedure Rules. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

8. Consequences of failure to file a defence: If a defendant fails to file a defence, an ex parte judgment may be entered against them, and their locus (standing) before the court may be affected.

Legal Authority: In the case of Sengendo v Attorney General [1972] HCB 356, the court held that a defendant who fails to file a Written Statement of Defence puts themselves out of the court and cannot be heard. This case supports the consequences of failing to file a defence.

It's important to note that while the passage provides general principles and guidelines related to the Written Statement of Defence, specific case law authorities are not consistently provided. To further explore these legal issues and their application in Ugandan case law, it would be necessary to refer to specific judgments and precedents in the jurisdiction.

**Discuss the legal issues mentioned in the Written Statement of Defence and provide relevant legal authorities where available:**

1. Timeframe for filing a Written Statement of Defence: Order 5, Rule 1(a) of the Civil Procedure Rules in Uganda requires the defendant to file a WSD within the time prescribed in the summons. Failure to do so may result in the defendant being excluded from participating in court proceedings.

Legal Authority: A.G and UCB v Westmont (1999) UGHC 9 - This case supports the principle that failure to file a defence can lead to the exclusion of a party from court proceedings.

2. Filing in the same court or division: It is a general principle that a defence must be filed in the same court or division where the lawsuit is pending.

Legal Authority: No specific legal authority is provided in the passage to support this principle.

3. Timeframe for filing a defence: According to Order 8, Rule 1(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defence must be filed within 15 days after the service of the summons.

Legal Authority: No specific legal authority is provided in the passage to support this timeframe.

4. Endorsement, stamping, and sealing of defence: The defence must be endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, and sealed before it can be served.

Legal Authority: Order 9, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules requires the endorsement, stamping, and sealing of the defence. No specific legal authority is provided in the passage.

5. Contents of the Written Statement of Defence: The defence should not consist of a bare denial but must include facts that constitute a reasonable defence. Denials should be specific and address each allegation of fact denied.

Legal Authority: Nile Bank Ltd v Thomas Kato Ors - In this case, the court held that a defence containing general denials or demands that do not specifically address each allegation of fact denied can be struck out under Order 6, Rule 8 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The plaintiff can apply to have such a defence struck off.

6. Witness Statement of Defence (WSD): A WSD is a pleading that must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, list of authorities,

The Written Statement of Defence (WSD) is a crucial document in legal proceedings, and failure to file it within the specified time can have serious consequences for the defendant. According to Order 5 Rule 1(a), a defendant served with a summons must file a WSD within the prescribed time. In the case of A.G and UCB v Westmont (1999) UGHC 9, the court ruled that failure to file a defence would exclude a party from participating in the court proceedings.

The WSD must be filed in the same court or division where the lawsuit is pending, as stated by the principle established in Pinnacle Projects Ltd v Business In Motion Consultants. It should be filed within 15 days from the date of service, along with evidence of payment of court fees, as per Order 8 Rule 1(2). Additionally,



the defence must be endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, and sealed before it can be served, according to Order 9 Rule 1. However, if the defendant is the attorney general, the defence must be filed within 30 days from the date of service, as per Rule 6 of the government proceedings rules.

The WSD must not merely contain a bare denial but should include facts that constitute a reasonable defence. Otherwise, the plaintiff can apply, through a notice of mention, to have the defence struck off under Order 6 Rule 30, on the grounds that it discloses no reasonable answer. Denials in the defence should be specific, and a general denial is insufficient under Order 6 Rule 8. In the case of Nile Bank Ltd v Thomas Kato Ors, the court held that a defence containing general denials violated Order 6 Rule 7 (now 8), which requires each party to specifically address each allegation of fact denied.

A WSD is considered a pleading and should be accompanied by a summary of evidence, a list of authorities, a list of witnesses, and relevant documents, as stated in Order 6 Rule 2. Furthermore, Rule 5 of the Judicature Rules 2013 requires the WSD to be filed together with the defendant's mediation case summary.

If the defendant needs more time to file a WSD, they can apply for an extension of time. This can be done within the timeframe provided in Order 8 Rule 1(2). In cases where the defence has already been filed out of time, the defendant can also apply for an extension of time to validate it, as outlined in Order 51 Rule 6 and 7. Failure to file a defence has serious consequences. It results in an ex parte judgment being entered against the defendant, as mentioned under the "Proceeding ex parte" heading. The defendant's locus before the court is ousted, meaning they are excluded from participating in the proceedings. This was established in the case of Sengendo v Attorney General [1972] HCB at pg. 356, where the court concluded that a defendant who fails to file a WSD effectively puts themselves out of the court and cannot be heard.

**Here are some additional points regarding legal issues related to the Written Statement of Defence (WSD):**

1. Specific Denials: It is advisable for a defendant to include specific denials in their defence. According to Rule 3, every allegation of fact in the plaint that is not denied specifically or by necessary implication, or stated to be not admitted in the pleading of the opposite party, shall be taken as admitted. However, the court has the discretion to require proof of these admitted facts.

2. Mediation Case Summary: Rule 5 of the Judicature Rules 2013 mandates that the WSD must be filed together with the defendant's mediation case summary. This summary provides an overview of the case and any attempts at mediation or alternative dispute resolution.

3. Ex Parte Proceedings: Failure to file a WSD within the prescribed time can lead to ex parte proceedings. In ex parte proceedings, the case proceeds in the absence of the defendant, and a judgment may be entered against them without their participation. This emphasizes the importance of adhering to the time limit for filing the WSD.

4. Striking out the Defence: If the defence lacks a reasonable answer or contains general denials, the plaintiff can apply to have the defence struck out. This can be done by filing a notice of motion under Order 6 Rule 30. The court may grant this application if it determines that the defence does not disclose a reasonable defence.

5. Proof of Facts Admitted: While certain facts in the plaint may be taken as admitted if not specifically denied, the court has the discretion to require proof of these admitted facts. This means that even if a fact is deemed admitted due to a lack of specific denial, the court can still request evidence to substantiate the fact.

These points highlight some of the key legal issues and requirements associated with filing a Written Statement of Defence. It is essential for defendants to adhere to the prescribed timelines, provide specific denials, and ensure that their defence constitutes a reasonable answer to the plaintiff's claims to avoid adverse consequences in the legal proceedings.

#### **Discuss a few more legal issues related to the Written Statement of Defence (WSD):**

1. Amendment of the Defence: If a defendant wishes to make amendments to their WSD after filing it, they can apply for leave to amend. This can be done under Order 6 Rule 19, which allows the court to grant permission for amendments to the defence if it considers it just and necessary.
2. Counterclaims: A defendant may include a counterclaim in their WSD. A counterclaim is a claim made by the defendant against the plaintiff in response to the plaintiff's original claim. It allows the defendant to assert their own rights or seek remedies against the plaintiff. The counterclaim should be properly pleaded and supported by relevant facts and legal grounds.
3. Defences Based on Procedural Grounds: In certain cases, the defence may be based on procedural grounds rather than substantive issues. For example, the defendant may argue that the plaintiff's claim is time-barred or that the court lacks jurisdiction over the matter. These procedural defences should be clearly stated and supported by applicable laws and rules.
4. Affirmative Defences: Along with denying the plaintiff's allegations, a defendant may raise affirmative defences. Affirmative defences are legal arguments or justifications that, if proven, would absolve the defendant of liability, even if the plaintiff's allegations are true. Examples of affirmative defences include self-defense, consent, duress, or statute of limitations. These defences must be properly pleaded and supported by factual and legal grounds.
5. Burden of Proof: In a civil case, the burden of proof generally rests on the plaintiff. However, in some instances, the defendant may

The Written Statement of Defence (WSD) is a crucial document that a defendant must file within the specified time after being served with a summons, as required by Order 5 Rule 1(a). Failure to file a defence

can result in the exclusion of the party from participating in court proceedings, as established in the case of A.G and UCB v Westmont (1999) UGHC 9.

The WSD must be filed in the same court or division where the lawsuit is pending, according to the principles outlined in Pinnacle Projects Ltd v Business In Motion Consultants. It should be filed within 15 days from the date of service, along with evidence of payment of court fees, as stipulated by Order 8 Rule 1(2). The defence must be endorsed, stamped, and sealed by the registrar magistrate before it can be served, as specified in Order 9 Rule 1.

If the defendant is the attorney general, the defence must be filed within 30 days from the date of service, according to Rule 6 of the government proceedings rules.

The Written Statement of Defence should not merely contain a bare denial but must include facts that constitute a reasonable defence. Otherwise, the plaintiff can apply, through a notice of mention, to have the defence struck off using Order 6 Rule 30. Denials should be specific and not merely general, as required by Order 6 Rule 8. In the case of Nile Bank Ltd v Thomas Kato Ors, it was held that a defence containing general denials without specifically addressing each allegation of fact can be struck off.

The WSD is considered a pleading and must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, list of authorities, list of witnesses, and documents, as per Order 6 Rule 2. Rule 5 of the judicature rules 2013 also mandates filing the Written Statement of Defence together with the defendant's mediation case summary.

In cases where the defendant requires an extension of time to file a Written Statement of Defence or wishes to file it out of time, they may apply for an extension, as provided by Order 51 Rule 6 and 7.

According to Order 8 of the Civil Procedure Rules, a defendant must file the defence within fifteen days after service of the summons unless the court orders otherwise. It is advisable for the defence to include specific denials, as stated in Rule 3, to avoid admissions by implication.

Failure to file a defence leads to the defendant being considered "proceeding ex parte," and an ex parte judgment may be entered against them. This means the defendant's locus (standing) before the court is ousted, as stated in the case of Sengendo v Attorney General [1972] HCB at pg. 356. The court held that a defendant who fails to file a Written Statement of Defence puts themselves out of the court and cannot be heard.

#### ➤ APPLYING FOR EXTENSION OF TIME



If a defendant requires additional time to file a Written Statement of Defence or wishes to file it out of time, they can apply for an extension. This can be done under Order 51 Rule 6 and 7. These rules allow the defendant to make a formal application to the court, requesting an extension of the prescribed time limit.

The application for an extension of time should be made as soon as possible and should include the reasons for the delay in filing the defence. The court will consider the circumstances and exercise its discretion in granting or denying the extension. It is important for the defendant to provide a valid justification for the delay to increase the chances of obtaining the extension.

### ➤ WHAT ARE THE CONSEQUENCES OF FAILURE TO FILE A DEFENCE?

If a defendant fails to file a Written Statement of Defence within the prescribed time, they risk facing serious consequences. As mentioned earlier, the defendant will be considered "proceeding ex parte." This means that the court will proceed with the case without the participation of the defendant.

Consequently, an ex parte judgment may be entered against the defendant. An ex parte judgment is a judgment made in favor of the plaintiff without hearing the defendant's side of the case. The defendant's failure to file a defence effectively excludes them from the court proceedings, and their absence may result in an unfavorable judgment being issued.

The case of *Sengendo v Attorney General* [1972] HCB at pg. 356 is an example where the court held that a defendant who fails to file a Written Statement of Defence puts themselves out of the court and cannot be heard. This further emphasizes the importance of complying with the requirement to file a defence within the specified time.

In summary, it is crucial for defendants to file a Written Statement of Defence within the prescribed time frame to participate effectively in court proceedings. Failure to do so may lead to exclusion from the case and the possibility of an ex parte judgment being entered against them. Applying for an extension of time is an option in situations where the defendant needs additional time to file the defence, but it is essential to provide valid reasons to support the request.

### **Explain some additional important points regarding the Written Statement of Defence (WSD):**

1. Compliance with the rules: It is crucial for defendants to comply with the specific rules and guidelines governing the filing of a WSD. Failure to adhere to these rules may result in the defence being struck off or rejected by the court. Therefore, defendants should carefully review and understand the relevant procedural rules and ensure that their WSD meets the necessary requirements.



2. Reasonable defence: The WSD should not merely contain a bare denial of the plaintiff's claims. It must include specific facts that constitute a reasonable defence. This means that defendants need to provide a substantive response to the allegations made by the plaintiff, addressing each material fact and presenting a coherent legal defense.

3. Denial should be specific: Order 6 Rule 8 emphasizes the importance of specific denials in the WSD. Simply denying the grounds alleged by the statement of claim in general terms is insufficient. Each allegation of fact denied should be specifically dealt with in the defence. Failure to do so may lead to the defence being struck off or challenged by the plaintiff.

4. Pleading accompanying documents: Along with the WSD, defendants are required to submit certain accompanying documents, such as a summary of evidence, list of authorities, list of witnesses, and relevant supporting documents. These documents help to support the defendant's position and provide a comprehensive response to the plaintiff's claims.

5. Mediation case summary: Rule 5 of the judicature rules 2013 mandates that the WSD should be filed together with the defendant's mediation case summary. This requirement highlights the importance of considering alternative dispute resolution methods, such as mediation, in the early stages of the litigation process.

6. Seek legal advice: Given the technical nature of legal proceedings and the potential consequences of failing to file a defence, it is strongly recommended that defendants seek legal advice from qualified professionals. Legal experts can provide guidance on drafting a strong defence, complying with procedural rules, and ensuring the best possible outcome in the case.

Overall, defendants should approach the filing of a Written Statement of Defence with diligence and attention to detail. By presenting a well-structured and substantiated defence, defendants can effectively participate in court proceedings and protect their interests.

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**What are the key legal issues discussed in the Written Statement of Defense (WSD)?**

1. Timeframe for filing: Order 5 Rule 1(a) requires the defendant to file a WSD within the time prescribed in the summons. Failure to do so, as established in *A.G and UCB v Westmont* (1999) UGHC 9, can result in the exclusion of the defendant from court proceedings.

2. Jurisdiction and court division: The defence must be filed in the same court or division where the suit is pending, as stated in the *Pinnacle Projects Ltd v Business in Motion Consultants* case.

3. Time limit for filing: The defence must be filed within 15 days from the date of service, as per Order 8 Rule 1(2). However, if the defendant is the attorney general, Rule 6 of the government proceedings rules provides a 30-day time limit.

4. Contents of the WSD: The defence should not be a bare denial but must contain specific facts that constitute a reasonable defence. Failure to do so may result in the defence being struck out under Order 6 Rule 30, as explained in the *Nile Bank Ltd v Thomas Kato Ors* case. Denials should be specific and address each allegation of fact denied, in accordance with Order 6 Rule 8.

5. Witness Statement of Defence: The WSD must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, list of authorities, list of witnesses, and relevant documents, as required by Order 6 Rule 2.

6. Mediation case summary: Rule 5 of the judicature rules 2013 mandates that the WSD should be filed together with the defendant's mediation case summary.

7. Extension of time: Defendants can apply for an extension of time to file a defence or to file a defence out of time and seek an extension to validate it, as outlined in Order 51 Rule 6 and 7.

8. Consequences of failure to file a defence: Failure to file a defence results in the defendant being considered "proceeding ex parte," which means the court may enter an ex parte judgment against the defendant. The defendant's locus before the court is ousted, as stated in *Sengendo v Attorney General* [1972] HCB at pg. 356.

The WSD highlights the importance of timely filing, adherence to procedural rules, specific denials, and the inclusion of supporting documentation. Failure to comply with these requirements can have significant consequences for the defendant's participation in the court proceedings and may result in an adverse judgment.

9. Filing requirements: The WSD must be endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, and sealed before it can be served, as per Order 9 Rule 1. This emphasizes the importance of proper filing procedures to ensure the validity and acceptance of the defence.

10. Admission of facts: Rule 3 of Order 8 states that every allegation of fact in the plaintiff's claim, if not specifically denied or stated to be not admitted, shall be taken as admitted. However, the court has the discretion to require proof of any admitted facts. This highlights the importance of addressing each allegation of fact in the WSD to avoid unintended admissions.

11. Ex parte judgment: Failure to file a defence and participate in court proceedings can lead to an ex parte judgment being entered against the defendant. This means that the court will make a judgment in favor of the plaintiff without hearing the defendant's side of the case.

12. Legal representation and advice: Given the technical nature of legal proceedings and the potential consequences of failing to file a defence, it is crucial for defendants to seek legal representation and advice. Qualified professionals can provide guidance on procedural requirements, drafting a strong defence, and ensuring compliance with relevant laws and regulations.

In summary, the WSD raises various legal issues such as the timeframe for filing, jurisdiction, specific denials, accompanying documentation, admission of facts, consequences of failure to file, and the importance of legal representation. By understanding and addressing these issues appropriately, defendants can effectively participate in court proceedings and protect their interests.

13. Compliance with procedural rules: The WSD emphasizes the importance of complying with procedural rules, such as Order 5 Rule 1(a), which requires the defendant to file the WSD within the time prescribed in the summons. Failure to comply with these rules may result in adverse consequences for the defendant's ability to participate in court proceedings.

14. Specificity in denial: The WSD highlights the requirement for specific denials in the defence, as per Order 6 Rule 8. Merely denying the grounds alleged by the statement of claim in general terms is insufficient. Each allegation of fact denied should be specifically addressed in the defence to provide a clear and specific response.

15. Accompanying documents: The WSD must be accompanied by various supporting documents, including a summary of evidence, list of authorities, list of witnesses, and relevant documents, as mandated by Order 6 Rule 2. These documents help substantiate the defence and provide a comprehensive response to the plaintiff's claims.

16. Mediation case summary: Rule 5 of the judicature rules 2013 requires the defendant to file the WSD together with the mediation case summary. This highlights the court's emphasis on alternative dispute

resolution methods, such as mediation, and the importance of considering these options in the early stages of the litigation process.

17. Extension of time: The WSD acknowledges that defendants can apply for an extension of time to file a defence or seek an extension to validate a defence filed out of time, as provided in Order 51 Rule 6 and 7. This allows for flexibility in cases where the defendant requires additional time to prepare and file the defence.

18. Consequences of failure to file a defence: The WSD reiterates that failure to file a defence can result in an ex parte judgment being entered against the defendant. This means that the court will proceed with the case and make a decision without the defendant's participation, potentially leading to an unfavorable outcome for the defendant.

By addressing these legal issues and complying with the procedural requirements, defendants can present a strong and effective defence in court proceedings and safeguard their rights and interests. Seeking legal advice and representation is crucial in navigating these complex legal processes and ensuring the best possible outcome in the case.

19. Striking out the defence: The WSD highlights the possibility of the defence being struck out under Order 6 Rule 30 if it fails to provide a reasonable answer and merely contains a bare denial. The plaintiff can apply to have the defence struck out by filing a notice of mention, emphasizing the importance of crafting a well-pleaded defence supported by relevant facts.

20. Government proceedings rules: The WSD mentions Rule 6 of the government proceedings rules, which specifies a 30-day time limit for filing a defence when the defendant is the attorney general. This highlights that different rules may apply to specific defendants, and it is essential to be aware of these rules and their implications.

21. Locus standi of the defendant: Failure to file a defence, as stated in the *Sengendo v Attorney General* [1972] HCB case, results in the defendant putting themselves out of the court, thereby ousting their locus standi or ability to be heard. This underscores the significance of filing a timely and properly pleaded defence to maintain participation in the court proceedings.

22. Legal advice and representation: The WSD implies the importance of seeking legal advice and representation to navigate the legal process effectively. Given the technicalities involved in drafting a defence, complying with procedural rules, and understanding the implications of non-compliance, obtaining legal assistance is crucial for defendants.



By considering and addressing these legal issues in the preparation and filing of the Written Statement of Defence, defendants can enhance their chances of presenting a strong and effective defence in court. Compliance with procedural requirements, specificity in denials, and proper accompanying documents can significantly impact the outcome of the case and protect the defendant's rights and interests.

23. Jurisdiction and venue: The WSD emphasizes the principle that the defence must be filed in the same court or division of the court where the lawsuit is pending. This highlights the importance of identifying the correct jurisdiction and venue for filing the defence to ensure proper adherence to procedural rules and to avoid jurisdictional challenges.

24. Timeframe for filing: The WSD mentions Order 8 Rule 1(2), which states that a defence must be filed within 15 days after service of summons. This highlights the importance of adhering to the prescribed timeframe for filing the defence to avoid any adverse consequences, such as an ex parte judgment or striking out of the defence.

25. Summary of evidence: The WSD states that a Witness Statement of Defence (WSD) must be accompanied by a summary of evidence, emphasizing the importance of providing a concise overview of the evidence that will be presented in support of the defence. This assists in presenting a coherent and well-structured defence to the court.

26. Mediation case summary: Rule 5 of the judicature rules requires the defendant to file the Written Statement of Defence together with the mediation case summary. This highlights the court's emphasis on alternative dispute resolution methods, such as mediation, and the importance of considering these options before proceeding to full litigation.

27. Extension of time: The WSD acknowledges that a defendant can apply for an extension of time to file a defence or seek an extension to validate a defence filed out of time. This underscores the importance of promptly seeking an extension if additional time is required to ensure compliance with the procedural rules.

28. Admissions and denials: The WSD highlights the importance of specifically denying allegations of fact in the plaintiff's claim. Order 6 Rule 3 states that if an allegation of fact is not denied specifically or by necessary implication, it shall be taken as admitted. Therefore, it is crucial for the defendant to clearly deny any allegations they disagree with to avoid them being deemed admitted.

29. Striking out the defence for lack of reasonable answer: The WSD mentions Order 6 Rule 30, which allows the court to strike out the defence if it fails to disclose a reasonable answer. This rule emphasizes the need for the defence to provide substantive facts and arguments that constitute a valid and plausible defence against the plaintiff's claims.

30. Compliance with court endorsement and sealing: The WSD mentions that the defence must be endorsed by the registrar magistrate, stamped, and sealed before it can be served. This underscores the importance of obtaining the necessary court endorsements and seals to ensure the formal validity of the defence.

31. Pleading disabilities: The WSD acknowledges that certain allegations of fact may not be admitted when dealing with a person under a disability. This recognizes that individuals with disabilities may require special considerations in their defence and that the court has discretion to handle such cases differently.

32. Consequences of failure to file a defence: The WSD reiterates that failure to file a defence can result in an ex parte judgment being entered against the defendant. It emphasizes that this leads to the defendant being excluded from participating in the court proceedings, potentially resulting in an adverse judgment.

These legal issues discussed in the Written Statement of Defence highlight the importance of complying with procedural rules, presenting specific denials, addressing the plaintiff's allegations of fact, and filing a well-pleaded and timely defence. By understanding and addressing these issues, defendants can effectively protect their rights and present a strong defence in court.

➤ **Highlight the legal issues regarding different types of judgments can be summarized as follows:**

1. Judgment Content: According to Order 21 Rule 4, judgments in defended suits must include a concise statement of the case, the points for determination, and the reasons for the decision. Rule 5 states that when issues have been framed, the court must state its findings or decisions on each issue with reasons.

2. Judgment Dated and Signed: Order 21 Rule 3(1) requires that judgments be dated and signed by the judge issuing them in open court.

3. Alteration of Judgments: Order 21 Rule 3(3) states that judgments, once signed, should not be altered except as provided by section 99 of the act or on review.

4. Summary Judgment: Order 36 provides for summary judgment in cases where the plaintiff seeks to recover a debt or liquidated demand in money, with or without interest, and where there is no defense to the suit. The plaintiff may present a plaint accompanied by an affidavit stating the cause of action and amount claimed.

5. Consent Judgment: This is a type of judgment where the parties agree and draft a consent judgment, which is then filed in court for the judge's signature.

6. Default Judgment: Default judgment is provided for in Order 36 Rule 3. If the defendant fails to appear and defend the suit after being served with a summons, the plaintiff may be entitled to a decree for the amount claimed in the plaint, together with interest and costs.

7. Interlocutory Judgment: There are two categories of interlocutory judgments. Under Order 9 Rule 8, if the defendant fails to file a defense in cases involving pecuniary damages or detention of goods, the plaintiff may enter an interlocutory judgment. Additionally, interlocutory judgments may be passed in applications before the court during the subsistence of a main suit.

8. Ordinary Judgment: Ordinary judgments are pronounced at the close of a case and provided for under Order 21. The judge must pronounce the judgment in open court, sign and date it, and include a concise statement of the case, points for determination, decision, and reasons. The decree must align with the judgment and specify the relief granted and costs.

9. Ex Parte Judgments: Ex parte judgments occur when only the plaintiff is heard in the suit. They can be initiated when the defendant fails to file a defense within the prescribed time or is absent on the day of the hearing. The plaintiff has the burden to satisfy the court that they are entitled to the remedies sought.

10. Setting Aside Judgments: Under Order 9 Rule 12, a party aggrieved by default or interlocutory judgments may apply to have them set aside. The rule allows the court discretion to set aside the judgment upon sufficient cause being shown.

**Discuss the law that govern the process and requirements for different types of judgments in civil cases, ensuring fairness and procedural compliance in the judicial system.**

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Grounds for Setting Aside Judgments: Order 9 Rule 12 of the Civil Procedure Rules allows for the setting aside of default or interlocutory judgments. The rule does not specify the grounds for setting aside, but any sufficient ground that gives cause to the court to exercise its discretion is deemed sufficient. Sufficient cause has been defined as an adequate reason justifying the setting aside of a judgment.

Application to Set Aside Ex Parte Judgment: Order 9 Rule 27 provides an opportunity for a defendant against whom an ex parte judgment has been passed to apply to the court to set it aside. The defendant must satisfy the court that the summons was not duly served or that they were prevented by sufficient cause

from appearing when the suit was called for hearing. The court has the discretion to set aside the ex parte judgment upon such terms as it deems fit.

**Consent Judgment vs. Ordinary Judgment:** While a consent judgment is based on the agreement of the parties involved, an ordinary judgment is pronounced by the court after a hearing and consideration of the evidence and arguments presented by both parties. A consent judgment reflects the agreement reached between the parties, while an ordinary judgment results from the court's determination of the case.

**Judgment and Decree:** A judgment is a decision or pronouncement made by the court, whereas a decree is the formal expression of the judgment. The decree should align with the judgment, containing the suit number, names and descriptions of the parties, particulars of the claim, relief granted or determination of the suit, and the allocation of costs.

**Requirement of Notice for Setting Aside Decree:** Under Rule 28, no decree shall be set aside on an application unless notice of the application has been served on the opposite party. This ensures that both parties have an opportunity to be heard and respond to the application for setting aside the decree.

These legal issues pertaining to different types of judgments, including consent judgments, default judgments, interlocutory judgments, ordinary judgments, and ex parte judgments, ensure procedural fairness, protect the rights of the parties involved, and maintain the integrity of the judicial process.

**Summary Judgment:** In summary judgment cases, the plaintiff seeks to recover a debt or liquidated demand in money from the defendant. The judgment can be obtained by presenting a plaint accompanied by an affidavit stating that there is no defense to the suit. The court will review the evidence and may grant a summary judgment if it finds no genuine issue of material fact and the plaintiff is entitled to judgment as a matter of law.

**Alteration of Judgments:** Generally, judgments once signed by the judge in open court cannot be altered, except as provided by section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act or on review. This emphasizes the finality of judgments and ensures that they remain intact unless specifically allowed by law.

**Concise Statement of the Case:** Judgments in defended suits must contain a concise statement of the case, including the points for determination and the reasons for the decision. This requirement ensures that the court's reasoning is clear and transparent, enabling the parties and potential future readers of the judgment to understand the basis for the decision.



**Findings and Decisions on Issues:** If issues have been framed in a suit, the court is required to state its findings or decisions on each separate issue, along with the reasons for those findings. This helps in resolving disputes and provides clarity on the court's position regarding each specific issue raised during the proceedings.

**Application to Set Aside Default or Interlocutory Judgments:** A party aggrieved by the issuance of a default or interlocutory judgment may apply to have it set aside under Order 9 Rule 12. The rule allows for the setting aside of such judgments on sufficient grounds, giving the court discretion to determine whether there are valid reasons to grant the application.

**Consent Judgement:** A consent judgment is a type of judgment where the parties involved in a lawsuit agree to the terms and conditions of the judgment. The parties draft a consent judgment and submit it to the court for approval and signature by the judge. It is a voluntary agreement between the parties and is binding once approved by the court.

**Ex Parte Judgments:** Ex parte judgments occur when only one party, usually the plaintiff, is heard in the suit, and the other party, typically the defendant, is absent or fails to respond within the prescribed time. These judgments are subject to certain conditions and are generally used in situations where the absent party had an opportunity to be heard but failed to avail themselves.

**Setting Aside Judgments:** Under specific circumstances, a party may apply to have a judgment set aside. For example, Order 9 Rule 12 allows for the setting aside of default or interlocutory judgments on sufficient grounds. The court has the discretion to grant or deny the application based on the merits of the case and the reasons presented by the party seeking to set aside the judgment.

**Judgment and Decree:** A judgment is a formal decision or pronouncement of the court that states the court's findings, conclusions, and reasons for its decision. The decree, on the other hand, is the formal document that embodies the judgment and contains details such as the names of the parties, particulars of the claim, relief granted, and the allocation of costs.

**Ordinary Judgment:** An ordinary judgment is pronounced at the close of a case where a hearing is necessary. After hearing the case, the court will pronounce its judgment in open court, either immediately or on a future date, and provide notice to the parties or their advocates. The judgment is then dated and signed by the judge, and it contains a concise statement of the case, points for determination, decision on the case, and reasons for the decision.

**Summary Judgment:** Summary judgment is a procedure used to obtain a judgment without a full trial. It is available when there is no genuine dispute of material facts, and the court can decide the case based on the evidence presented. The court determines whether the case can be resolved summarily, and if so, it renders a judgment based on the legal arguments and evidence before it.

**Interlocutory Judgment:** An interlocutory judgment is a provisional or temporary judgment that is issued during the course of a legal proceeding. It is not a final resolution of the case but addresses specific issues or applications within the broader litigation. Examples of interlocutory judgments include orders for temporary injunctions, security for costs, or stay of execution.

**Default Judgment:** A default judgment is granted when a defendant fails to respond or defend the lawsuit within the prescribed time limit. It is typically awarded in favor of the plaintiff and may include the amount claimed in the lawsuit, interest, and costs. However, certain conditions and procedures must be followed to obtain a default judgment, such as proper service of the summons and compliance with relevant rules.

**Contents of Judgement:** The contents of a judgment typically include a concise statement of the case, points for determination, the decision on the case, and the reasons for the decision. In suits where issues have been framed, the court states its findings or decisions on each separate issue. The judgment should also be consistent with the decree, which specifies the relief granted or other determinations of the suit, as well as the allocation of costs.

**Alteration of Judgments:** Once a judgment is signed by the judge and issued in open court, it generally cannot be altered except as provided by law. Alteration may be allowed in limited circumstances, such as through a review process or under specific provisions outlined in the law. However, any alteration of a judgment should adhere to the prescribed legal procedures and safeguards to maintain the integrity of the judicial process.

**Consent Judgment:** A consent judgment is a type of judgment that is reached by the parties involved in a lawsuit through mutual agreement. It is typically based on a settlement or compromise between the parties and is drafted by the parties themselves. Once the parties reach an agreement, they submit the consent judgment to the court for approval and the judge signs it, making it a binding and enforceable judgment.

**Ex Parte Judgment:** An ex parte judgment is a judgment that is granted based on the presentation of evidence and arguments by only one party, without the presence or participation of the opposing party. Ex parte judgments are typically allowed in specific circumstances, such as when one party fails to appear in court or respond to the legal proceedings despite being properly served with notice. However, courts generally require the party seeking an ex parte judgment to demonstrate sufficient cause or justification for the absence of the opposing party.

**Setting Aside Judgments:** In certain situations, a party may seek to have a judgment set aside. This can be done through specific legal procedures provided by the court. Grounds for setting aside a judgment may include irregularities in the proceedings, lack of proper service, newly discovered evidence, fraud, or any other sufficient cause that warrants the court's intervention. The specific rules and procedures for setting aside judgments vary depending on the jurisdiction and the type of judgment involved.

**Review of Judgments:** In some legal systems, there may be provisions for reviewing judgments that have already been rendered. The purpose of a review is to correct errors or injustices that may have occurred during the initial judgment. The grounds for seeking a review and the procedures involved are typically governed by specific rules or statutes. Review processes are generally limited to certain circumstances and may have strict time limits within which an application for review must be made.

**Appellate Review:** When a party disagrees with a judgment, they may have the option to appeal the decision to a higher court. Appellate review allows a higher court to reconsider the legal and factual issues of the case and determine if the lower court's judgment was correct. The grounds for appeal, the procedures involved, and the standards of review may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific type of judgment being appealed.

Understanding these additional legal issues related to different types of judgments can provide a comprehensive overview of the complexities and procedures involved in the judicial process. It is essential to consult the specific laws and rules applicable in your jurisdiction to ensure accurate and up-to-date information.

➤ **Mention any types of judgements?**

1. Types of Judgments:

- The law relating to judgments is set out under Order 21 of the Civil Procedure Rules.
- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 21)

2. Contents of Judgment:

- Judgments in defended suits must contain a concise statement of the case, the points for determination, and the reasons for the decision.
- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 21, Rule 4 and Rule 5)

3. Summary Judgment:

- Summary judgment is provided for under Order 36 of the Civil Procedure Rules.
- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 36, Rule 2)

4. Consent Judgment:

- Consent judgment is a type of judgment where the parties agree to its terms.
- No specific legal authority is mentioned in the text.

## 5. Default Judgment:

- Default judgment is provided for under Order 36, Rule 3 and Order 9, Rule 6 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 36, Rule 3 and Order 9, Rule 6)

## 6. Interlocutory Judgment:

- Interlocutory judgment can be granted in specific circumstances such as applications for temporary injunctions, security for costs, or stay of execution.

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically various provisions such as Order 9, Rule 8, Order 41, Order 26, Order 22)

## 7. Ordinary Judgment:

- Ordinary judgment is provided for under Order 21 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 21, Rule 1)

## 8. Ex Parte Judgments:

- Ex parte judgments arise when only the plaintiff is heard in the suit.

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 9, Rule 11(2) and Order 9, Rule 20(1)(a))

## 9. Setting Aside Interlocutory and Default Judgments:

- Setting aside interlocutory and default judgments is provided for under Order 9, Rule 12 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 9, Rule 12)

It's important to note that while the text provides a summary of different types of judgments and legal procedures, it does not provide specific citations or references to individual legal cases or statutory provisions. The provided legal authorities are general references to the relevant provisions within the Civil Procedure Rules. For more specific legal authorities, it is recommended to consult the actual Civil Procedure Rules and relevant case law specific to your jurisdiction.

## 1. Types of Judgments:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 21)



2. Contents of Judgment:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 21, Rule 4 and Rule 5)

3. Summary Judgment:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 36, Rule 2)

4. Consent Judgment:

- No specific legal authority is mentioned in the text.

5. Default Judgment:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 36, Rule 3 and Order 9, Rule 6)

6. Interlocutory Judgment:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically various provisions such as Order 9, Rule 8, Order 41, Order 26, Order 22)

7. Ordinary Judgment:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 21, Rule 1)

8. Ex Parte Judgments:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 9, Rule 11(2) and Order 9, Rule 20(1)(a))

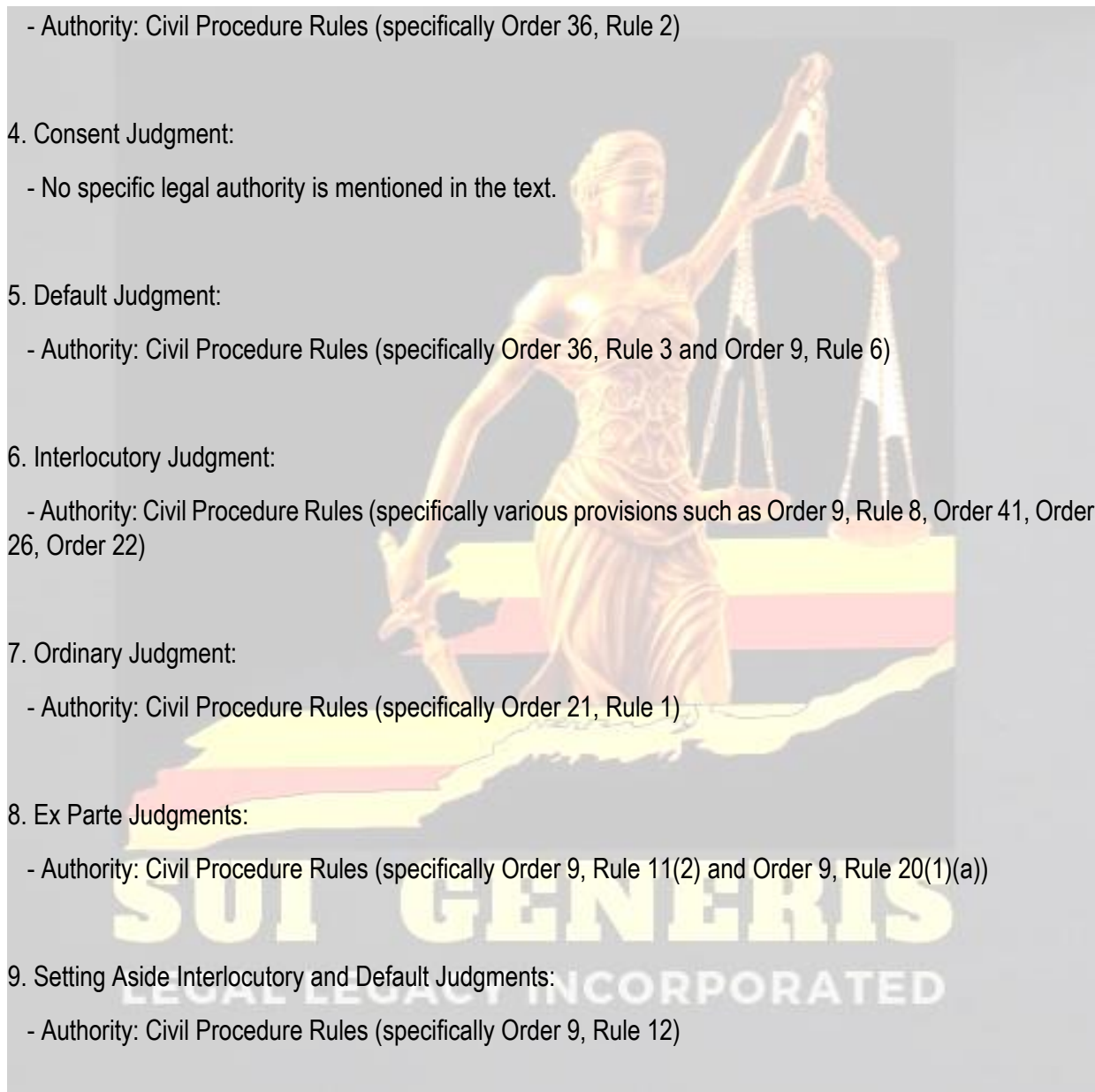
9. Setting Aside Interlocutory and Default Judgments:

- Authority: Civil Procedure Rules (specifically Order 9, Rule 12)

1. Muligande Zyedi v Uganda (Criminal Appeal 39 of 2013) [2021]:

- This case is cited as an example of a specific judgment.

2. Abedrrego Ongom v Amos Kaheru:



- This case is mentioned in relation to ex parte judgments.

3. Nicholas Roussos v Gulam Hussein Habib Viran and Another (Civil Appeal No. 6/1995):

- This case is cited to support the application of Order 9, Rule 12 of the Civil Procedure Rules for setting aside default or interlocutory judgments.

4. Kibuuka v Uganda Catholic Lawyers Society & 2 Ors (Miscellaneous Application 696 of 2018) [2019] UGHCCD 72:

- This case is mentioned to provide a definition of "sufficient cause" in the context of setting aside a judgment.

5. Kwizera Christopher t/a Kwiz Honest Auctioneers v Jephthar (Miscellaneous Application 345 of 2019) [2020] UGHCCD 111:

- This case is mentioned in relation to the interchangeability of the phrases "sufficient cause" and "good cause."

### **Procedure**

The procedure involves an application by notice of motion with an affidavit in support, seeking to set aside and enlarge the time within which to file the defense. The application is brought under Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act and Order 9 Rule 12, as well as Order 52 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. Additionally, the application references Section 96, Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act, Order 9 Rule 12, Order 15 Rule 6, and Order 52 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The relevant documents mentioned are the notice of motion, affidavit in support, and written statement of defense. It's important to note that setting aside ex parte judgments is governed by Order 9 Rule 27 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

### **What are the legal issues raised in this procedure?**

1. Setting aside and enlargement of time to file the defense: The main issue is whether the court should exercise its discretion to set aside an ex parte judgment and allow the defendant an extension of time to file the defense. This issue is governed by Order 9 Rule 27 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

2. Compliance with procedural requirements: The procedure involves filing a notice of motion and an affidavit in support. The legal issue is whether the application complies with the procedural requirements set forth in the Civil Procedure Act and Civil Procedure Rules, such as Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act and Order 9 Rule 12, Order 15 Rule 6, and Order 52 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

**To provide specific legal authority for these issues, let's consider the relevant provisions and case law:**

1. Setting aside ex parte judgments:

- Order 9 Rule 27 of the Civil Procedure Rules provides the basis for setting aside ex parte judgments. It states that a defendant may apply to the court to set aside a decree passed against them ex parte if they can show that the summons was not duly served or they were prevented by sufficient cause from appearing when the suit was called for hearing.

- Case law: In the case of *Abedrrego Ongom v Amos Kaheru*, the court considered an application to set aside an ex parte judgment. The case provides guidance on the burden of proof and the requirement for the plaintiff to satisfy the court that they are entitled to the remedies sought.

2. Compliance with procedural requirements:

- Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act grants the court inherent power to make orders necessary for the ends of justice or to prevent abuse of the process of the court.

- Order 9 Rule 12 of the Civil Procedure Rules provides for setting aside any judgment issued under Order 9 Rule 6 or Order 9 Rule 8. It allows the court to exercise its discretion to set aside the judgment on sufficient grounds.

- Order 15 Rule 6 of the Civil Procedure Rules governs the procedure for filing a defense.

- Order 52 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules pertains to the power of the appellate court to grant interim orders during the pendency of an appeal.

3. Grounds for setting aside the ex parte judgment: The application seeks to set aside the ex parte judgment and enlarge the time to file the defense. The legal issue is whether the applicant can establish sufficient grounds under Order 9 Rule 27 of the Civil Procedure Rules to warrant setting aside the judgment. The court will consider factors such as whether the summons was duly served and whether there was any sufficient cause for the defendant's failure to appear.

4. Enlargement of time to file the defense: The application also seeks an enlargement of time within which to file the defense. The legal issue is whether the court has the power to grant an extension of time for filing the defense and whether the applicant has shown good cause for the delay in filing.

5. Jurisdiction of the court: Another legal issue to consider is whether the court has jurisdiction to hear and determine the application. This will depend on the applicable provisions of the Civil Procedure Act and Civil Procedure Rules, as well as any other relevant statutes or case law.

6. Procedural fairness: The concept of procedural fairness is relevant in this context. The court will consider whether the applicant has been afforded a fair opportunity to present their case and whether the procedure followed in obtaining the ex parte judgment was fair and in accordance with the principles of natural justice.

7. Discretion of the court: Throughout the application, the court's discretion plays a significant role. The legal issue is whether the court should exercise its discretion to set aside the judgment and grant an enlargement of time. The court will consider factors such as the merits of the case, the reasons for the delay, any prejudice to the other party, and the interests of justice.

**Discuss the legal issues related to temporary injunctions:**

1. Jurisdiction and statutory authority: The legal issue is whether the court has the jurisdiction and statutory authority to grant temporary injunctions. The power to grant such injunctions is derived from Section 38 of the Judicature Act, which empowers the court to grant orders of temporary injunctions when it appears just and convenient to do so. Additionally, the court's discretion to grant temporary injunctions is governed by Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act and Section 64(c) of the Civil Procedure Act.

2. Considerations for granting a temporary injunction: The legal issue is whether the specific conditions for granting a temporary injunction have been met. Under Order 41 Rule 1(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules, the court may grant a temporary injunction if it finds that the property in dispute is in danger of being wasted, damaged, or alienated, or if the defendant threatens to remove or dispose of their property to defraud their creditors. Furthermore, in a suit for restraining a breach of contract or other injury, an injunction may be granted under Order 41 Rule 2.

3. Purpose and nature of a temporary injunction: The legal issue is to determine the purpose and nature of a temporary injunction. The primary purpose of a temporary injunction, as stated in the case of *Makerere University v Omumbejja Namusisi*, is to preserve the status quo of the subject matter of the dispute until the case is finally determined. The status quo refers to the existing state of affairs at a particular point in time. The court will examine whether the acts complained of affect or threaten the existing state of things.

4. Guiding principles for granting temporary injunctions: The legal issue is to apply the guiding principles established by Lord Diplock in the case of *American Cyanamid Co. v Ethion Ltd*. These principles include: (a) whether the applicant will suffer irreparable injury if the injunction is not granted, (b) whether the applicant has a prima facie case in the substantive suit, and (c) considering the balance of convenience.

5. Prima facie case and irreparable injury: The legal issue is to determine whether the applicant has established a prima facie case in the substantive suit and whether they would suffer irreparable injury. A prima facie case means there is a serious issue to be tried at trial, as held in the case of *Daniel Mukwaya*



v Administrator General. Irreparable injury refers to substantial or material harm that cannot be adequately compensated through damages.

6. Balance of convenience: The legal issue is to consider the balance of convenience when deciding whether to grant a temporary injunction. The court will assess the risk of doing injustice and determine which party would suffer more if the injunction is granted or denied.

7. Procedure for applying for temporary injunctions: The legal issue involves the correct procedure for applying for temporary injunctions. The application is made by summons in chambers, as per Order 41 Rule 9 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

8. Standard of proof: The legal issue is to determine the standard of proof required for granting a temporary injunction. In some jurisdictions, the applicant must demonstrate a prima facie case with a strong likelihood of success on the merits of the substantive suit. The court will consider whether the evidence presented by the applicant establishes a sufficient probability of success.

9. Notice requirement: The legal issue is whether the applicant is required to provide notice to the opposing party before seeking a temporary injunction. In some cases, the court may require the applicant to provide notice to the defendant and allow them an opportunity to be heard before granting the injunction. This is to ensure fairness and the right to be heard.

10. Duration of the temporary injunction: The legal issue involves determining the duration for which the temporary injunction will be granted. The court may set a specific period for the injunction or until further order. The duration will depend on the circumstances of the case and the need to maintain the status quo pending the final determination.

11. Modification or dissolution of the temporary injunction: The legal issue is whether the temporary injunction can be modified or dissolved before the final determination of the case. The court may consider applications from either party to modify or dissolve the injunction based on changed circumstances or new evidence that warrants such action.

12. Breach of the temporary injunction: The legal issue pertains to the consequences of breaching a temporary injunction. If a party violates the terms of the injunction, they may be held in contempt of court and face penalties or sanctions. The court may also consider granting additional remedies or damages to the aggrieved party.

13. Appeal of the temporary injunction: The legal issue involves whether a party can appeal the court's decision to grant or deny a temporary injunction. Depending on the jurisdiction, there may be specific rules and procedures governing the appeal process for temporary injunctions.

14. Bond or security requirement: The legal issue involves whether the court may require the applicant to provide a bond or security as a condition for granting a temporary injunction. The bond or security serves as a guarantee to compensate the defendant for any damages suffered if it is later determined that the injunction was wrongly granted.

15. Ex parte temporary injunctions: The legal issue pertains to the circumstances under which an ex parte temporary injunction may be granted. An ex parte injunction is one that is granted without giving notice to the opposing party. The court may consider whether there are exceptional circumstances or an urgent need to grant such an injunction before the defendant can be heard.

16. Variation or discharge of the temporary injunction: The legal issue involves whether the court has the power to vary or discharge a temporary injunction after it has been granted. This may occur if new evidence or circumstances come to light that warrant a modification or termination of the injunction.

17. Public interest considerations: The legal issue pertains to the consideration of public interest in granting or denying a temporary injunction. In some cases, the court may take into account the broader implications and potential impact on the public before deciding on the injunction.

18. Multiple temporary injunctions: The legal issue involves the granting of multiple temporary injunctions in the same case. It may arise when different parties seek injunctions with conflicting or overlapping terms. The court may need to consider the overall impact and balance of convenience in granting multiple injunctions.

19. Costs of the temporary injunction: The legal issue involves the allocation of costs associated with the temporary injunction. The court may consider whether the costs should be borne by the applicant, the respondent, or a combination of both parties.

20. Enforcement of the temporary injunction: The legal issue involves the mechanisms available for enforcing the temporary injunction. The court may specify the methods by which the injunction will be enforced and the consequences for non-compliance.

➤ **Briefly explain the Legal Issues in the Granting of Temporary Injunctions**

1. Court's Power to Grant Temporary Injunctions: The issue involves the scope of the court's power to grant temporary injunctions under Section 38 of the Judicature Act. This provision gives the court the discretion

to grant such orders when it deems it just and convenient to do so. It would be important to analyze the wording of the provision and any relevant case law that interprets its application.

2. Discretionary Nature of Granting Temporary Injunctions: The issue concerns the discretionary nature of granting temporary injunctions as provided in Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act and Section 64(c) of the Civil Procedure Act. It would be necessary to examine the factors that the court considers in exercising its discretion and any limitations or guidelines provided by the statute or case law.

3. Considerations for Granting Temporary Injunctions: The legal issue relates to the considerations outlined in Order 41, Rules 1 and 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules. These considerations include the danger of wasting, damaging, or alienating property in dispute, wrongful sale of property in execution of a decree, or the defendant's intention to defraud creditors. It would be important to discuss how these considerations are applied and interpreted in relevant case law.

4. Purpose of a Temporary Injunction: The issue involves the purpose of granting a temporary injunction, which is to preserve the status quo of the subject matter in dispute until the final determination of the case. Relevant case law, such as *Makerere University v Omumbejja Namusisi*, can be cited to support this proposition and provide further insights into the court's understanding of the purpose of temporary injunctions.

5. Prima Facie Case: The legal issue concerns the requirement for the applicant to demonstrate a prima facie case in the substantive suit. The court needs to determine whether there is a serious issue to be tried at trial, as established in the case of *Daniel Mukwaya v Administrator General*. Relevant legal authority and case law should be referenced to explain the significance of establishing a prima facie case.

6. Irreparable Injury: The issue involves the concept of irreparable injury, which refers to substantial or material harm that cannot be adequately compensated for by damages. The definition provided in *Giella v Cassman University v Omumbeja Namusisi* can be used to support the notion that irreparable injury is a key consideration in granting a temporary injunction.

7. Balance of Convenience: The legal issue pertains to the balance of convenience test in determining whether to grant a temporary injunction. The court must weigh the risk of doing an injustice against the applicant against the potential harm to the respondent if the injunction is granted. Case law such as *Gapco (U) Ltd v Kaweesa Badru* can be cited to explain the significance of the balance of convenience in the court's decision-making process.

8. Procedure for Temporary Injunctions: The issue involves the procedural requirements for seeking a temporary injunction, including the use of summons in chambers as specified in Order 41, Rule 9 of the

Civil Procedure Rules. It would be important to outline the procedural steps involved and any specific rules or practices that govern the application for a temporary injunction.

9. Adequacy of Damages as a Remedy: The issue involves the consideration of whether damages would be an adequate remedy for the plaintiff instead of granting a temporary injunction. The case of *American Cyanamid Co. v Ethicon Ltd*, cited in the provided text, is relevant in this regard. The court held that if damages can adequately compensate the plaintiff and the defendant is capable of paying them, an interlocutory injunction may not be granted.

10. Timing of the Acts Alleged to Affect the Status Quo: The issue concerns the determination of the relevant time frame when assessing the status quo. The existing state of affairs is assessed based on when the defendant's alleged acts occurred, when the plaintiff learned of the acts, or when the plaintiff issued the summons. The case of *Finasi/Roko Construction SPV Ltd and Anor v Roko Construction Ltd* provides insights into the definition of status quo and its temporal aspects.

11. Preservation of Property: In cases where the property in dispute is at risk of being wasted, damaged, alienated, or wrongfully sold in execution of a decree, the court may consider granting a temporary injunction. It would be important to analyze the specific provisions of Order 41, Rules 1 and 2 of the Civil Procedure Rules to understand the requirements for preserving the property.

12. Nature of Injury for Irreparable Harm: The issue involves determining the nature of injury or harm that qualifies as irreparable, meaning harm that cannot be adequately compensated for by damages. The case of *Giella v Cassman University v Omumbeja Namusisi*, as mentioned in the provided text, offers a definition of irreparable injury as substantial or material harm that cannot be adequately atoned for in damages.

13. Discretionary Factors for Granting Injunctions: In addition to the guiding principles mentioned earlier, the court's discretion in granting a temporary injunction may also be influenced by other factors, such as the public interest or public policy considerations. The specific legal authorities and case law from your jurisdiction should be consulted to understand the additional discretionary factors that courts consider.

14. Balance of Probabilities: When considering whether to grant a temporary injunction, the court may evaluate the likelihood of success on the merits of the substantive case. The applicant must demonstrate a prima facie case, meaning that there is a serious issue to be tried at trial. The case of *Daniel Mukwaya v Administrator General*, as mentioned in the provided text, emphasizes the relevance of determining the existence of a prima facie case.

15. Notice and Hearing: One legal issue that can arise is whether the opposing party has been given notice of the application for a temporary injunction and an opportunity to be heard. Fairness and due process



require that parties have a chance to present their arguments and evidence before the court makes a decision. The specific procedural requirements for notice and hearing will depend on the jurisdiction and applicable rules of civil procedure.

16. Duration of Temporary Injunction: Another legal issue is the duration for which a temporary injunction should be granted. The court must determine the appropriate time period for the injunction, taking into account the nature of the dispute, the need to maintain the status quo, and the interests of the parties. The court may set a specific duration or provide for the injunction to remain in force until further order of the court.

17. Modification or Dissolution of Temporary Injunction: After granting a temporary injunction, the court may be approached with a request for modification or dissolution of the injunction. The party seeking modification or dissolution must demonstrate a change in circumstances or show that the injunction is no longer necessary or justified. The specific legal standards and procedures for modification or dissolution will vary based on the jurisdiction.

***Discuss temporary injunctions against government projects and public bodies***

1. Public Interest: Courts are cautious in granting injunctions against government projects that are intended for the benefit of the public. The interests of the public at large are considered paramount, and injunctions should not be granted to favor the private interests of a few individuals. The decision to grant or refuse an interim injunction takes into account the public interest, as stated by Justice Musa Ssekaana in the case of Alcohol Association of Uganda and 39 Ors v The Attorney General and URA.

2. Unlawful Actions or Abuse of Power: Temporary injunctions can be issued against public bodies when they are acting unlawfully or abusing their statutory powers. The court has the authority to restrain a public body from acting in a manner that is contrary to the law or to compel them to perform a duty created under the relevant statute.

3. Suspension of Legislation: Courts should be reluctant to grant injunctions that would suspend the operation of legislation unless the law has been declared unconstitutional. Suspending the operation of a law without proper evidence and justification is considered a serious matter, as expressed in the case of Shell Petroleum Development Company of Nigeria Limited and Anor v The Governor of Lagos State & Others.

4. Wider Public Interest: Courts must consider and take into account the wider public interest when deciding on injunctions against public bodies. Public bodies should not be unduly restrained from exercising their

statutory powers, unless the party seeking the injunction can establish a prima facie case of unlawful action by the authority. The decisions or measures taken by public bodies are presumed to be in the best interest of the public.

**Discuss temporary injunctions in defamation suits:**

5. Damages to Reputation: In defamation suits, damages to reputation can generally be compensated for through monetary damages. The case of *J.N Ntangoba v The Editor in Chief of the New Vision* established that damages to reputation can be atoned for in damages.

6. Constitutional Rights vs. Reputation: The right to freedom of expression and the right to engage in lawful occupation must be exercised in a manner that does not harm another person's reputation. One cannot hide behind constitutional rights to defame others. The principle of "sic utere tuo ut alienum no laedas" (use your own property so as not to injure others) applies.

7. Difficulty in Enforcement and Curtailment of Right to Information: Temporary injunctions restraining further defamatory statements or publications can be difficult to enforce and may curtail the public's right to information. Therefore, the balance of convenience often lies in not granting such injunctions. Any further injurious publication is usually considered in awarding damages in the main suit.

**Discuss legal issues concerning interim orders:**

8. Preservation of Rights: Interim injunctions are sought to preserve the right of appeal or the right of hearing on the merits of a case. They are intended to prevent an appeal or application from being rendered nugatory by the actions of the parties.

9. Consideration of Likelihood of Success: In granting an interim injunction, the court does not consider the merits of the substantive case but rather whether the applicant or appellant's right to have it heard would be curtailed without the interim relief. There must be a pending substantive application with a likelihood of success.

10. Ex Parte Interim Orders: Ex parte interim orders can only be granted when giving notice to the opposing party would cause undue delay and defeat the purpose of granting interim relief. They are granted for a limited period (usually not exceeding three days) and lapse upon the hearing of the substantive application.

11. Variation and Vacation of Injunctions: Interim and temporary injunctions can be varied or vacated upon application by a party. This allows for the modification or termination of the injunction based on changed circumstances or new evidence. The procedure for seeking variation or vacation of an injunction involves filing a notice of motion supported by a valid affidavit. The court will consider the grounds presented and exercise its discretionary powers under Order 41 Rule 4 and Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act.

It's important to note that the specific procedures and requirements for seeking variations or vacations of injunctions may vary in different jurisdictions. Therefore, it's crucial to consult the relevant laws and rules of the jurisdiction in question.

In summary, when discussing and reviewing legal issues related to temporary injunctions against government projects and public bodies, it's important to consider the balance between private proprietary interests and the public interest. Courts should be cautious in granting injunctions that may impede projects intended for the public good, unless there is evidence of unlawful actions or abuse of statutory powers by the public body. The suspension of legislation should be approached with caution, and the wider public interest should be taken into account.

In defamation suits, the rights to freedom of expression must be exercised responsibly, without infringing on another person's reputation. Temporary injunctions restraining further defamatory statements may be difficult to enforce and may curtail the public's right to information. Damages to reputation can typically be compensated through monetary damages.

Interim orders are sought to preserve the right of appeal or the right of hearing on the merits of a case. They are granted based on the likelihood of success of the pending substantive application. Ex parte interim orders are granted in exceptional circumstances where giving notice to the opposing party would cause undue delay. These orders have a limited duration and lapse upon the hearing of the substantive application.

Finally, variation or vacation of injunctions allows for modifications or terminations based on changed circumstances or new evidence. The specific procedures for seeking such variations or vacations may differ based on the jurisdiction.

**Public Interest:** When evaluating temporary injunctions against government projects or public bodies, courts often consider the public interest as a paramount and relevant factor. Projects or actions that serve the interests of the public at large may be given greater weight over private proprietary interests or the interests of a few individuals. The courts should be cautious about restraining public bodies from performing their lawful duties, as long as there is no evidence of unlawful actions or abuse of power.

**Preserving the Status Quo:** Temporary injunctions are often granted to preserve the status quo pending the final determination of a case. The purpose is to prevent the ends of justice from being defeated and to maintain the existing state of affairs until the dispute is resolved. The court will consider the point in time when the acts complained of occurred or when the plaintiff became aware of them to determine the status quo.

**Prima Facie Case and Irreparable Injury:** In order to obtain a temporary injunction, the applicant must establish a prima facie case in the substantive suit, demonstrating that there is a serious issue to be tried at trial. Additionally, the applicant must show that they will suffer irreparable injury or harm that cannot be adequately compensated by monetary damages. If damages can adequately redress the harm suffered, the court may be less inclined to grant the injunction.

**Balance of Convenience:** When deciding whether to grant a temporary injunction, the court considers the balance of convenience. This involves weighing the potential harm or injustice that may be caused to the applicant if the injunction is not granted against the potential harm or injustice that may be caused to the respondent if the injunction is granted. The court aims to minimize the overall harm and do what is just and equitable in the circumstances.

**Discretionary Power of the Court:** The grant of temporary injunctions is discretionary and falls within the inherent powers of the court. The court will exercise its discretion based on the specific facts and circumstances of each case, taking into account the applicable laws and legal principles.

**Injunctions in Defamation Cases:** In defamation suits, temporary injunctions can be sought to restrain a person from making further slanderous or defamatory statements. However, such injunctions are considered carefully due to their potential impact on freedom of expression and the right to information. Courts often weigh the balance of convenience and consider whether the harm caused by further injurious publications can be adequately addressed through damages in the main suit.

**Interim Orders:** Interim injunctions or orders are sought when there is a pending application before the court, and there is a likelihood that the application will be rendered ineffective if immediate action is not taken. These orders are meant to preserve the right to appeal or the right to a fair hearing on the merits of the case.

**Essence of Interim Injunctions/Orders:** Interim injunctions are not decided on the merits of the case but rather on the preservation of the right to appeal or a fair hearing. They aim to maintain the status quo until the substantive issues can be fully addressed and determined.



Considerations for Interim Injunctions: When evaluating applications for interim injunctions, the court does not focus on the merits of the temporary injunction itself. Instead, it considers whether the applicant's right to have the case heard would be curtailed if interim relief is not granted. There must be a pending substantive application with a likelihood of success.

Ex Parte Interim Order: An ex parte interim order can be granted in exceptional circumstances where giving notice to the opposing party would cause undue delay or defeat the purpose of granting interim relief. These orders are temporary and typically lapse after a few days, pending the hearing of the substantive application.

Variation and Vacation of Injunctions: Interim and temporary injunctions can be varied or vacated by the court upon application by a party. The court will consider the circumstances and may modify or lift the injunction if it deems it necessary or appropriate.

### **Summary:**

- In the case of *Alcohol Association of Uganda and others v. The Attorney General and URA*, Justice Musa Ssekaana emphasized that courts should be cautious in granting injunctions against government projects that serve the public interest.
- Public interest is a crucial consideration when deciding whether to grant or refuse a temporary injunction.
- Injunctions can be issued against public bodies to prevent unlawful actions, abuse of statutory powers, or to enforce duties created by law. Courts should be hesitant to restrain public bodies from lawful actions.
- Suspending the operation of legislation through injunctions is a serious matter unless the law has been declared unconstitutional. Laws are made for the good of the state, and the power to tax, for example, is essential to society.
- When it comes to defamation suits, damages can often compensate for harm to reputation. However, injunctions may be necessary if further defamatory statements are likely to be made. Constitutional rights, such as freedom of expression, must be exercised without causing harm to others.
- Interim orders are sought when there is a pending application, and the actions of the parties might render the application ineffective.
- Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act allows courts to exercise their discretionary powers when granting interim injunctions.
- The essence of interim injunctions is to preserve the right of appeal or the right to a fair hearing on the merits. The court does not consider the merits of the temporary injunction itself.
- In considering interim injunctions, the court assesses whether the applicant's right to have the case heard would be curtailed without the interim measure.
- Interim injunctions are granted if there is a pending substantive application with a likelihood of success.

- The procedure for interim injunctions involves filing a notice of motion accompanied by a valid affidavit.
- An ex parte interim order can be granted if giving notice would cause undue delay and defeat the purpose of granting interim relief. It typically lasts for a maximum of three days.
- Applications for interim relief are generally made inter parties, but exceptional circumstances may warrant an ex parte order, such as urgent matters or real threats.
- Interim injunctions and temporary injunctions can be varied or vacated by the court upon application by a party.
- The procedure for variation or vacation of injunctions involves filing a notice of motion supported by a valid affidavit, in accordance with Order 41 Rule 4 and Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act.

➤ **What are the legal issues surrounding security for cost?**

The legal issues surrounding security for costs can be summarized as follows:

1. Governing Laws: Security for costs is regulated by the Civil Procedure Act Cap.71, the Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1, and Case Law.
2. Purpose of Security for Costs: Security for costs involves the payment of money into court by the plaintiff to ensure that if they lose the case, they can satisfy the eventual award of costs made against them.
3. Provision under Civil Procedure Rules: Order 26, rules 1, 2, and 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules govern security for costs. Rule 1 empowers the court to order a plaintiff to provide security for the defendant's costs. Rule 2 outlines the consequences of failure to furnish security within the specified time, including the dismissal of the suit. However, the plaintiff may apply to set aside the dismissal if they can prove sufficient cause for the delay.
4. Grounds for Applying for Security for Costs: Some reasons prompting a defendant to seek security for costs include:

- Plaintiff's residence abroad without substantial property within the court's jurisdiction.
- Plaintiff being nominal and impecunious, suing on behalf of another person.
- Plaintiff's deliberate avoidance of disclosing their address or changing it without notice.
- Defendant being forced to defend a frivolous and vexatious lawsuit.

- Insolvency of a plaintiff who is a company.

5. Conditions for Granting Security for Costs: Before an order for security for costs is made, the defendant must establish certain conditions, such as:

- Undue expense in defending a frivolous and vexatious action.
- The defendant having a good defense to the suit.
- The likelihood of the defendant's defense succeeding.

6. Poverty Not a Ground for Security for Costs: Mere poverty of a litigant is not sufficient grounds for ordering security for costs. Poor litigants should not be discouraged from enforcing their legitimate rights through the legal process.

7. Non-Residence as Ground for Security for Costs: Non-residence of the plaintiff has been a strong ground for ordering security for costs. However, exceptions exist when the plaintiff has fixed assets within the jurisdiction that could satisfy a potential costs order.

8. Reciprocal Arrangements and Security for Costs: In cases where countries have a reciprocal arrangement for the enforcement of foreign judgments, non-residence alone may not give the defendant the right to apply for security for costs.

9. Extension of Time for Furnishing Security: If a plaintiff fails to provide security within the specified time, the suit may be dismissed. However, the court has the power to enlarge the time if the plaintiff can demonstrate sufficient cause for the delay.

10. Precedents and Case Law: Various cases have shaped the principles surrounding security for costs, including considerations of impecuniosity, the merits of the case, and the importance of public issues involved.

11. Discretion of the Court: The court has discretionary power to order security for costs based on the circumstances of each case. The court will consider factors such as the financial status of the plaintiff, the merits of the case, and the potential costs that the defendant may incur in defending the lawsuit.

12. Insolvency of the Litigant: The insolvency of a litigant alone is not a ground for ordering security for costs. However, if the lawsuit is found to be frivolous and vexatious, an order for security for costs may be granted.

13. Frivolous and Vexatious Actions: The court has the inherent power to stay and dismiss actions or applications that are deemed frivolous, vexatious, or abusive of the court's process. For an action to be considered frivolous, it must be clear on the face of it that no reasonable person could consider it genuine or bona fide.

14. Burden of Proof: The plaintiff seeking to avoid an order for security for costs must demonstrate to the satisfaction of the court that they have fixed assets within the jurisdiction that can cover potential costs if they lose the case.

15. Reciprocal Arrangements within the East African Community: In cases where the plaintiff is a resident of a member country within the East African Community, the issue of security for costs should be reconsidered. If a decree obtained in one country can be enforced in another, the court may not order security for costs solely based on non-residence.

16. Application for Extension of Time: If a plaintiff fails to furnish security for costs within the stipulated time, they can apply to the court for an extension, providing sufficient cause for the delay. The court may consider such applications on a case-by-case basis.

17. Case Law: It is advisable to review relevant case law and precedents, such as the Galukande v Kibirige & 2 Ors case, to gain a deeper understanding of how the courts have applied the principles of security for costs in specific situations.

The legal issues related to security for costs, supported by legal authorities, can be summarized as follows:

1. Legal Framework: Security for costs is governed by the Civil Procedure Act Cap.71, Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1, and case law.

2. Purpose of Security for Costs: The purpose of security for costs is to secure a defendant who may incur costs to defend a suit instituted by a plaintiff who cannot pay the costs. (John Mukasa & Lithopack Ltd vs. M/S Srijaya Ltd)

3. Grounds for Ordering Security for Costs: Grounds for ordering security for costs include when the plaintiff is a resident abroad without substantial property within the jurisdiction, when the plaintiff is a nominal and impecunious plaintiff suing for the benefit of someone else, when the plaintiff has avoided disclosing their



address or changed it without notice, when the defendant is defending a frivolous and vexatious suit, and when the plaintiff is an insolvent company. (John Mukasa & Lithopack Ltd vs. M/S Srijaya Ltd, G.M Combined vs. A.K Detergents (U) Ltd)

4. Conditions for Ordering Security for Costs: The defendant must prove certain conditions before an order for security for costs is made. These conditions include whether the defendant is being put in undue expense defending a frivolous and vexatious action, whether the defendant has a good defense to the suit, and whether such a defense is likely to succeed. (Anthony Namboro & Waburoko vs. Henry Kaala)

5. Insolvency of the Litigant: Insolvency alone is not a ground for an order for security for costs. (Phillips Katabalwa vs. Ntege Ssebagala and Another)

6. Frivolous and Vexatious Actions: Courts have the inherent power to stay and dismiss actions or applications that are frivolous, vexatious, or abusive of the court's process. The alleged cause of action must be clearly one that no reasonable person could treat as bona fide. (John Mukasa & Lithopack Ltd vs. M/S Srijaya Ltd, Norman vs. Mathews)

7. Burden of Proof: A plaintiff seeking to avoid an order for security for costs must show to the court's satisfaction that they have fixed assets within the jurisdiction that can cover potential costs if they lose the case. (Rohini Sidipra vs. Freny Sidipra and Others)

8. Reciprocal Arrangements: In cases where there are reciprocal arrangements for the enforcement of foreign judgments, non-residence alone may not be sufficient grounds for ordering security for costs. (Kakpdia vs. Laximidas, Deepak Shah & Ors vs. Paparama & Ors)

9. Extension of Time: If a plaintiff fails to furnish security for costs within the stipulated time, they can apply to the court for an extension, providing sufficient cause for the delay. (Njerege Ngumi vs. Muthui)

10. Case Law: The case of Galukande vs. Kibirige & 2 Ors (Miscellaneous Application 261 of 2018) [2020] UGHCFD provides additional insights into the application of security for costs.

11. Discretion of the Court: The court has discretion in ordering security for costs and can consider various factors, such as the financial circumstances of the parties, the merits of the case, and the potential hardship caused to the plaintiff. (Civil Procedure Act Cap.71)

12. Amount of Security: The court has the power to determine the amount of security to be provided by the plaintiff, taking into account the estimated costs of the defense. (Civil Procedure Act Cap.71)

13. Variation or Vacation of Order: The court may vary or vacate an order for security for costs if there is a change in circumstances or new evidence that justifies such a decision. (Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1)

14. Impact on Access to Justice: The requirement of security for costs may impact a plaintiff's ability to pursue a legitimate claim and access justice. Courts must balance the need to protect defendants from costs with the principle of access to justice for plaintiffs. (G.M Combined vs. A.K Detergents (U) Ltd)

15. Exceptional Circumstances: In exceptional cases, even if a plaintiff fails to provide security for costs, the court may allow the suit to proceed if there are compelling reasons or if denying access to justice would result in a grave injustice. (G.M Combined vs. A.K Detergents (U) Ltd)

16. Discretion to Set Aside Dismissal: If a suit is dismissed due to the plaintiff's failure to provide security for costs, the court has the discretion to set aside the dismissal if it is satisfied that there was sufficient cause for the failure. (Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1)

17. Effect of Security for Costs Order: Once security for costs is ordered, the plaintiff must provide the required security to the court, typically in the form of a bond or deposit. Failure to comply with the order may result in the dismissal of the suit. (Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1)

18. Counterclaim and Set-Off: In some cases, a defendant may have a counterclaim against the plaintiff or a set-off that can be used as security for costs. The court may consider such counterclaims or set-offs in determining whether security for costs should be ordered. (Civil Procedure Act Cap.71)

19. Multiple Plaintiffs: If there are multiple plaintiffs in a lawsuit, the court may order security for costs from each plaintiff individually or from one or more plaintiffs as deemed appropriate. (Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1)

20. Security for Costs in Appellate Proceedings: The requirement for security for costs may also apply to appellate proceedings. The appellate court has the power to order security for costs if it deems it necessary. (Civil Procedure Act Cap.71)

21. Stay of Proceedings: In some cases, the court may stay the proceedings until security for costs is provided by the plaintiff. This means that the case will be put on hold until the plaintiff complies with the court's order. (Civil Procedure Rules S.I No.71-1)

22. Third-Party Funding: In situations where the plaintiff is funded by a third party, such as a litigation funder, the court may consider whether the funder should provide security for costs on behalf of the plaintiff. This is to ensure that the defendant's costs will be covered if the plaintiff is unsuccessful. (Case law and judicial discretion)

23. Discretionary Costs: When deciding on security for costs, the court may also consider whether it is appropriate to award costs to the successful party as a condition for granting security for costs. This can act as an additional safeguard for the defendant. (Civil Procedure Act Cap.71)

24. Application Procedure: The process for applying for security for costs may vary depending on the jurisdiction. It typically involves filing a formal application with the court and providing supporting evidence, such as financial statements or affidavits, to demonstrate the plaintiff's inability to pay costs. (Procedural rules and court practices)

25. Quantum of Security: The court has the discretion to determine the amount of security for costs that should be provided by the plaintiff. This amount is often based on an assessment of the potential costs that the defendant may incur in defending the lawsuit. (Case law and judicial discretion)

26. Variation or Revocation of Order: In certain circumstances, the court may consider varying or revoking an order for security for costs. This could occur if there are changes in the plaintiff's financial circumstances or if new evidence is presented that warrants reconsideration. (Procedural rules and court practices)

27. Enforcement of Security: If the court orders the plaintiff to provide security for costs and the plaintiff fails to comply, the defendant may seek enforcement of the order. This can involve various mechanisms, such as seeking a judgment for costs or applying for contempt of court. (Enforcement procedures and remedies)

28. Burden of Proof: Generally, the burden is on the defendant to satisfy the court that an order for security for costs is justified. The defendant must provide sufficient evidence to demonstrate the plaintiff's inability or unwillingness to pay costs if unsuccessful. (Burden of proof principles)

29. Public Interest Considerations: In some cases, the court may consider the potential impact on access to justice and the public interest when deciding whether to order security for costs. The court will balance

the interests of the parties while ensuring fairness and the efficient administration of justice. (Case law and public interest principles)

**Discuss various legal issues related to the application and granting of security for costs.**

1. WHO MAY APPLY: The application for security for costs can be made by defendants, defendants in counterclaims, respondents in appeals, appellants in cross-appeals, and third parties in third-party proceedings.

2. GROUNDS FOR APPLICATION: The applicant must satisfy the court that the circumstances warrant an order for security for costs. The grounds for such an application include:

- Lack of prospects of success in the substantive suit.
- Respondent's residence outside the jurisdiction.
- Joinder of plaintiffs to defeat the application or uncertain outcome on costs.
- Reasonable belief that the plaintiff will be unable to pay costs.
- Respondent's change of address or steps taken to evade enforcement.
- Restriction of justice to the rich.
- Applicant must have filed a relevant defense or reply.
- Reciprocal execution of judgments with the respondent's country of residence.

3. TESTS FOR GRANTING AN ORDER: The court has a wide discretion in ordering security for costs, and it must be exercised in special circumstances. The tests for granting such an order include:

- Admissions or payments made by the defendant.
- Detriment caused by the defendant's conduct.
- Whether the application is oppressive and aimed at stifling a claim with reasonable prospects of success.

4. COMMENTARY: There is no fixed rule for determining the amount of security for costs, and the court must act reasonably in each case.



5. PROCEDURE: The application is made under Order 23 Rule 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules, usually accompanied by an affidavit. In some jurisdictions, such as Kenya, an application based on non-residence may not require an affidavit.

6. MODE AND QUANTITY OF SECURITY: Once the application for security for costs has been made, there is no fixed rule or conventional approach to determine the exact mode and quantity of security. The court must consider the circumstances of each case and act reasonably in deciding the amount of security to be provided.

7. APPLICATION SUPPORT: Generally, the application for security for costs is made through a chamber summons accompanied by an affidavit. However, in some jurisdictions, such as the case of *Farrab v. Brain* [1957] EA 441 in Kenya, an application based on non-residence may not require supporting affidavit.

The legal issues ABOVE can be summarized as follows:

1. WHO MAY APPLY: The application for security for costs can be made by defendants, counter-claim defendants, respondents to appeals, appellants in cross-appeals, and third parties against defendants in third-party proceedings.

2. GROUNDS FOR APPLICATION: The court has wide discretion in granting an order for security for costs. The applicant must demonstrate that the circumstances warrant such an order. Grounds for application include the prospect of success in the substantive suit, non-residency of the respondent, joined parties to defeat the application, inability of the plaintiff to pay costs, address change or evasion of litigation consequences by the respondent, and steps taken by the respondent to make enforcement difficult.

3. THE PLAINTIFF'S PROSPECTS OF SUCCESS: It may be demanded in the interest of justice to order a plaintiff to give security for costs if the defendant has no defense to the claim. Factors considered include whether the defendant has made any admissions or payments into court and whether the claimant's detriment is caused by the defendant's conduct.

4. DISCRETIONARY TESTS: The power to order security for costs is discretionary and must be exercised in special circumstances of each case. The court applies tests such as the claimant's prospects of success, the stage at which the application is made, and whether it is designed to stifle a claim with reasonable prospects of success.

5. **MODE AND QUANTITY OF SECURITY:** There is no fixed rule for determining the mode and amount of security for costs. Courts must consider the circumstances of each case and act reasonably in deciding the appropriate amount.

6. **PROCEDURE:** The application for security for costs is made under Order.23 Rule 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules, usually through a chamber summons accompanied by an affidavit. However, in some cases, such as when the ground of the application is non-residence, an affidavit may not be required.

It is important to note that the specific laws and rules may vary in different jurisdictions. Therefore, it is advisable to consult the relevant laws and procedures applicable to the specific jurisdiction for accurate and up-to-date information.

### **BRIEFLY DISCUSS WHAT PERTAINS ARREST AND ATTACHMENT BEFORE JUDGEMENT?**

The legal issues surrounding arrest and attachment before judgment can be discussed with reference to specific legal authorities as follows:

1. **Purpose of Arrest and Attachment Before Judgment:** The purpose of granting an order of arrest and attachment before judgment is to secure the plaintiff against any attempt by the defendant to defeat the execution of a potential decree. This allows the court to take preventive measures to ensure that the defendant's actions do not hinder the plaintiff's ability to enforce a judgment.

2. **Legal Basis:** The law governing the granting of an order of arrest and attachment before judgment is provided in Section 64(a) of the Civil Procedure Act. This section empowers the court to issue a warrant of arrest and bring the defendant before the court to show cause why they should not furnish security for their appearance.

3. **Grounds for Issuing an Order:** Under Order.40 Rule 1, the court may issue an order of arrest and attachment before judgment when satisfied, based on an affidavit, that the defendant intends to delay the plaintiff or avoid the execution of any potential decree. Specific grounds for issuing such an order include the defendant absconding, leaving the local jurisdiction, or about to leave the jurisdiction or dispose of their property.

4. **Defendant Leaving Uganda:** Under Order.40 Rule 2, if the defendant is about to leave Uganda in circumstances that reasonably suggest that it would delay the execution of a potential decree against them, the court may issue a warrant of arrest and bring the defendant before the court to explain why they should not provide security for their appearance.

5. Suits Excluded from Arrest and Attachment Before Judgment: Section 12(a)-(d) of the Civil Procedure Act lists certain types of suits for which arrest and attachment before judgment are not applicable. These include suits related to the recovery, possession, foreclosure, sale, or redemption of immovable property, as well as suits for determining rights or interests in immovable property, compensation for wrong to immovable property, or the recovery of movable property under distress or attachment.

6. Conditions for Granting an Order: In order for the court to grant an order of arrest and attachment before judgment, certain conditions must be met. These conditions typically include demonstrating through an affidavit that there is a reasonable belief that the defendant intends to delay the plaintiff or evade the execution of a potential decree. The court must be satisfied with the evidence presented before issuing the order.

7. Nature of the Suit: As mentioned earlier, certain types of suits are excluded from arrest and attachment before judgment as per Section 12(a)-(d) of the Civil Procedure Act. These include suits involving the recovery, possession, or determination of rights to immovable property, as well as suits for compensation related to immovable property. It is important to identify the nature of the suit to determine whether arrest and attachment before judgment are applicable.

8. Security for Appearance: When an order of arrest and attachment before judgment is issued, the defendant is required to show cause why they should not furnish security for their appearance. This means that the defendant may be required to provide a guarantee or deposit a sum of money as security to ensure their presence in court during the proceedings.

9. Discretion of the Court: The court has discretionary power in granting or refusing an order of arrest and attachment before judgment. It must consider the circumstances of each case and assess the likelihood of the plaintiff's success in the suit, as well as the potential harm that may be caused if the defendant is not restrained. The court's decision will be based on the principles of fairness and justice.

10. Procedural Requirements: The procedure for obtaining an order of arrest and attachment before judgment typically involves filing a formal application supported by an affidavit. The applicant must provide sufficient evidence and legal arguments to convince the court that the order is necessary and justified. It is essential to follow the specific procedural requirements set out in the relevant civil procedure rules or legislation.

11. Purpose of Arrest and Attachment: The primary purpose of arrest and attachment before judgment is to ensure that the defendant does not dispose of their assets or leave the jurisdiction in an attempt to avoid the potential consequences of a judgment. It aims to protect the interests of the plaintiff and preserve the effectiveness of the court's eventual decree.

12. Conditions for Attachment: In addition to arrest, attachment of the defendant's property may also be sought before judgment. To obtain an order of attachment, the plaintiff must show that there is a reasonable likelihood that the defendant will dispose of or remove their assets to defeat the execution of a potential decree.

13. Types of Property Subject to Attachment: The court may order the attachment of various types of property, including tangible assets (such as real estate, vehicles, or valuable items) as well as intangible assets (such as bank accounts, stocks, or intellectual property rights). The specific rules and procedures for attachment may vary depending on the jurisdiction.

14. Notice to Defendant: Generally, when an order of arrest or attachment is granted, the defendant must be given notice of the order and an opportunity to show cause why the order should not be enforced. This ensures that the defendant has a chance to present their arguments and defend their interests before any further action is taken.

15. Release of Arrested Property: If the defendant furnishes sufficient security or satisfies the court in some other way, the court may release the property that was subject to arrest or attachment. The purpose is to strike a balance between protecting the plaintiff's interests and ensuring fairness to the defendant.

16. Consequences of Non-Compliance: If the defendant fails to comply with the order of arrest or attachment, they may face penalties and enforcement measures, such as further restrictions on their assets or imprisonment in certain cases. The specific consequences will depend on the laws and regulations of the jurisdiction.

17. Burden of Proof: The burden of proof rests on the plaintiff to satisfy the court that there are sufficient grounds for the arrest and attachment before judgment. The plaintiff must provide evidence or affidavits that demonstrate the defendant's intent to delay or avoid the execution of a potential decree.

18. Judicial Discretion: The court has discretion in deciding whether to grant an order of arrest and attachment before judgment. The court will consider the circumstances of the case, the strength of the plaintiff's case, the likelihood of the defendant disposing of assets, and the potential harm to the plaintiff if the order is not granted.



19. Expedited Proceedings: In some cases, the proceedings for obtaining an order of arrest and attachment before judgment may be expedited to ensure the effectiveness of the remedy. This is particularly relevant when there is a risk of imminent disposal of assets or the defendant leaving the jurisdiction.

20. Release of Attachment: If the plaintiff's claim is later found to be without merit, the court may order the release of the attached property and provide compensation to the defendant for any damages suffered as a result of the attachment. This ensures that wrongful or unjustified attachments are rectified.

21. Additional Security: In certain situations, the court may require the plaintiff to provide security or furnish a bond to cover any potential damages or costs that the defendant may incur as a result of the arrest and attachment before judgment. This helps protect the defendant's interests in case the plaintiff's claim is unsuccessful.

22. Review and Appeal: The defendant has the right to challenge the order of arrest and attachment before judgment through a review or appeal process. They can present arguments and evidence to demonstrate that the order was wrongly granted or should be modified or set aside.

23. Scope of Attached Property: The court has the power to attach not only the defendant's movable and immovable property but also their bank accounts, investments, receivables, and other assets. This broad scope of attachment aims to ensure that sufficient assets are available to satisfy any potential judgment in favor of the plaintiff.

24. Notice to Defendant: Typically, before issuing an order of arrest and attachment before judgment, the court will provide notice to the defendant. The defendant is given an opportunity to appear before the court and show cause as to why the order should not be granted or why the attached property should be released.

25. Preservation of Attached Property: Once the property is attached, the court may take measures to preserve and protect it during the proceedings. This may include appointing a custodian or receiver to manage the attached property to prevent its dissipation or deterioration.

26. Duration of Attachment: The attachment before judgment is typically a temporary measure that remains in force until the final judgment is rendered in the case. Once the judgment is passed, the attachment may be lifted, and the attached property may be used to satisfy the judgment debt.

27. Release of Attachment: In certain circumstances, the court may release the attachment before judgment if the defendant provides adequate security or satisfies the court that the attachment is unnecessary or

unjustified. This can happen if the defendant demonstrates that they have sufficient assets to satisfy any potential judgment or if the plaintiff's case lacks merit.

28. Enforcement of Attachment: If the defendant fails to appear before the court or does not comply with the order of arrest and attachment, the court may take further steps to enforce the attachment. This may involve the sale or auction of the attached property to satisfy the plaintiff's claim.

29. Third-Party Claims: In some cases, third parties may claim an interest in the attached property. They have the right to file a claim or intervene in the proceedings to assert their rights and provide evidence of their ownership or interest in the property.

30. International Considerations: In cases involving cross-border disputes, the enforcement of an order of arrest and attachment before judgment may require cooperation between jurisdictions. International conventions and bilateral agreements may govern the recognition and enforcement of such orders in different countries.

**The legal issues surrounding arrest and attachment before judgment can be summarized as follows:**

1. Purpose: The purpose of arrest and attachment before judgment is to secure the plaintiff against any attempt by the defendant to defeat the execution of a potential decree that may be passed against them.

2. Legal Provision: The law governing the granting of an Order of arrest and attachment before judgment is outlined in section 64(a) of the Civil Procedure Act.

3. Conditions for Issuing a Warrant: Under Order 40, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Act, the court may issue a warrant to arrest the defendant and bring them before the court if it is satisfied, based on an affidavit, that the defendant intends to delay the plaintiff or avoid any potential decree. The defendant must be given an opportunity to show cause why they should not furnish security for their appearance.

4. Grounds for Issuing a Decree: A decree under Order 40, Rule 1 may be issued if the defendant has absconded or left the local limits of the court's jurisdiction, or if they are about to leave the jurisdiction along with their property or any part thereof.

5. Rule 2: Under Order 40, Rule 2, if the defendant is about to leave Uganda in circumstances that may cause a reasonable delay in the execution of a potential decree, the court may issue a warrant to arrest the defendant and bring them before the court to show cause for not furnishing security for their appearance.

6. Exclusions: Section 12(a)-(d) of the Civil Procedure Act lists certain types of suits that are excluded from arrest and attachment before judgment. These include suits related to the recovery, possession, foreclosure, sale, or redemption of immovable property, determination of rights or interests in immovable property, compensation for wrong to immovable property, and the recovery of movable property under distress or attachment.

7. Procedure: The issuance of an Order of arrest and attachment before judgment is initiated by the plaintiff filing an affidavit with the court. The court will then evaluate the affidavit and determine whether there are sufficient grounds to issue a warrant for the defendant's arrest and appearance before the court.

8. Judicial Discretion: The decision to grant an Order of arrest and attachment before judgment is within the discretion of the court. The court will assess the evidence presented in the affidavit and make a determination based on the specific circumstances of the case.

9. Purpose of Arrest: The purpose of arresting the defendant is to bring them before the court to show cause why they should not furnish security for their appearance. This ensures that the defendant does not abscond or evade the legal process.

10. Security for Appearance: If the court is satisfied with the defendant's explanation and their ability to provide security for appearance, the defendant may be released on furnishing the required security. This security serves as a guarantee that the defendant will attend future court proceedings.

11. Balancing Interests: The court's decision to grant an Order of arrest and attachment before judgment involves balancing the interests of the plaintiff in securing their potential decree and the defendant's right to freedom of movement.

12. Legal Representation: It is crucial for both the plaintiff and the defendant to seek legal representation to navigate the complexities of arrest and attachment before judgment. Legal counsel can help protect their rights and present their case effectively before the court.

**Briefly explain the legal issues in the case of "Requirement for a Prima Facie Case"?**

1. Prima Facie Case: The court must be satisfied that the claim is not frivolous or vexatious and that the plaintiff has a probability of success. The plaintiff must demonstrate a prima facie case, meaning they have presented sufficient evidence to support their claim.

2. Failure to Comply: If the defendant fails to comply with an order for attachment, the court may commit them to prison until the decision of the suit or until the decree has been satisfied. However, the duration of imprisonment is limited to six months, or six weeks if the amount or value of the subject matter of the suit does not exceed 100 hundred shillings.

3. Procedure: The application for a prima facie case is made by chamber summons pursuant to Order 40, Rule 12. The court has the power to order various measures, such as attaching the defendant's property, arresting and detaining the defendant in civil prison for a limited period.

4. Freezing Orders: Under Order 40, Rule 5, the court may issue a freezing order if it is satisfied, based on affidavit evidence, that the defendant intends to obstruct or delay the execution of any decree. This can occur when the defendant is about to dispose of their property, remove it from the court's jurisdiction, or has left the jurisdiction while still having property there.

5. Prima Facie Case and Existence of Assets: In order to obtain a freezing order, the applicant must establish a prima facie case and demonstrate the existence of assets that may be at risk of dissipation.

6. Real Risk of Dissipation: The court will consider whether there is a real risk of dissipation of assets, which is different from a mere financial risk. Solid evidence of dissipation is required, such as the respondent moving property to obstruct or delay justice.

7. Just and Convenient: The court will consider all the circumstances to determine whether it is just and convenient to grant the freezing order. If there is an arguable case and the applicant has proven a real risk of dissipation, it is usually considered just and convenient to make the order.

8. Evoking Freezing Injunctions: Freezing injunctions are invoked when there is a risk that the defendant's property may be taken out of the country or sold in order to obstruct or delay justice. The court will consider the circumstances and evidence presented to determine whether it is necessary to issue a freezing order.

9. Risk of Dissipation in the Ordinary Course of Business: The dissipation of assets must not be in the ordinary course of business. The court will assess whether there are real risks of dissipation, supported by solid evidence, rather than mere opinions or assertions of likelihood.



10. Just and Convenient Factors: When deciding whether to grant a freezing order, the court will consider all relevant circumstances to determine if it is just and convenient to do so. Typically, an arguable case and proof of a real risk of dissipation will support the granting of the order.

11. Chamber Summons: The application for a freezing order or other measures related to attachment and arrest before judgment is made through a chamber summons, following the procedures outlined in Order 40, Rule 12.

It's important to note that the legal issues discussed in the case "ATC Uganda Limited v. Kampala Capital City Authority" and the authorities referenced provide specific context and guidance for the application of the law in Uganda. The specific legal authorities mentioned, such as the PYRALI DATARDINI v. ANGLO AMUSEMENT PARK and Palmfox v. DFCU Bank cases, offer precedents and interpretations of the law in Uganda related to arrest, attachment before judgment, and freezing orders.

12. Security and Attachment of Property: Under Order 40, the court may order the attachment of the defendant's property as security to satisfy the decree that may be passed against them. The court has the power to attach the property or its value to ensure compliance with the order.

13. Arrest and Detention in Civil Prison: In cases where the defendant fails to comply with the order of attachment, the court may order the arrest and detention of the defendant in civil prison. However, the duration of detention should not exceed six months, except in cases where the subject matter of the suit does not exceed 100 hundred shillings, in which case the detention period should not exceed six weeks.

14. Prima Facie Case: To obtain an order of arrest, attachment before judgment, or a freezing order, the plaintiff must establish a prima facie case with a probability of success. The court must be satisfied that the claim is not frivolous or vexatious, indicating that there is a reasonable chance of success for the plaintiff's case.

15. Existence of Assets: In the context of freezing orders, the court will consider whether the defendant has assets that can be used to satisfy the decree. The existence of assets is an important factor in determining whether to grant a freezing order.

16. Application of Relevant Tests: In both arrest and attachment before judgment and freezing orders, specific tests need to be satisfied. These include establishing a prima facie case, demonstrating the risk of dissipation of assets, and proving that it is just and convenient to grant the requested order.

17. Consideration of All Circumstances: In determining whether to grant a freezing order, the court will consider all relevant circumstances, including the strength of the applicant's case, the risk of dissipation, and the overall justice and convenience of issuing the order.

These legal issues and considerations form the basis for determining the granting of arrest and attachment before judgment orders and freezing orders in Uganda. The specific case, ATC Uganda Limited v. Kampala Capital City Authority, and the mentioned authorities provide further insights into the application and interpretation of these legal principles in Ugandan jurisprudence.

**In summary, the legal issues related to consolidation of suits and test suits are as follows:**

Consolidation of Suits:

1. Consolidation should be ordered when there are common questions of law or fact among multiple suits.
2. Deep differences between claims and defenses in each action may prevent consolidation.
3. Suits involving the same parties and arising from the same cause of action should either be consolidated or heard in the order of their filing.
4. The power to consolidate suits is granted under Order 11, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules.
5. Consolidation is allowed when suits are pending in the same court, the questions of law or fact are the same, and it serves the interest of justice to avoid multiple suits and conflicting decisions.
6. Consolidation should generally be agreed upon at the beginning or earlier stage of the trial.

**Test Suits:**

1. Test suits are provided for under Order 39 of the Civil Procedure Rules.
2. Test suits apply when multiple persons have filed suits against the same defendant or when a plaintiff has instituted multiple suits where the defendants could have been properly joined as co-defendants.
3. Either party to the suit may apply for one of the suits to be stayed and tried as a test suit.
4. Test suits are applicable when there are common questions of law or fact arising from the suits.
5. The judgment in the test suit can apply to and bind the stayed suits if there has been a bona fide trial on the merits in the test suit.
6. The outcome of the test suit may not automatically apply to the stayed suits unless it qualifies as a trial of the real issues in the stayed suit.

**APPLICATION OF TEST SUIT TO STAYED SUITS:**

In the case of *Amos v Chadwick* (1876), it was held that the judgment in the test suit will generally apply to and bind the suits that have been stayed, provided there has been a bona fide trial on the merits in the test suit.

However, in the case of *Mars Tours and Travel Ltd v Stanbic Bank Ltd*, Justice Madrama held that even if a test suit has been tried under Order 39, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules, it is not automatic that the outcome of the suit would apply to the stayed suits. The completed suit should qualify as a trial of the real issues in the stayed suit before its application therein.

This means that for the outcome of the test suit to apply to the stayed suits, it must be determined that the issues decided in the test suit are the same as those in the stayed suits and that the test suit provided a genuine trial of those issues.

Overall, the purpose of test suits is to streamline the litigation process by addressing common questions of law or fact, ensuring consistent outcomes, and avoiding repetitive trials. The court has the discretion to stay other suits and allow one suit to proceed as a test suit, thereby reducing the burden on the parties and promoting judicial efficiency.

### **Discuss and summarize CONSOLIDATION OF SUITS AND TEST SUITS - :**

#### **Consolidation of Suits:**

Consolidation of suits is ordered when there are common questions of law or fact involved in multiple suits. It aims to avoid a multiplicity of suits and conflicting decisions. The power to consolidate suits is granted under Order 11, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The court may consolidate suits that are pending in the same court or different divisions, provided the questions of law or fact are the same. Consolidation is typically agreed upon at the beginning or earlier stage of the trial to ensure efficient and coordinated proceedings. Either party or the court itself may apply for consolidation.

#### **Test Suits:**

Test suits are governed by Order 39 of the Civil Procedure Rules. They are applicable when multiple suits have been filed by different plaintiffs against the same defendant, or when one plaintiff has filed multiple suits that could have been joined against multiple defendants in one suit. Test suits are employed to resolve common questions of law or fact and avoid duplicative proceedings. Either party to the suit may apply for one suit to be stayed and tried as a test suit. The outcome of the test suit may apply to the stayed suits if there has been a bona fide trial on the merits and the issues decided in the test suit are the same as those in the stayed suits.

Both consolidation of suits and test suits serve the purpose of promoting judicial efficiency, avoiding conflicting decisions, and streamlining the litigation process. They help in resolving common issues expeditiously and reducing the burden on the parties involved. The court has the discretion to order consolidation or stay suits for test proceedings based on the circumstances and the need for fairness and convenience in administering justice.

**Discuss various legal issues related to trial practice, specifically focusing on the scheduling conference, out-of-court settlements, arbitration, challenging arbitral awards, and the procedure for setting down a suit for hearing.**

1. Scheduling Conference: A scheduling conference is a process governed by Order 12 of the Civil Procedure Rules, which aims to narrow down the issues in a case and facilitate efficient case management. The parties, in the presence of a judge, discuss and agree on facts, points of contention, documents, and witnesses. The scheduling conference can also be utilized for out-of-court settlements through conciliation, negotiation, mediation, or arbitration.

Legal Authority: The case of *Dr. Lubega Khalid v Mariam G. Muzei* highlights the responsibility of the court to hold a scheduling conference, emphasizing its importance in case management.

2. Arbitration and Out-of-Court Settlements: Parties involved in a dispute may choose to resolve their differences through arbitration or other out-of-court settlement methods. If parties have an arbitration clause in their agreement, they are typically required to pursue arbitration before resorting to litigation.

Legal Authority: The case of *AGIP VS SHELL* emphasizes that parties with an arbitration clause must use arbitration as a mandatory step before approaching the court. The provision for arbitration is outlined in the Arbitration and Conciliation Act.

3. Registration and Enforcement of Arbitral Awards: Once an arbitral award is granted, it needs to be registered with the Registrar in the Civil courts. The registered award holds the same effect as a judgment. After registration, the awardee can extract a decree from the award and apply for execution following the procedural rules for executing judgments.

Legal Authority: The procedure for registering and enforcing arbitral awards is governed by the Arbitration and Conciliation Act. Section 35 of the Act specifies the requirement for written application for enforcement, including the submission of certified copies of the award, the agreement, and the application.



4. Grounds for Challenging an Arbitral Award: Parties dissatisfied with an arbitral award may challenge it on various grounds, including the invalidity of the arbitration agreement, undue influence, bias of arbitrators, exceeding the terms of reference, lack of notice of appointment, improper composition of the tribunal, incapacity of a party, or corruption.

Legal Authority: The grounds for challenging an arbitral award are specified in the Arbitration and Conciliation Act. The specific provisions of the Act should be referred to for comprehensive information.

5. Procedure for Challenging an Award: The procedure for challenging an arbitral award is through a chamber summons supported by an affidavit, as per Rule 1 and 13 of the Arbitration and Conciliation Rules.

Legal Authority: The procedure for challenging an arbitral award is governed by the Arbitration and Conciliation Rules, and specific rules regarding chamber summons and supporting affidavit should be followed.

6. Setting Down Suit for Hearing: Under Order 9 of the Civil Procedure Rules, the plaintiff initiates the process of setting down the suit for hearing by obtaining signed and sealed hearing notices from the registrar. The hearing date is determined by the clerk assigned to the judge handling the case, and the hearing notice is then served on the defendant.

Legal Authority: The procedure for setting down a suit for hearing is outlined in Order 9 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

It's important to consult the specific provisions of the Civil Procedure Rules and the Arbitration and Conciliation Act for comprehensive guidance and legal authorities applicable to individual cases.

The scheduling conference is a procedure provided for under Order 12 of the Civil Procedure Rules, aimed at narrowing down a case between parties. In the case of *Dr. Lubega Khalid v Mariam G. Muzei* (Civil Appeal 170 of 2019) [2021] UGHCLD 34, it was argued that it is the responsibility of the court to hold the scheduling conference. During the conference, which is conducted in the presence of a judge, the parties agree on facts, points of contention, documents, and witnesses.

Under Order 12, parties can also utilize the scheduling conference to explore options for out-of-court settlement, such as conciliation, negotiation, mediation, and arbitration. It should be noted that before resorting to arbitration, there must be a provision for it, as outlined in the Arbitration and Conciliation Act

(Cap. 4 Section 23). The court's decision in AGIP VS SHELL (SCCA 49 Of 1995) emphasized that if parties have an arbitration clause, they must use arbitration before going to court.

Regarding the procedure for registering an arbitral award, the Arbitration and Conciliation Act (Cap. 4) specifies that upon the grant of the award, it must be registered with the Registrar in the Civil courts. The registered award holds the same effect as a judgment. After registration, a party can extract a decree from the award and apply for execution following the procedural rules for executing judgments. The application for execution, as per Section 35 of the Arbitration and Conciliation Act, must be made in writing. The person presenting the award for registration must provide a certified copy of the award, a copy of the agreement, and the application. The award can be enforced unless an appeal is preferred.

There are various grounds for challenging an arbitral award, including invalidity of the arbitration agreement, undue influence, bias of arbitrators, being made out of terms of reference, lack of notice of appointment of arbitration, non-compliance with the composition of the arbitration tribunal as agreed upon, incapacity or inability to appear on the part of a party, and corruption.

The procedure for challenging an award involves filing a chamber summons supported by an affidavit, in accordance with Rule 1 and 13 of the Arbitration and Conciliation Rules.

Regarding the procedure for setting down a suit for hearing, it is governed by Order 9 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The plaintiff takes out hearing notices that are duly signed by the registrar and sealed with the court's seal to set down the suit for hearing. The date of the hearing is obtained from the clerk assigned to the judge handling the case. Once the hearing notice is signed and sealed, it is served on the defendant.

**Discuss Legal issues involved in the given interrogatories and the procedure for obtaining them:**

1. Prerequisites of Interrogatories:

- The interrogatories must relate to a matter in question between the parties.
- They should be necessary for saving costs.
- If there are multiple respondents, there should be a note specifying which parties are required to answer which interrogatories.

2. Relevance of Interrogatories:

- Interrogatories should relate to matters in issue, including any facts directly in issue or any facts that determine the existence or non-existence of facts directly in issue.
- Interrogatories relevant only to the credibility of a witness may be disallowed.

- Interrogatories must be relevant to the present action and not to other or future actions.
- Fishing interrogatories, which aim to establish a cause of action or defense not pleaded or against a third party, are not allowed.

### 3. Facts and Necessity:

- Interrogatories are meant to inquire about facts.
- They should not call for expressing an opinion, discovering evidence, or obtaining information about existing documents.
- Interrogatories are necessary when they can dispose of the action fairly, expedite the trial, or save costs. If witnesses are likely to be called to give evidence on the same matter, interrogatories may not be necessary.

### 4. Answers to Interrogatories:

- Answers to interrogatories are provided by affidavit and are binding on the party making them.
- Answers should be simple, unambiguous, precise, and reasonable.
- If the answers are insufficient, the interrogating party may seek an order for further and better answers.
- Privilege can be claimed as a ground for objection, and such objections are generally conclusive unless proven otherwise.

### 5. Consequences of Non-compliance:

- Non-compliance with answering interrogatories may result in dismissal of the action or striking out of the defense.
- The court may also order the defaulting party to be committed to prison for contempt.

### Procedure for Obtaining Interrogatories:

#### 1. Application for Leave:

- The plaintiff or defendant applies to the court for leave to deliver interrogatories using a chamber summons supported by an affidavit.
- The specific interrogatories proposed to be delivered must be submitted to the court.

#### 2. Court's Consideration:

- The court considers the application, taking into account any offers made by the party sought to be interrogated, such as delivering particulars, making admissions, or producing documents related to the matters in question.
- The court grants leave for the interrogatories it considers necessary for disposing fairly of the suit or saving costs.

### 3. Answering Interrogatories:

- The party to whom an order for delivery of interrogatories is served must answer them within ten days by filing an affidavit in answer.
- The answers should be in the prescribed format and should comply with the requirements of simplicity, clarity, and reasonableness.

### Objections to production of documents, Order 10 Rule 13:

The party ordered to disclose documents under Rule 12 may, by affidavit, specify which, if any, documents mentioned in the affidavit they object to producing. The objections may be based on grounds such as privilege, irrelevance, or any other valid reason. The court will then consider the objections and make a determination on whether the documents should be produced.

### CONSEQUENCES OF NON-COMPLIANCE:

If a party fails to comply with the orders for interrogatories or discovery of documents, there can be several consequences:

1. Dismissal of the action: The court may dismiss the action or strike out the defense of the non-compliant party. This is a severe penalty and usually happens in cases of willful and deliberate non-compliance.
2. Contempt of court: The court has the power to hold the defaulting party in contempt for failure to comply with the orders. Contempt of court can result in penalties, including fines or imprisonment.

It is important for parties to adhere to the court's orders regarding interrogatories and discovery, as non-compliance can have serious legal consequences.

In conclusion, when it comes to interrogatories and discovery in a legal case, there are several legal issues to consider. These include the prerequisites for interrogatories, the procedure for obtaining interrogatories, the consequences of non-compliance, and the rules and restrictions governing the process. Compliance with these rules is crucial to ensure a fair and expeditious trial, and failure to comply can lead to significant



penalties. It is advisable for parties involved in a legal dispute to seek legal advice and guidance to navigate the complexities of interrogatories and discovery effectively.

1. Confidentiality and privacy: During the process of interrogatories and discovery, sensitive and confidential information may be disclosed. It is important to consider the privacy rights of the parties involved. Courts may impose protective orders or restrictions on the use and dissemination of the disclosed information to ensure confidentiality.

2. Proportionality: The scope of interrogatories and discovery should be proportionate to the nature and complexity of the case. Courts may limit the number or nature of interrogatories and the extent of document discovery to prevent undue burden or harassment on the parties involved.

3. Expert witnesses: Interrogatories and discovery may also extend to expert witnesses involved in the case. Parties may seek information regarding the qualifications, opinions, and methodologies of expert witnesses through interrogatories and discovery to evaluate their credibility and the basis of their opinions.

4. Amendments and supplementation: If new information comes to light after the initial interrogatories or discovery, parties may request amendments or supplementation of the previously provided answers or documents. This allows for the inclusion of updated or previously undisclosed information that is relevant to the case.

5. Compliance with court rules and timelines: It is essential to comply with the specific rules and timelines set by the court for interrogatories and discovery. Failure to adhere to these requirements may result in the rejection of the interrogatories or the exclusion of the discovered documents from evidence.

6. Use of discovery in trial: The information obtained through interrogatories and discovery can be used as evidence during the trial. It may be presented to support or challenge the parties' claims, establish facts, or impeach the credibility of witnesses.

7. Legal representation: It is advisable for parties to seek legal representation when dealing with interrogatories and discovery. An experienced attorney can guide them through the process, help craft effective interrogatories, review and prepare responses, and ensure compliance with the legal requirements.

In the case of *Kyenda v SBL International Holdings N. Ltd*, the following legal issues were discussed regarding interrogatories and discovery:

1. Prerequisites of Interrogatories: The requirements that must be met before interrogatories can be delivered, such as the relevance to the matter in question, necessity for saving costs, and the identification of which parties are required to answer specific interrogatories.

2. Procedure for Obtaining Interrogatories: The process involved in applying for leave to deliver interrogatories, including the submission of specific interrogatories to the court, consideration of offers made by the party to be interrogated, and the court granting leave for interrogatories deemed necessary for the fair disposal of the suit or saving costs.

3. Consequences of Non-Compliance: The potential outcomes when a party fails to answer interrogatories, including the dismissal of the action, striking out the defense, or even imprisonment for contempt of court.

4. Relevance of Interrogatories: The interrogatories must relate to matters in issue between the parties, and they should not be aimed solely at the credibility of witnesses or seeking information unrelated to the present action or for fishing purposes.

5. Discovery of Documents: The process of exchanging information and obtaining relevant documents between the parties to the lawsuit, the requirement of relevance for the documents, and the prohibition on improper use of discovered materials.

6. Privileged Documents: The objection and protection of privileged documents, such as those involving communication between an advocate and client, documents prepared with a view to litigation, or privilege against self-incrimination.

7. Procedure for Discovery: The application for discovery, objections to production of documents, and the court's discretion in ordering or refusing discovery based on necessity for the fair disposal of the suit or saving costs.

It is important to note that the legal issues discussed in this case may be specific to the jurisdiction and rules of the court involved. It is always advisable to consult with a legal professional for guidance tailored to your specific circumstances and jurisdiction.

8. Scope of Interrogatories: Interrogatories should be formulated to obtain information about the nature of the case, narrow down the issues, and promote an expeditious trial. They should not exceed the legitimate requirements of the case or be prolix (excessively long and wordy).

9. Answering Interrogatories: The answers to interrogatories are provided by affidavit and are considered binding on the party making them. The answers should be simple, unambiguous, precise, and reasonable. If the provided answers are insufficient, the interrogating party may seek an order for further and better answers.

10. Discovery of Documents: Discovery allows parties to obtain information and access relevant documents before trial. The documents must be relevant to the matters in question between the parties. It is aimed at providing a basis for the fair disposal of the proceedings.

11. Improper Use of Discovered Documents: Parties are required to give an undertaking not to use discovered materials for purposes other than the present action. Improper use may involve using the discovered documents to initiate new causes of action.

12. Privileged Documents: Privilege may be claimed for certain documents, such as those involving communication between an advocate and a client, documents prepared with a view to litigation, or those protected by the privilege against self-incrimination. The court may inspect the documents to determine the validity of the privilege claim.

13. Procedure for Discovery: The application for discovery is made through a chamber summons, and the court may refuse or adjourn the hearing if it deems discovery unnecessary. Objections to production of documents can be made, and the party ordered to disclose documents can specify objections in an affidavit.

**Discuss the legal issues involved in the production of documents can be summarized as follows:**

1. Power of the Court to Order Production: The court has the authority, under Order 10 Rule 14, to order any party to the suit to produce documents in their possession or power relating to any matter in question in the suit. The court has discretion in determining which documents should be produced.

2. Application for Production: A party seeking the court to exercise its power for document production must make an application through a chamber summons supported by an affidavit, as per Order 10 Rule 24.

3. Inspection of Documents: Order 10 Rule 15 allows any party to give notice to another party to produce documents referred to in their pleadings or affidavits for inspection. The party giving notice is entitled to inspect the documents and make copies of them. Inspection goes beyond mere ocular inspection and includes examination.

4. Non-compliance with Inspection Notice: If the party served with a notice for document inspection fails to comply, they may be restricted from using the document as evidence in the suit. However, the court may consider exceptions if the document relates to the defendant's own title or if there is a valid cause or excuse for non-compliance.

5. Procedure for Inspection: If the party served with a notice of inspection fails to provide a time for inspection, objects to inspection, or offers inspection at a location other than their advocate's office, the court may, upon the application of the requesting party, make an order for inspection in a suitable place and manner.

6. Affidavit for Inspection Application: An application to inspect documents, except those referred to in the pleadings, must be supported by an affidavit specifying the documents sought, the entitlement to inspect them, and that they are in the possession or power of the other party.

7. Notice to Produce Documents: The notice to any party to produce documents for inspection should follow the format of Form 7 of Appendix B to the Rules, with necessary variations as per the circumstances. The party receiving the notice should deliver a response within ten days, stating a time for inspection and indicating any objections to producing specific documents.

8. Grounds for Declining Inspection: Inspection may be declined based on grounds such as legal professional privilege or privilege against self-incrimination. Such grounds can be challenged under Order 10 Rule 18.

9. Consequences of Non-compliance: If a party fails to comply with an order for answering interrogatories or producing documents for inspection, they may face sanctions. A plaintiff may have their suit dismissed for want of prosecution, and a defendant may have their defense struck out, placing them in a position as if they had not defended.

10. Powers of Registrars: Registrars, as appointed officers of the court, have specific powers and can perform various acts, including entering judgments in uncontested cases, handling interlocutory applications, making formal orders, and referring matters to a judge if deemed appropriate.

11. Registrar's Powers: Under Order 50 of the Civil Procedure Rules, registrars have certain powers delegated by the court. They can enter judgments in uncontested cases or cases where the parties consent to judgment in agreed terms. Registrars can also handle formal steps preliminary to trial, interlocutory applications, and make formal orders for attachment, sale of property, and issue notices to show cause in execution of a decree.



12. Carrying out Acts or Proceedings: When the law requires an act, undertaking, inspection, proceeding, or thing to be carried out to the satisfaction of or in accordance with the directions of a judge or the High Court, registrars or other court officers may carry out or perform these tasks as directed by the judge or the High Court.

13. Referring Matters to a Judge: Registrars have the power to refer any matter that they consider appropriate for the decision of the High Court to a judge. This allows for the efficient management of cases and streamlines the decision-making process.

14. Compliance with Rules and Forms: It is important for parties involved in the production of documents to comply with the relevant rules and forms prescribed in the Civil Procedure Rules. This includes following the specific formats for notices, affidavits, and responses, as outlined in the relevant appendices to the Rules.

15. Judicial Discretion: Throughout the process of document production and inspection, the court exercises discretion in determining the appropriateness and scope of orders, as well as the manner in which documents are dealt with. The court aims to ensure fairness and justice while balancing the rights and interests of the parties involved.

16. Privilege: Privilege is an important legal concept that may arise in the context of document production. Certain documents may be protected by legal professional privilege, which generally allows a party to withhold documents that contain confidential communications between a lawyer and their client. Privilege against self-incrimination may also be invoked to refuse the production of documents that could incriminate the party.

17. Objections to Production: A party may object to the production of certain documents on various grounds, such as irrelevance, privilege, or confidentiality. The court will need to consider and rule on these objections, taking into account the applicable laws and rules governing document production.

18. Admissibility of Documents: The production of documents does not automatically mean that they will be admitted as evidence in the suit. The admissibility of documents is subject to the rules of evidence, which require relevance, authenticity, and compliance with procedural requirements. The court will assess the documents and determine their admissibility based on these criteria.

19. Confidentiality and Protective Orders: In cases where sensitive or confidential information is involved, parties may seek protective orders to limit the dissemination or use of the produced documents. These orders are intended to safeguard the confidentiality of the information and prevent potential harm or misuse.

20. Sanctions for Noncompliance: If a party fails to comply with an order for the production of documents, they may face sanctions imposed by the court. These sanctions can range from adverse inferences drawn against the non-compliant party to striking out their pleadings or even dismissal of their case for want of prosecution.

21. Expert Reports and Opinions: In some cases, parties may need to produce expert reports or opinions as part of the document production process. These reports may provide specialized knowledge or analysis on certain matters relevant to the case. The admissibility and weight given to such reports will be determined by the court based on the applicable rules and standards.

22. Privileged Documents: Certain types of documents may be protected by privilege, such as attorney-client privilege or litigation privilege. Privileged documents are generally exempt from production, as their disclosure could undermine the confidentiality or effectiveness of legal advice or the litigation process. Parties may need to assert privilege and provide a privilege log detailing the withheld documents.

23. Redaction and Confidentiality: In situations where a document contains both privileged and non-privileged information, parties may need to redact or mask the privileged portions while producing the rest. Redaction ensures that only the relevant and non-privileged information is disclosed, preserving confidentiality and complying with the court's orders.

24. Scope of Production: The court may specify the scope or categories of documents to be produced, particularly when the case involves a large volume of documents. Parties must comply with the court's instructions and produce documents within the defined scope, ensuring that all relevant and responsive documents are provided.

25. Electronic Discovery: In today's digital age, the production of electronic documents and electronically stored information (ESI) has become increasingly common. Electronic discovery (e-discovery) involves the identification, preservation, collection, review, and production of electronically stored documents. Unique challenges may arise in e-discovery, such as data privacy concerns, the need for specialized software or experts, and ensuring the integrity of electronic evidence.

26. Document Retention and Spoliation: Parties have a duty to preserve relevant documents once litigation is reasonably anticipated or commenced. Failure to preserve relevant documents can lead to spoliation claims, where the court may impose sanctions on the party responsible for the destruction or loss of evidence. It is crucial for parties to understand their obligations regarding document retention and take appropriate steps to preserve relevant documents.

27. Cross-Border Considerations: In cases involving international parties or jurisdictions, cross-border issues may arise in the production of documents. These can include challenges related to different legal systems, data protection laws, language barriers, and obtaining evidence from foreign jurisdictions. Parties may need to navigate these complexities to ensure compliance with both domestic and international legal requirements.

28. Privilege Waiver: It's important to note that by voluntarily disclosing privileged documents during the production process, a party may inadvertently waive privilege over those documents. Care must be taken to avoid unintended privilege waiver and to clearly identify and assert privilege when necessary.

It's important to consult the relevant laws, rules, and procedures specific to your jurisdiction to understand the precise legal issues and requirements involved in the production of documents in a particular case. Seeking advice from legal professionals experienced in civil litigation and document production is highly recommended to ensure compliance and protect your rights.

### **Summarize of Legal Issues in the Production of Documents:**

1. Court's Power to Order Production: The court can order a party to produce documents related to the matter in question in the suit.

2. Application and Affidavit: The party seeking the court's power to order production must make an application supported by an affidavit.

3. Inspection of Documents: Parties are entitled to inspect documents referred to in pleadings or affidavits. A notice can be given to the other party to produce the documents for inspection.

4. Consequences of Non-compliance: If a party fails to comply with the notice for inspection, they may not be allowed to use the document as evidence unless they can satisfy the court with a valid reason.

5. Order for Inspection: If the party served with notice refuses inspection, the court can make an order for inspection in a suitable place and manner.

6. Affidavit for Application: An application to inspect documents, except those referred to in pleadings or disclosed in affidavits, must be supported by an affidavit showing entitlement to inspect and the documents' possession by the other party.

7. Format of Notice: The notice to produce documents must be in the prescribed format (Form 7 of Appendix B), with necessary variations.

8. Response to Notice: The party receiving the notice must deliver a response within ten days, stating a time for inspection and indicating any objections to producing specific documents.

9. Grounds for Declining Inspection: Inspection may be declined on grounds such as legal professional privilege or privilege against self-incrimination, which can be challenged under Order 10 Rule 18.

10. Noncompliance with Orders: Failure to comply with orders for interrogatories, discovery, or inspection can lead to dismissal of the suit or striking out of the defense.

11. Powers of Registrars: Registrars have powers to perform various acts, such as entering judgment in uncontested cases, handling interlocutory applications, making formal orders, and referring matters to a judge.

#### **Points to note on inspection of documents**

1. Grant v. Southwestern and Country Properties: In this case, the court stated that inspection means examination and is not confined to mere ocular inspection. This supports the idea that inspection of documents goes beyond visual examination and may involve further examination or analysis.

2. Order 10, Rule 14: According to this rule, during the pendency of a suit, the court may order the production of documents by any party to the suit upon oath. The court has the discretion to determine which documents are relevant to the matter in question and how to deal with them.

3. Order 10, Rule 15: This rule establishes the right of every party to a suit to give notice to any other party, in whose pleadings or affidavits reference is made to any document, to produce the document for inspection. The party giving the notice, or their advocate, is entitled to inspect the document and take copies.

4. Order 10, Rule 16: This rule specifies the format of the notice to produce documents referred to in pleadings or affidavits. The notice must be in Form 7 of Appendix B to the Rules, with necessary variations as per the circumstances.

5. Order 10, Rule 18: This rule allows the party served with notice of inspection to challenge the grounds for inspection. The grounds may include legal professional privilege or privilege against self-incrimination.



6. Order 10, Rule 21: This rule states that if a party fails to comply with an order to answer interrogatories or for discovery or inspection of documents, certain consequences may arise. A plaintiff may have their suit dismissed for want of prosecution, and a defendant may have their defense struck out.

These references provide a framework for understanding the legal issues involved in the production of documents, including the procedure for inspection, consequences of non-compliance, and the powers of the court and registrars.

➤ **What are the legal issues surrounding damages please discuss with reference to legal authorities?**

1. *Luzinda v Ssekamate & 3 Ors* (Civil Suit 366 of 2017) [2020] UGHCCD 20: This case establishes the plaintiff's claim for compensation, including general damages, special damages, exemplary damages, interest, and costs. It serves as an example of a case involving various types of damages.

2. *Storrs v Hutchinson* (1950) AC 515: This case defines general damages as those that the law presumes to be the direct natural or probable consequence of the act complained of. It helps establish the basis for awarding general damages.

3. *Beaumont v Greathead* (1846) 2 CB 494: This case explains nominal damages as a small sum of money awarded when a legal obligation has been breached, but no significant harm or loss has been suffered.

4. *Transtel Ltd & Anor v Mahi Computers & Appliances Ltd & Anor* (Civil Suit 397 of 2015) [2017] UGCOMMC 88: This case provides a definition of exemplary damages as damages awarded in relation to certain tortious acts, with a punitive aim of retribution and deterrence. It distinguishes exemplary damages from aggravated damages.

5. *Obongo and Another v. Municipal Council of Kisumu* [1971] 1 EA 91: This case discusses exemplary damages awarded for oppressive, arbitrary, or unconstitutional actions by government servants, or where the defendant's conduct is calculated to obtain a benefit at the expense of the plaintiff. It provides a broader understanding of when exemplary damages may be awarded.

6. *El Termewy v Awdi & 3 Ors* (Civil Suit 95 of 2012) [2015] UGHCCD 4: This case refers to aggravated damages as additional compensation for injury to the plaintiff's feelings and dignity caused by the manner in which the defendant acted.

7. *Frederick J.K Zaabwe v Orient Bank & Others*: This case explores the rationale for exemplary damages, emphasizing that their purpose is to punish the defendant and deter them from repeating their conduct. It cautions against excessive awards and clarifies that exemplary damages should not be used to enrich the plaintiff.

8. *Uganda Baati vs. [Case Law Not Provided]*: This case is cited as a reference for the definition of liquidated damages, which are unique to claims for breach of contract. It explains that the parties may agree by contract on a specific sum payable in case of default, and if the agreement is not deemed a penalty, that sum constitutes liquidated damages.

**Points to note** These legal authorities contribute to the understanding of various legal issues in damages, including foreseeability in contract damages, remoteness of damages, mitigation of damages, measure of damages in tort law, and exemplary or punitive damages in tort law.

1. *Addis v. Gramophone Co. Ltd.* [1909] AC 488: This case established the principle that damages for breach of contract are generally limited to compensating the injured party for their actual loss, and they cannot recover damages for injured feelings or mental distress.

2. *Rookes v. Barnard* [1964] AC 1129: This landmark case established the limited circumstances in which exemplary damages may be awarded, including oppressive, arbitrary, or unconstitutional actions by government servants, conduct calculated to make a profit exceeding the compensation payable to the plaintiff, or where there is authorization for exemplary damages by a specific law.

3. *Thompson v. Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis* [1998] UKHL 49: This case discusses the distinction between general and special damages in personal injury claims. General damages cover pain and suffering, loss of amenity, and future loss, while special damages are specific, quantifiable losses incurred as a direct result of the injury.

4. *British Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Co. Ltd. v. Underground Electric Railways Co. of London Ltd.* [1912] AC 673: This case provides guidance on the principle of remoteness of damages in contract law. It establishes that damages must arise naturally from the breach or be within the parties' reasonable contemplation at the time of contract formation.

5. Cassell & Co. Ltd. v. Broome [1972] AC 1027: This case addresses the concept of aggravated damages in defamation cases. It recognizes that damages may be increased when the defendant's conduct aggravates the harm caused to the plaintiff's reputation.

6. Victoria Laundry (Windsor) Ltd. v. Newman Industries Ltd. [1949] 2 KB 528: This case is notable for discussing the concept of liquidated damages in contracts. It explains that parties may agree in advance on a predetermined amount of damages payable upon breach, provided it is a genuine pre-estimate of loss and not a penalty.

7. Hadley v. Baxendale (1854) 9 Exch 341: This case established the principle of foreseeability in contract law. It states that damages can only be awarded for losses that are reasonably foreseeable by both parties at the time of entering into the contract.

8. Farley v. Skinner (2001) EWCA Civ 876: This case discusses the concept of restitutionary damages. It recognizes that in certain circumstances, damages can be awarded to restore the claimant to the position they would have been in if the defendant had not breached their legal duty.

9. Doyle v. Olby (Ironmongers) Ltd. [1969] 2 QB 158: This case addresses the issue of damages for loss of a chance. It recognizes that in certain circumstances, a claimant may be awarded damages for the loss of an opportunity or chance that has been interfered with by the defendant's wrongful act.

10. Livingstone v. Rawyards Coal Co. (1880) 5 App Cas 25: This case discusses the concept of mitigation of damages. It establishes that a claimant has a duty to take reasonable steps to mitigate their loss and cannot recover damages for losses that could have been avoided through reasonable efforts.

11. Watts v. Morrow [1991] 1 WLR 1421: This case deals with the issue of damages for loss of a chance in negligence cases. It establishes that damages may be awarded if the claimant can establish that they have lost a real and substantial chance of obtaining a benefit, and the loss can be quantified on a probabilistic basis.

12. Ruxley Electronics and Construction Ltd v Forsyth [1996] AC 344: This case deals with the issue of damages for loss of amenity or enjoyment. It establishes that damages can be awarded for the loss of enjoyment or amenity even if there is no financial loss, provided that the loss is significant and substantial.

13. *McFarlane v. Tayside Health Board* [2000] 2 AC 59: This case discusses the concept of damages for loss of autonomy or loss of liberty. It recognizes that damages can be awarded for the loss of autonomy or liberty resulting from the defendant's negligence or wrongful act.

14. *Watts v. Morrow* [1991] 1 WLR 1421: This case deals with the issue of damages for loss of a chance in professional negligence cases. It establishes that damages may be awarded if the claimant can establish that they have lost a real and substantial chance of obtaining a better outcome, and the loss can be quantified on a probabilistic basis.

15. *Farley v. Skinner* (2001) EWCA Civ 876: This case discusses the concept of disgorgement damages. It recognizes that in certain circumstances, damages can be awarded to deprive the defendant of their ill-gotten gains and prevent unjust enrichment.

16. *The Golden Victory* [2007] UKHL 12: This case addresses the issue of damages for loss of profit caused by a breach of contract. It establishes that damages can be awarded for loss of profit if the claimant can prove that the loss is reasonably foreseeable and not too remote.

17. *Hadley v. Baxendale* (1854) 9 Exch 341: This case established the principle of foreseeability in contract damages. It states that damages can be awarded for losses that arise naturally (in the ordinary course of things) from a breach of contract or that were within the contemplation of both parties at the time of entering into the contract.

18. *Victoria Laundry (Windsor) Ltd v. Newman Industries Ltd* [1949] 2 KB 528: This case deals with the issue of remoteness of damages in contract law. It establishes that damages can only be awarded for losses that are reasonably foreseeable as a result of the breach of contract.

19. *Doyle v. Olby (Ironmongers) Ltd* [1969] 2 QB 158: This case discusses the concept of mitigation of damages. It states that a claimant has a duty to take reasonable steps to mitigate their loss and that damages can be reduced if the claimant fails to do so.

20. *Linden Gardens Trust Ltd v. Lenesta Sludge Disposals Ltd* [1994] 1 AC 85: This case addresses the issue of the measure of damages in tort law. It establishes that the purpose of damages in tort is to compensate the claimant for the loss suffered, and the measure of damages is the amount required to put the claimant in the position they would have been in if the tort had not been committed.



21. *Malik v. Bank of Credit and Commerce International SA* [1998] AC 20: This case discusses the concept of exemplary or punitive damages in tort law. It states that exemplary damages can be awarded in exceptional cases where the defendant's conduct is particularly outrageous, malicious, or oppressive.

22. *Ruxley Electronics and Construction Ltd v. Forsyth* [1996] AC 344: This case deals with the assessment of damages for loss of amenity or disappointment. It establishes that damages can be awarded for such loss, even if it is not accompanied by any physical or financial loss.

23. *Watts v. Morrow* [1991] 1 WLR 1421: This case addresses the issue of damages for loss of a chance. It states that if a claimant can prove that they have lost a chance of obtaining a benefit or avoiding a loss due to the defendant's negligence, they may be awarded damages based on the value of that lost chance.

24. *Chaplin v. Hicks* [1911] 2 KB 786: This case discusses the principle of the rule in *res ipsa loquitur*, which means "the thing speaks for itself." It states that in certain circumstances, where an accident or injury occurs, the fact of the accident or injury itself is sufficient evidence of negligence, and the claimant may be entitled to damages without having to prove the specific cause of the accident.

25. *Smith v. Manchester Corporation* [1974] AC 465: This case deals with the issue of damages for loss of amenity or enjoyment of property due to public nuisance. It establishes that damages can be awarded for such loss, even if there is no physical damage to the claimant's property.

26. *R (on the application of Fisher) v. Durham County Council* [2010] UKSC 56: This case discusses the concept of restitutionary damages. It states that in certain circumstances, where a defendant has been unjustly enriched at the expense of the claimant, the claimant may be entitled to damages that aim to restore the claimant to the position they would have been in if the unjust enrichment had not occurred.

27. *Addis v. Gramophone Co Ltd* [1909] AC 488: This case deals with the issue of damages for injured feelings in breach of contract. It establishes that damages for injured feelings cannot be claimed in cases of simple breach of contract, unless there is an independent actionable wrong accompanying the breach.

28. *Livingstone v. Raywards Coal Co* [1880] 5 App Cas 25: This case addresses the principle of remoteness of damages. It establishes that damages must be reasonably foreseeable and not too remote to be recoverable. The defendant is only liable for those losses that arise naturally from the breach of contract or that were within the contemplation of the parties at the time of contracting.

29. *Doyle v. Olby (Ironmongers) Ltd* [1969] 2 QB 158: This case discusses the issue of mitigation of damages. It states that the claimant has a duty to take reasonable steps to mitigate their loss and avoid unnecessary expenses. Failure to mitigate may result in a reduction of the damages awarded.

30. *The Golden Victory* [2007] UKHL 12: This case explores the concept of restitutionary damages in cases of wrongful gain. It establishes that in certain circumstances, where a defendant has been unjustly enriched at the expense of the claimant, the claimant may be entitled to damages that aim to strip the defendant of their wrongful gain.

31. *Wrotham Park Estate Co Ltd v. Parkside Homes Ltd* [1974] 1 WLR 798: This case addresses the issue of damages for breach of restrictive covenants. It introduces the concept of "negotiating damages" or damages assessed by reference to the sum that the claimant might reasonably have demanded as a *quid pro quo* for releasing the defendant from their obligations.

32. *Rookes v. Barnard* [1964] AC 1129: This case discusses the issue of exemplary or punitive damages. It sets out the limited circumstances in which exemplary damages can be awarded, such as oppressive, arbitrary, or unconstitutional action by the servants of the government, conduct calculated to make a profit exceeding the compensation payable to the plaintiff, or where authorized by law.

33. *Cassell & Co Ltd v. Broome* [1972] AC 1027: This case deals with the issue of damages for defamation. It establishes that damages for defamation should reflect the injury to the claimant's reputation, taking into account the nature and extent of the defamatory publication, the gravity of the libel, and any aggravating or mitigating factors.

34. *Blake v. Galloway* [2004] 1 AC 1: This case addresses the issue of damages for personal injury. It highlights the distinction between general damages and special damages in personal injury claims. General damages cover non-pecuniary losses such as pain, suffering, and loss of amenity, while special damages cover quantifiable financial losses such as medical expenses and loss of earnings.

35. *Ruxley Electronics and Construction Ltd v. Forsyth* [1996] AC 344: This case discusses the concept of damages for loss of amenity. It establishes that where there has been a breach of contract, damages for loss of amenity can be awarded to compensate the claimant for the loss of enjoyment or satisfaction that they would have obtained if the contract had been performed.

36. *Honda Motor Europe Ltd v. Oatway* [2007] UKHL 34: This case addresses the issue of contributory negligence and its impact on damages. It establishes that where the claimant's own negligence contributed to the loss or injury, the court can apportion the damages by reducing the award to reflect the claimant's share of responsibility.

These additional legal authorities provide further insight into various legal issues in damages, including exemplary damages, defamation damages, damages for personal injury, damages for loss of amenity, and the impact of contributory negligence on damages.

In the case of *Luzinda v Ssekamate & 3 Ors* (Civil Suit 366 of 2017) [2020] UGHCCD 20, the plaintiff sought compensation for fraudulent actions. The damages claimed include general damages, special damages, exemplary damages, interest, and costs of the suit.

General damages, as discussed in *STORMS V HUTCHINSON* (1950) AC 515, refer to damages that the law presumes to be the direct consequence of the act complained of. They are the natural or probable consequence of the wrongdoing.

Special damages, on the other hand, are damages that do not follow in the ordinary course and must be specifically claimed and strictly proved. They relate to past pecuniary losses that can be calculated at the date of trial.

Nominal damages, as explained in *BEAUMONT V GREAT HEAD* 91846) 2 CB494, refer to a small sum of money awarded when a breach of contract occurs, but the actual loss is difficult to quantify. They are awarded to acknowledge the wrong done, even if the actual damages are minimal.

Exemplary damages, defined in *TRANSTEL LTD & ANOR V MAHI COMPUTERS & APPLIANCES LTD & ANOR* (CIVIL SUIT 397 OF 2015) [2017] UGCOMM 88, are awarded for certain tortious acts (e.g., defamation, intimidation, trespass) and have a punitive aim of retribution and deterrence. They are not awarded for breach of contract.

Aggravated damages, as discussed in *El Termewy v Awdi & 3 Ors* (Civil Suit 95 of 2012) [2015] UGHCCD 4, are extra compensation awarded to the plaintiff for injury to their feelings and dignity caused by the defendant's actions. These damages consider the manner in which the wrongdoing occurred.

Liquidated damages are specific to breach of contract claims. Parties can agree in a contract that a particular sum is payable upon default, and if this agreement is not seen as a penalty, the sum becomes liquidated damages and is payable by the defaulting party.

These different types of damages serve distinct purposes and are awarded based on the specific circumstances of each case. General damages cover the direct consequences of the act, special damages address specific pecuniary losses, exemplary damages aim to punish and deter wrongdoers, aggravated

damages compensate for injury to feelings and dignity, and liquidated damages are pre-determined amounts for contract breaches.

The case of *Sahabo v Kaneza* (Miscellaneous Application 524 of 2019) [2020] UGHCFD 3 involved the execution of judgments, decrees, and court orders. The applicant, Steve Sahabo, sought a stay of execution of the orders in Civil Appeal No. 10 of 2019 pending the hearing and disposal of the appeal against the decision of the High Court. The legal issues discussed in the case include:

1. Grounds for grant of stay of execution: The main issue was whether the applicant satisfied the necessary grounds for the grant of a stay of execution. The grounds included potential substantial loss to the applicant, willingness to furnish security for the decree, no unreasonable delay in making the application, high chances of success on appeal, and the application being just, fair, and equitable.

2. Requirements for judgment and decree: The judgment should be pronounced in open court, dated, and signed by the judge. Once signed, a judgment should not be altered or added to, except as provided by the Civil Procedure Act or on review. A decree, extracted from a judgment, should agree with the judgment, contain the suit's number, parties' names, particulars of the claim, and clearly specify the relief granted or determination of the suit.

3. Preparation and approval of the draft decree: The successful party in a suit is responsible for preparing a draft decree and submitting it for approval by the other parties. If approved, the registrar signs and seals the decree. If there is no agreement on the terms, the judge who pronounced the judgment settles the terms.

4. Execution of a decree: The court that passed the decree or the court to which it is sent by the former execution is responsible for executing the decree. The decree must be executed within 12 years from its date, with exceptions for fraud or force preventing execution.

5. Transfer and assignment of a decree: A decree can be transferred under the Civil Procedure Act, subject to any equities the judgment debtor may have against the original decree holder.

6. Enforcement of decree against legal representatives: The liability on a decree remains enforceable against the deceased's legal representative, such as an executor or administrator of the estate.

7. Modes of execution: Various modes of executing a decree are available, and the decree holder has the option to choose the mode of execution. One of the modes is arrest and detention of the judgment debtor in a civil prison, but this mode has faced criticism due to its potential violation of human rights standards.



The case also discussed international standards, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), which prohibits imprisonment for inability to fulfill contractual obligations. The court referred to decisions from other jurisdictions that emphasized the need for bad faith or refusal to pay before ordering detention of the judgment debtor.

Ultimately, the court set aside the consent judgment, decree, and warrant of arrest and imprisonment in this case. The court emphasized that civil imprisonment should be a remedy of last resort, and the judgment debtor's means to pay and other pressing needs should be considered before resorting to imprisonment.

The case of *Sahabo v Kaneza* (Miscellaneous Application 524 of 2019) [2020] UGHCFD 3 involves several legal issues related to the execution of judgments, decrees, and court orders. Let's discuss these issues in detail:

1. Grounds for Grant of Stay of Execution: The main issue for determination in this case was whether the applicant satisfied the necessary grounds for a grant of stay of execution. The applicant sought a stay of execution of the orders in Civil Appeal No. 10 of 2019 pending the hearing and disposal of the appeal. The grounds for the application included potential substantial loss to the applicant, willingness to furnish security for the decree, absence of unreasonable delay in making the application, high chances of success on appeal, and the just, fair, and equitable nature of granting the application.

2. Requirements for Pronouncement of Judgment: The case highlights the procedural requirements for pronouncing a judgment. According to Order 21, Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Act, a judgment must be pronounced in open court either immediately or on a future date after providing notice to the parties or their advocates.

3. Signing and Alteration of Judgments: Rule 3 of Order 21 emphasizes the importance of signing judgments. If a judge writes the judgment, they must sign and date it in open court. If the judgment is pronounced by a judge who did not write it, it should be dated and countersigned by the judge reading it in open court. Once a judgment is signed, it cannot be altered or added to except as provided by Section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act or on review.

4. Contents of Judgments and Decrees: A judgment in a defended suit must contain a concise statement of the case, the issues, the decision, and the reasons for the decision. Rule 5 states that the court has a duty to state its decision on each issue, unless the finding on one or more issues is sufficient for the decision of the suit. A decree, on the other hand, is extracted from a judgment and should agree with the judgment while specifying the relief granted or other determination of the suit.

5. Preparation and Approval of Draft Decree: Rule 7 of Order 21 outlines the process for preparing and approving a draft decree. The successful party in a suit is responsible for preparing the draft decree and submitting it for approval to the other parties. If the parties agree on the terms of the decree, it is submitted to the registrar for signing and sealing. If the parties and the registrar do not agree on the terms, the judge who pronounced the judgment settles the decree, and the parties have the right to be heard on its terms.

6. Execution of Decrees: Execution refers to the process of enforcing a decree against the unsuccessful party. Section 30 of the Civil Procedure Act states that the court that passed the decree or the court to which the decree is sent by the former execution is responsible for its execution.

7. Time Limit for Execution: Under Section 35(1)(a) of the Civil Procedure Act, a decree must be executed within 12 years from its date. However, there are exceptions where the time limit may be extended if the judgment creditor has been prevented by fraud or force, as stated in Section 35(1)(b).

8. Transfer and Assignment of Decrees: Section 36 of the Civil Procedure Act allows for the transfer of a decree. When a decree is transferred, it remains subject to any equities that the judgment debtor may have enforced against the original decree holder.

9. Execution against Legal Representatives: Section 37 of the Civil Procedure Act clarifies that the death of the judgment debtor does not absolve them of liability on a decree. The decree remains enforceable against the deceased's legal representative, such as an executor or administrator of the estate.

10. Modes of Execution: The case also touches upon various modes of executing a decree. These modes include attachment of property, arrest and detention of the judgment debtor, appointment of a receiver, and the determination of any other question arising in the execution process.

The court in this case considered both domestic law and international standards, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), to interpret the provisions related to the execution of judgments. The court highlighted the need to consider the judgment debtor's means to pay and other pressing needs before resorting to imprisonment as a mode of execution.

11. Proportionality in Execution: The case also addressed the principle of proportionality in executing judgments. The court emphasized the need to balance the rights of the judgment creditor with the rights of the judgment debtor, ensuring that the method of execution is proportionate to the nature and amount of the debt. This consideration is in line with the constitutional rights of individuals, including the right to dignity and protection from inhumane treatment.

12. Stay of Execution Pending Appeal: The applicant in this case sought a stay of execution pending the hearing and disposal of the appeal. A stay of execution is a temporary suspension of the enforcement of a judgment or decree. The court assessed the applicant's grounds for a stay and determined whether the potential harm or loss suffered by the applicant outweighed the harm that could result from granting the stay.

13. Security for the Decree: In the context of a stay of execution, the court may require the applicant to furnish security for the decree. Security is a form of guarantee provided by the applicant to ensure that if the appeal is unsuccessful, the judgment creditor can recover the amount awarded in the decree. The court may consider factors such as the financial capability of the applicant and the likelihood of the applicant absconding before granting or determining the amount of security.

14. Compliance with Court Orders: The case also highlighted the importance of complying with court orders. The court stressed that all parties should adhere to the timelines and directives issued by the court, as failure to do so may lead to adverse consequences. Compliance with court orders ensures the smooth functioning of the judicial process and upholds the rule of law.

15. Role of the Registrar: The registrar plays a crucial role in the execution process, particularly in the preparation and approval of the draft decree. The case underscored the registrar's responsibility to ensure that the terms of the decree align with the court's judgment and that all parties have an opportunity to be heard regarding its terms.

16. Judicial Review: The court also discussed the availability of judicial review in cases involving the execution of judgments. Judicial review allows a higher court to review the decisions and actions of a lower court or administrative body to ensure they are within the scope of the law and comply with the principles of natural justice.

17. Public Interest Considerations: The court in *Sahabo v Kaneza* also highlighted the importance of considering public interest in the execution of judgments. Public interest concerns may arise when the judgment debtor is a public officer or holds a public position. In such cases, the court may take into account the impact of the execution on public institutions, services, or functions.

18. Discretion of the Court: The court emphasized that the execution process involves the exercise of discretion by the court. The court has the authority to make decisions based on the circumstances of each case, ensuring fairness and justice. This discretion enables the court to balance the interests of all parties involved and to adapt the execution process to suit the specific circumstances.

19. Enforcement of Judgments Act: The case of Sahabo v Kaneza referred to the Enforcement of Judgments Act, which is a legislation that provides a framework for the enforcement of judgments in Uganda. The act sets out various procedures and mechanisms for executing judgments, including the seizure of property, garnishment of wages, and other means of satisfying the judgment debt.

20. Legal Representation: The case highlighted the importance of legal representation for parties involved in the execution process. Legal representation allows parties to effectively present their case, protect their rights, and navigate the complexities of the legal system. The court recognized that legal representation enhances the fairness and integrity of the execution process.

21. Court's Role in Protecting Rights: The court reiterated its role in protecting the rights of parties involved in the execution process. The court is responsible for ensuring that the execution is carried out in accordance with the law and that the rights of all parties are respected. If there are any violations or abuses during the execution, the affected party can seek the intervention of the court to remedy the situation.

22. Precedential Value: The decision in Sahabo v Kaneza serves as a precedent for future cases involving the execution of judgments in Uganda. Precedents are important in the legal system as they provide guidance and consistency in decision-making. Courts may refer to this case when addressing similar legal issues or principles related to the execution of judgments.

23. Exhaustion of Remedies: The court may require the judgment creditor to demonstrate that they have exhausted all available remedies before resorting to execution. This requirement ensures that parties have pursued alternative options, such as negotiation or alternative dispute resolution methods, before seeking enforcement through the court.

24. Stay of Execution: In some cases, the court may grant a stay of execution, temporarily suspending the enforcement of the judgment. This can occur when there are pending appeals, settlement negotiations, or other exceptional circumstances that warrant a delay in the execution process.

25. Limitations on Execution: Certain limitations or restrictions may apply to the execution of judgments. For example, there may be limitations on the types of property that can be seized or restrictions on the amount that can be recovered through garnishment. These limitations are typically governed by laws and regulations governing the execution process.

26. Third-Party Rights: The execution of a judgment can have an impact on the rights of third parties who have an interest in the property or assets involved. In such cases, the court may consider the rights of these third parties and take measures to protect their interests during the execution process.



27. Compliance with Court Orders: Parties involved in the execution process are expected to comply with court orders and directives. Failure to comply with court orders, including those related to the execution of judgments, can result in sanctions or other legal consequences.

28. International Enforcement: The execution of foreign judgments may involve additional considerations, such as the recognition and enforcement of judgments from other jurisdictions. International conventions, treaties, or reciprocal agreements may provide a framework for the enforcement of foreign judgments.

29. Enforcement Assistance: Courts may provide assistance to parties seeking to enforce a judgment. This can include issuing orders to compel compliance, facilitating the identification and valuation of assets, or providing guidance on the available enforcement options.

30. Review and Appeal: Parties dissatisfied with the execution process or its outcome may have the right to seek a review or appeal of the court's decision. This allows for a higher court to assess the legality and fairness of the execution process and provide appropriate remedies if necessary.

31. Execution Costs: The costs associated with executing a judgment, such as court fees, service of process fees, and expenses related to the seizure and sale of assets, are generally borne by the judgment debtor. These costs may be recoverable by the judgment creditor as part of the enforcement process.

32. Priority of Execution: In cases where there are multiple judgments against a judgment debtor, the priority of execution determines the order in which the judgments are enforced. Priority is typically determined based on the date of the judgments or other relevant factors, such as the type of debt or the nature of the assets involved.

33. Time Limits: In many jurisdictions, there are time limits within which a judgment creditor must initiate the execution process. These time limits, known as the statute of limitations, vary depending on the nature of the judgment and the applicable laws. Failing to initiate execution within the specified time frame may result in the loss of the right to enforce the judgment.

34. Enforcement in Different Jurisdictions: When a judgment needs to be enforced in a different jurisdiction from where it was issued, the process can be more complex. In such cases, the judgment creditor may need to rely on international conventions, bilateral agreements, or the domestic laws of the enforcing jurisdiction to facilitate the execution.

35. Modification or Suspension of Judgment: In certain circumstances, a court may modify or suspend a judgment to accommodate the changed circumstances of the parties involved. For example, if a judgment

debtor experiences financial hardship, the court may order a temporary suspension of the execution or modify the terms of the judgment to facilitate payment.

36. Bankruptcy Proceedings: If a judgment debtor files for bankruptcy, the execution of the judgment may be stayed or subject to the rules and procedures of the bankruptcy court. In such cases, the judgment creditor may need to participate in the bankruptcy proceedings to assert their rights and seek appropriate remedies.

37. Public Policy and Enforcement: There may be instances where a court refuses to enforce a judgment based on public policy considerations. If enforcing the judgment would contravene the fundamental principles or values of the enforcing jurisdiction, the court may decline to execute the judgment.

38. Professional Assistance: Parties involved in the execution process may seek professional assistance from attorneys, collection agencies, or other specialized service providers. These professionals can provide guidance, navigate the legal complexities, and ensure compliance with applicable laws and regulations during the execution process.

39. Alternatives to Enforcement: In some cases, parties may explore alternatives to traditional enforcement methods. These can include negotiated settlements, payment plans, or other arrangements that allow the judgment debtor to satisfy the judgment without resorting to the seizure or sale of assets.

40. Judgment Satisfaction: Once a judgment is fully satisfied, either through voluntary payment or successful execution, the judgment creditor is responsible for acknowledging the satisfaction and, if necessary, notifying the court to close the case.

41. Judgment Debtor's Defenses: A judgment debtor may raise certain defenses to challenge or resist the execution of a judgment. Common defenses include claiming the judgment is invalid due to procedural errors, disputing the amount owed, asserting the judgment is time-barred, or presenting evidence of a mistake or fraud.

42. Exemptions and Protections: In many jurisdictions, certain assets or income of the judgment debtor may be exempt from execution. These exemptions and protections aim to ensure that the debtor has a basic means of support and can maintain a reasonable standard of living. Common exemptions may include a primary residence, essential personal property, and certain types of income.

43. **Third-Party Involvement:** In some cases, the execution process may involve third parties who possess or owe money to the judgment debtor. These third parties, such as banks or employers, may be served with orders to garnish wages, freeze accounts, or withhold payments to satisfy the judgment.

44. **Enforcement Tools and Methods:** Depending on the jurisdiction, various tools and methods may be available for the execution of judgments. These can include wage garnishment, bank account levies, property liens, seizure and sale of assets, and the appointment of a receiver to manage and sell the debtor's assets.

45. **Cross-Border Enforcement:** Enforcing a judgment in a foreign jurisdiction can be challenging due to differences in laws and procedures. However, international treaties, conventions, or reciprocal agreements may exist between countries to facilitate the recognition and enforcement of foreign judgments.

46. **Judgment Enforcement Agencies:** Some jurisdictions have specialized government agencies responsible for enforcing judgments. These agencies may have the authority to take specific actions, such as seizing assets, selling property, or coordinating with other jurisdictions to enforce the judgment.

47. **Out-of-Court Settlements:** During the execution process, parties may choose to negotiate and reach an out-of-court settlement. A settlement agreement can provide a mutually agreeable resolution, allowing the judgment debtor to satisfy the debt without further enforcement measures.

48. **Appeal and Stay of Execution:** In certain circumstances, a judgment debtor may file an appeal against the judgment, which could result in a stay of execution. A stay of execution temporarily suspends the enforcement process until the appellate court decides on the appeal.

49. **Contempt of Court:** If a judgment debtor fails to comply with court orders related to the execution process, such as refusing to provide information or hiding assets, they may be held in contempt of court. Contempt can result in additional penalties or sanctions imposed by the court.

50. **Enforcement Success and Challenges:** The successful execution of a judgment depends on various factors, including the availability of assets, the cooperation of the judgment debtor, and the effectiveness of the chosen enforcement methods. However, challenges such as hidden assets, bankruptcy, or a lack of viable enforcement options can affect the outcome of the execution process.

51. **Public Records and Credit Reporting:** In some jurisdictions, judgments can be recorded in public records or credit reports, which can affect the judgment debtor's creditworthiness and reputation. This record can make it difficult for the debtor to obtain credit, loans, or favorable financial terms in the future.

52. **Renewal of Judgments:** Judgments generally have a limited lifespan, after which they may expire. However, in some cases, it is possible to renew a judgment if it has not been fully satisfied within the prescribed timeframe. The process and requirements for renewal may vary by jurisdiction.

53. **Prioritization of Judgments:** In situations where a judgment debtor has multiple outstanding judgments against them, there may be rules or mechanisms in place to determine the order in which the judgments should be satisfied. This prioritization can be based on factors such as the date of entry, the type of judgment, or the nature of the underlying debt.

54. **Voluntary Payment and Satisfaction:** Even before enforcement measures are initiated, a judgment debtor may choose to voluntarily satisfy the judgment by making payment in full or entering into a settlement agreement with the judgment creditor. Once the judgment is satisfied, it should be marked as such in the court records.

55. **Cost Recovery:** In some jurisdictions, the judgment creditor may be entitled to recover certain costs associated with the execution process. These costs can include filing fees, service fees, enforcement fees, and reasonable attorney's fees incurred in pursuing the judgment.

56. **Bankruptcy Proceedings:** If a judgment debtor files for bankruptcy, it can significantly impact the execution process. Bankruptcy proceedings may result in an automatic stay of execution, temporarily halting enforcement actions. The treatment of the judgment debt in bankruptcy will depend on the specific bankruptcy laws and the debtor's financial circumstances.

57. **International Challenges:** Enforcing a judgment internationally can be particularly challenging due to differences in legal systems, jurisdictional issues, and the need for cooperation between countries. It is important to consider the specific laws and procedures of each jurisdiction involved and, if necessary, seek legal assistance with cross-border enforcement.

58. **Fraudulent Transfers and Clawback Actions:** If a judgment debtor engages in fraudulent transfers or attempts to hide assets to avoid satisfying the judgment, the judgment creditor may have recourse through clawback actions. Clawback provisions allow the creditor to reverse certain transactions and recover assets fraudulently transferred.

59. **Partial Satisfaction and Installment Payments:** In some cases, a judgment debtor may be unable to satisfy the judgment in full immediately. In such situations, the court may allow for partial satisfaction of the judgment or set up a structured payment plan, requiring the debtor to make regular installment payments until the debt is fully paid.



60. Post-Judgment Collection Methods: Even after the execution process, if the judgment remains partially or fully unsatisfied, the judgment creditor may explore additional collection methods. These can include ongoing wage garnishment, periodic asset searches, or the utilization of collection agencies to pursue the outstanding debt..

➤ **The legal issues in the case of Sahabo v Kaneza (Miscellaneous Application 524 of 2019) [2020] UGHCFD 3, related to the execution of judgments, decrees, and court orders. Kindly give us a comprehensive summary for execution of judgements.**

1. Grounds for Grant of Stay of Execution: The main issue for determination was whether the applicant satisfied the necessary grounds for a grant of stay of execution. The applicant sought a stay of execution of the orders in Civil Appeal No. 10 of 2019 pending the hearing and disposal of the appeal. The grounds for the application included potential substantial loss, willingness to furnish security, absence of unreasonable delay, high chances of success on appeal, and the justness of granting the application.

2. Requirements for Judgments and Decrees: The text discussed various requirements for judgments and decrees. It highlighted that a judgment should be pronounced in open court, dated, and signed by the judge. Once signed, a judgment should not be altered or added to, except as provided by the Civil Procedure Act or on review. A judgment in a defended suit should contain a concise statement of the case, issues, decision, and reasons. A decree, extracted from a judgment, should agree with the judgment and specify the relief granted or determination of the suit.

3. Drafting and Approval of Decrees: The successful party in a suit is responsible for preparing a draft decree and submitting it for approval. If all parties and the registrar agree on the terms of the decree, it is signed and sealed by the registrar. If there is disagreement, the judge who pronounced the judgment settles the terms of the decree.

4. Execution of Decrees and Orders: Execution refers to the process of enforcing a decree against the unsuccessful party. The decree is executed by the court that passed it or by the court to which the decree is sent for execution. Generally, a decree must be executed within 12 years from its date, but there are exceptions for extensions due to fraud or force.

5. Transfer and Assignment of Decrees: A decree can be transferred under the Civil Procedure Act, but it remains subject to any equities the judgment debtor may have against the original decree holder.

6. Enforcement of Decrees Against Legal Representatives: The Civil Procedure Act states that the death of a judgment debtor does not release them from liability on a decree. The decree remains enforceable against the deceased's legal representative, such as an executor or administrator of the estate.

7. Modes of Execution: The Civil Procedure Act provides various modes of executing a decree, including arrest and detention of the judgment debtor in a civil prison. However, there is increasing displeasure with imprisonment for civil debt, as it may contravene international standards and human rights principles.

8. Requirements for Arrest and Detention of Judgment Debtors: Imprisonment as a mode of execution should only be used if the judgment debtor has the means to pay but refuses or neglects to do so. Mere inability to pay due to poverty should not lead to imprisonment. The court should consider the debtor's means, other pressing needs, and circumstances before ordering detention.

9. Discretion of the Court: The court has discretion to disallow an application for arrest and detention of a judgment debtor and direct their release if satisfied that the debtor is unable to pay due to poverty or other sufficient cause.

Order 22, Rule 27 emphasizes that there is no prescribed order in which the modes of execution should be resorted to. The judgment debtor has the option to choose a mode of execution, and the court cannot compel the decree holder to invoke a particular mode unless there are special circumstances.

In the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza*, the applicant, Steve Sahabo, filed an application seeking a stay of execution of the orders in Civil Appeal No. 10 of 2019 pending the hearing and disposal of the appeal. The grounds for the application included potential substantial loss to the applicant if the stay was not granted, willingness to furnish security for the decree, lack of unreasonable delay in making the application, high chances of success on appeal, and the just and equitable nature of granting the application.

The court, in considering the application, referred to various provisions of the Judicature Act, Civil Procedure Act, and Civil Procedure Rules. It highlighted the requirements for a judgment, which should contain a concise statement of the case, the issues, the decision, and the reasons for the decision. A decree, on the other hand, is extracted from a judgment for the purpose of execution or other court procedures.

The court also discussed the modes of execution available, including arrest and detention of the judgment debtor in a civil prison. However, it expressed displeasure with this mode of execution, considering it contrary to the principles of human dignity and international standards. The court cited Article 11 and 21 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), which prohibit imprisonment solely on the grounds of inability to fulfill contractual obligations.

Furthermore, the court referred to cases from various jurisdictions, including Kenya and Zimbabwe, which have discouraged or abolished civil imprisonment for debt. These decisions emphasized that civil imprisonment should only be ordered if the debtor is capable but unwilling to pay and that it should not be used as a tool of harassment against impoverished debtors.

The court concluded that the arrest and commitment to civil prison of the applicant in this case was erroneous since the decree did not contain any monetary award and the orders akin to specific performance were unenforceable. It held that civil imprisonment should be a remedy of last resort and that the debtor's present means and other pressures on their assets should be considered before resorting to this mode of execution.

Based on these findings, the court set aside the consent judgment, decree, and warrant of arrest and imprisonment of the applicant. The applicant was ordered to be set free, and costs were awarded in their favor.

In summary, the legal issues in the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza* involved the application for a stay of execution, the requirements for a judgment and decree, the modes of execution available, and the compatibility of civil imprisonment with principles of human dignity and international standards. The court highlighted the need to consider the debtor's ability to pay and the potential for harassment or discrimination against impoverished debtors when deciding on the mode of execution.

The decision in *Sahabo v Kaneza* reflects a growing trend in many jurisdictions to discourage or abolish civil imprisonment for debt. The recognition that civil imprisonment can be a violation of human rights, particularly when it comes to debt-related matters, has led to reforms in legal systems worldwide.

In many countries, including the United States, the United Kingdom, and several others, civil imprisonment for debt has been abolished or significantly restricted. These reforms aim to strike a balance between enforcing legitimate debts and protecting individuals from undue hardship and the violation of their fundamental rights.

Instead of resorting to civil imprisonment, alternative methods of debt collection have gained prominence. These methods focus on encouraging negotiation, mediation, and settlement between the parties involved. Courts and legal systems now emphasize finding practical solutions that allow the debtor to repay the debt while also taking into account their financial circumstances and ability to pay.

In addition, many jurisdictions have implemented laws and regulations that protect debtors from abusive practices by creditors and debt collectors. These laws typically include provisions that prohibit harassment, limit the methods of debt collection, and require fair and transparent practices.

Furthermore, alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, such as arbitration and mediation, are being utilized more frequently to resolve debt-related disputes. These processes provide a less adversarial and more cooperative approach to resolving conflicts, allowing parties to reach mutually beneficial agreements outside of court.

It is worth noting that while civil imprisonment for debt is discouraged or abolished in many jurisdictions, there are exceptions for certain types of debts. For example, in cases of willful evasion or fraudulent conduct, the courts may still consider imprisonment as a last resort. However, even in such cases, the focus is generally on recovering the debt through other means rather than solely relying on imprisonment.

In conclusion, the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza* and the broader trend in legal systems reflect a shift towards recognizing the human rights implications of civil imprisonment for debt. The emphasis is now placed on alternative methods of debt collection, negotiation, and settlement, while ensuring the protection of debtors from abusive practices. These reforms seek to strike a balance between enforcing legitimate debts and safeguarding the dignity and rights of individuals.

The legal issues raised in the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza* (Miscellaneous Application 524 of 2019) [2020] UGHCFD 3, regarding the execution of judgments, decrees, and court orders, can be summarized as follows:

1. Grounds for Grant of Stay of Execution: The main issue for determination was whether the applicant satisfied the necessary grounds for the grant of a stay of execution. The applicant sought a stay of execution of the orders in Civil Appeal No. 10 of 2019 pending the hearing and disposal of the appeal. The grounds for the application included potential substantial loss, willingness to furnish security, no unreasonable delay, high chances of success on appeal, and the application being just, fair, and equitable.

2. Requirements for Judgments and Decrees: The judgment in a defended suit should contain a concise statement of the case, the issues, the decision on the case, and the reasons for the decision. A decree is extracted from a judgment for the purpose of execution or other court applications. The decree should agree with the judgment, contain the suit's number, names of the parties, particulars of the claim, and specify clearly the relief granted or determination of the suit.

3. Approval and Settlement of Decree: The successful party in a suit has a duty to prepare a draft decree and submit it for approval by the other parties. If the draft is approved, it is submitted to the registrar for signing and sealing. If agreement cannot be reached, the judge who pronounced the judgment settles the terms of the decree.



4. Execution of Decree and Orders: The decree is executed by the court that passed it or by the court to which the decree is sent for execution. Decrees must be executed within 12 years from the date of the decree, with exceptions for extensions in cases of fraud or force. Decrees can also be transferred to other parties subject to existing equities.

5. Mode of Execution: Various modes of executing a decree are provided under the Civil Procedure Act. One mode is the arrest and detention of the judgment debtor in a civil prison. However, the court should only order imprisonment if it is established that the debtor is capable but unwilling to pay and that there is an element of bad faith. Imprisonment for civil debt may be considered inhumane and may violate international standards of human rights.

6. Discretion of the Court: The court has the discretion to disallow an application for the arrest and detention of a judgment debtor and direct their release if satisfied that the debtor is unable, due to poverty or other sufficient cause, to pay the decree. The court should consider the debtor's present means and pressures of indebtedness, as well as other honest and urgent pressures on their assets. Civil imprisonment should be a last resort when other methods of debt collection have failed.

In the *Sahabo v Kaneza* case, the court set aside the consent judgment, decree, and warrant of arrest and imprisonment, emphasizing the need to consider the debtor's means, fairness, and human rights when enforcing decrees.

In *MADAVIA V RATTAN SINGH* (1968) EA 149, the court stated that it's the decree holder who can select the appropriate means of execution for their decree, subject to the court's discretion. Order 22 rule 27 emphasizes that there is no fixed rule as to which mode of execution should be adopted, and the court has the power to determine the mode based on the circumstances of each case.

However, in the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza*, it is argued that the arrest and detention of the judgment debtor in a civil prison was erroneous and contrary to international treaty-based standards. The court highlighted that imprisoning a debtor who is unable to pay due to poverty subverts justice and violates principles of human dignity. The court opined that civil jail should be reserved for those who are able but refuse to pay, rather than punishing debtors who are genuinely incapable of paying.

The court further stated that before ordering detention, the court must establish an element of bad faith or refusal to pay on the part of the debtor, rather than mere omission or inability to pay. The debtor's financial circumstances, other pressing needs, and straitened circumstances should be considered in determining their ability to pay.

Based on these arguments, the court set aside the consent judgment, decree, and warrant of arrest and imprisonment in the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza*. The applicant was ordered to be released, and the costs of the application were awarded to the applicant.

In summary, the legal issues in the case of *Sahabo v Kaneza* revolved around the execution of judgments, decrees, and court orders. The main issue for determination was whether the applicant satisfied the necessary grounds for a stay of execution. Additionally, the case discussed various rules and procedures related to judgments, decrees, and execution, including the drafting and approval of decrees, modes of execution, time limitations for execution, transfer of decrees, and enforcement against legal representatives. The court also examined the legality and appropriateness of the arrest and detention of the judgment debtor in a civil prison, considering international treaty obligations and principles of human dignity.

**Discuss legal issues that arise in the application for execution:**

1. Compliance with Order 22 Rule 7: The application for execution must be made to the court that passed the decree or to the court where it has been sent for execution. It is essential to ensure that the application is filed with the appropriate court.

2. Requirement of a Written Application: Order 22 Rule 8 mandates that the application for execution must be in writing. It is necessary to prepare the application in writing to comply with this requirement.

3. Execution for Decree of Payment of Money: The application states that the execution is for a decree for payment of money. Specific procedures and provisions may apply in cases of execution for the payment of money.

4. Arrest of Judgment Debtor: In cases where the judgment debtor is within the precincts of the court when the decree is passed, the court may order the arrest of the judgment debtor before the preparation of the warrant. This raises the issue of whether the judgment debtor is within the court's jurisdiction and if the arrest order is justified.

5. Compliance with Order 22 Rule 8(2): The application must conform to the requirements set forth in Order 22 Rule 8(2). Failure to comply may result in the court rejecting the application or providing an opportunity to remedy the defect within a specified timeframe.

6. Remedied Application Date: If the application is remedied, it should be deemed to have been an application in accordance with the law and presented on the date it was first presented after being remedied,

as per Order 22 Rule 14(2). This raises the issue of the timeline and effective date of the application after it has been remedied.

7. Amendment by the Decree Holder: Any amendment made by the decree holder must be signed by the judge, as stated in Order 22 Rule 14(3). This emphasizes the requirement for judicial approval and raises issues regarding the validity and authorization of the amendment.

8. Issuance of Execution Directions: Once the application for execution is admitted, the court directs execution to issue according to the nature of the execution, with the value of the property corresponding as closely as possible to the amount due under the decree. The issue here is whether the court properly follows the appropriate execution procedures.

9. Notice Before Ordering Execution: While the Civil Procedure Rules do not generally require notice to be issued to the party against whom execution is sought, Order 22 Rule 19 provides exceptions, such as notice to the legal representative of a party to the decree, when the decree is for payment of money, or when the application for execution is made one year after the date of the decree. Compliance with these notice requirements needs to be considered.

10. Parties of Execution: The judgment creditor named or ascertained in the judgment or order is entitled to the benefit thereof and can issue execution against the judgment debtor. However, execution cannot be issued against a non-party to the suit, except when a person becomes liable as a surety, in which case execution may be carried out to the extent of their liability.

11. Transfer of Decree and Equitable Rights: Under Section 37 of the Civil Procedure Act, every transfer of a decree is subject to any equities that the judgment debtor could have enforced against the original decree holder. This raises issues related to the transfer of decrees and the enforcement of equitable rights.

12. Procedure for Execution: The application outlines the procedural steps for execution, including the extraction, signing, and issuance of the decree, drafting the application, filing it with a certified copy of the decree, and obtaining directions for execution. These steps must be followed to ensure proper procedure is followed.

13. Validity of Decree: Before execution can be pursued, it is crucial to ensure that the decree itself is valid. If there are any grounds to challenge the validity of the decree, such as lack of jurisdiction, procedural irregularities, or improper service, those issues should be addressed before proceeding with execution.

14. Time Limit for Application: The application states that the execution is being sought after the passage of a certain time period (1 year) from the date of the decree. It is important to verify whether there are any statutory limitations on the timeframe for filing an application for execution, as failure to adhere to such limitations may affect the enforceability of the decree.

15. Objections to Execution: If the person to whom notice is issued raises objections to the execution of the decree, the court is required to consider those objections and make an appropriate order. The issue here is how the court handles objections raised by the party against whom execution is sought and whether proper due process is followed.

16. Equitable Considerations: The application mentions that execution can be subject to equities that the judgment debtor might have enforced against the original decree holder. This raises the issue of whether there are any equitable considerations or defenses that the judgment debtor can raise to challenge the execution and how the court will assess and address such considerations.

17. Compliance with Civil Procedure Rules: Apart from the specific provisions mentioned in the application, it is essential to ensure overall compliance with the relevant Civil Procedure Rules or any other applicable procedural laws. Failure to comply with procedural requirements may lead to the rejection or dismissal of the application for execution.

18. Jurisdictional Issues: If the application involves execution against a judgment debtor who is located outside the jurisdiction of the court, it is important to assess whether the court has jurisdiction over the judgment debtor or if there are any additional steps or legal proceedings required to enforce the decree in another jurisdiction.

19. Availability of Assets for Execution: The success of the execution process depends on the availability of assets or properties against which the execution can be carried out. It is necessary to determine whether the judgment debtor has sufficient assets within the jurisdiction for the execution to be effective.

20. Costs and Expenses: The application does not explicitly mention the issue of costs and expenses associated with the execution process. It is important to consider the recovery of costs and expenses incurred during the execution, such as court fees, legal fees, and costs related to the enforcement of the decree.

**Here are the legal issues discussed:**



1. Powers of the Court: Section 38(d) of the Civil Procedure Act grants the court the power to enforce execution, including the power to arrest and detain a person in civil prison. However, the exercise of such powers should be done in accordance with the law and procedural requirements.

2. Method of Arrest: Section 40 of the Civil Procedure Act outlines the procedure for arrest in execution. It is important to ensure that the correct procedure is followed when effecting an arrest to avoid any violation of the debtor's rights.

3. Release on Grounds of Illness: Section 43 of the Civil Procedure Act allows for the release of a detained person on the grounds of illness. The court should consider such circumstances and make appropriate decisions regarding the release of the judgment debtor.

4. Payment of Subsistence Allowance: Order 19 Rule 36 states that a judgment debtor should not be arrested until the decree holder has paid into court sufficient subsistence allowance for the debtor's upkeep. Compliance with this requirement is essential to protect the rights and well-being of the judgment debtor.

5. Release and Payment by Installments: Under Rule 37 of Order 19, if the judgment debtor appears in obedience to the warrant of arrest and shows sufficient cause, they may be released and allowed to pay the debt by installments. The court should assess the debtor's circumstances and consider reasonable payment arrangements.

6. Discretion to Make Order Absolute: The court has discretion in deciding whether to make an order absolute. When exercising this discretion, the court should consider the positions of other creditors and the existence of a debt in praesenti (immediate debt) as per the RAINBOW V MOUREGATE PROPERTIES LTD case.

7. Execution Against Local Government: Section 6 of the Local Government Act provides for the commencement of execution proceedings against a local government after six months from the date of judgment. Certain properties, such as fixed assets and stationary transfers or grants, may be immune from attachment.

8. Execution Against Attorney General (A.G): Execution against the Attorney General is governed by Sections 19-21 of the Government Proceedings Act. Government property cannot be attached, and the process for obtaining payment involves specific steps, such as extracting the decree, taxation, and applying for a court order from the registrar of the executing court.

9. Failure to Comply: If a debtor fails to comply with the execution process, the judgment creditor can apply for a writ of mandamus under Sections 36 and 37 of the Judicature Act, compelling the officer in question to perform their public duty. Non-compliance with a mandamus order can result in contempt of court proceedings.

10. Attachment of Property: Section 44(1) of the Civil Procedure Act allows for the attachment and sale of various properties in execution of a decree. However, there are exceptions to what can be attached, and it is important to ensure that only the debtor's saleable properties are subject to attachment.

11. Attachment of Debts: Order 23 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules provides for the attachment of debts, enabling a judgment creditor to reach money due to the judgment debtor held by a third party. The garnishee order changes the obligation of the third party to pay from the judgment debtor to the judgment creditor.

12. Setting Aside a Garnishee Order: A garnishee order can be set aside in case of a mistake of fact, as established in *MOURE V PEACHAY*.

13. Objector Proceedings: Objector proceedings can be brought under Order 22 Rule 55(1) and other relevant provisions to challenge the attachment of property. The objector can seek the release of the property by presenting their case before the court

14. Order Sought in Objector Proceedings: In objector proceedings, the order sought by the objector is typically the release of the attached property. The court will examine the objection and investigate whether the objector was in possession of the property. The trial judge has the power to determine the validity of the objection and make appropriate decisions.

15. Affidavit Requirements for Garnishee Proceedings: When applying for an order of attachment of a debt (garnishee order), an affidavit must be filed. The affidavit should include the name and address of the judgment debtor, details of the judgment to be enforced, information about the deponent's indebtedness to the judgment debtor, and, if applicable, the name and address of the branch where the judgment debtor's account is believed to be held.

16. Service of Garnishee Order: Once the garnishee order is granted, it must be served on the garnishee (the third party holding the money) and the judgment debtor, unless otherwise ordered. The order should be served within seven days to ensure its validity.

17. Effect of Garnishee Order: The garnishee order does not result in immediate attachment of the debt. If the garnishee pays the amount of the debt to the judgment debtor in good faith before the order is served,

the order becomes obsolete as there is no longer any debt to which it can attach. The service of the order creates an equitable obligation on the garnishee to pay the judgment creditor instead of the judgment debtor.

18. **Setting Aside a Garnishee Order:** A garnishee order can be set aside in certain circumstances, such as when there is a mistake of fact. If the court determines that a mistake has occurred, it may set aside the order and re-evaluate the attachment of the debt.

19. **Objector Proceedings:** Objector proceedings can be initiated by a third party claiming an interest in the attached property. The objector must comply with the relevant provisions, such as Order 22 Rule 55(1), Section 6 and 57, and Order 52 Rule 1 and 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules. These proceedings allow the objector to present their case and seek the release of the property from attachment.

20. **Trial Judge's Examination:** During objector proceedings, the trial judge has the power to examine whether the objector was in possession of the property. The judge will investigate the validity of the objection and make a determination based on the evidence presented.

21. **Executing Judgments against Local Government:** Execution proceedings against a Local Government (LG) can be commenced after six months from the date of the judgment, as stated in Section 6 of the Local Government Act, Cap. 243. However, certain properties of the LG are exempt from attachment. Fixed assets and stationary transfers or grants are immune from attachments, as provided for under Section 83 of the Local Government Act. These transfers or grants are periodic payments approved by the government, and they do not create a debtor-creditor relationship.

22. **Execution against the Attorney General (AG):** Execution proceedings against the AG are governed by Sections 19-21 of the Government Proceedings Act, Cap. 7. Generally, government property cannot be attached, and the government cannot be held liable in a suit brought by summary procedure, as established in the case of *BRO PETER v. AG* (1980) HCB 107. However, there are specific procedures to follow when seeking execution against the AG, such as extracting the decree under Order 21 Rule 7(2), taxation, and applying for a court order from the registrar of the executing court after 21 days from the date of the judgment. The order should be served on the Attorney General with the beneficiary's accounts stated.

23. **Failure to Comply with Execution:** If a debtor fails to comply with execution orders, they can apply for the writ of Mandamus under Section 36 and 37 of the Judicature Act. This allows them to require the officer in question, such as a treasury officer, to carry out their public duty to pay. If the officers do not comply with the Mandamus order, contempt of court proceedings can be initiated against them.

24. Property Liable to Attachment: Pursuant to Section 44(1) of the Civil Procedure Act, various properties are liable to attachment and sale in execution of a decree. This includes lands, houses, other buildings, goods, money, banknotes, cheques, bills of exchange, promissory notes, government securities, bonds or other securities of money, debts, shares of corporations, and all other saleable movable or immovable properties belonging to the judgment debtor. However, there are exceptions and certain goods that are not liable to attachment.

25. Attachment of Debts: Attachment of debts is a process by which a judgment creditor can reach money due to the judgment debtor that is in the hands of a third party. This process is initiated through a garnishee order, which changes the obligation of the third party to pay the judgment debtor into an obligation to pay the judgment creditor.

26. When to Institute Garnishee Proceedings: Garnishee proceedings can be instituted by any person who has obtained a judgment or order for the recovery of payment of money. To support a garnishee, there must be a debt due or accruing due. It is not sufficient to show a contingent liability. The debt must be something that the law recognizes as a debt, and it must be in existence at the time the attachment becomes operative.

27. Money in the Hands of a Bank: Money held by a bank is always attachable by a garnishee order. If a bank claims a right or interest in the money, it must show cause why the decree should not be made absolute and provide evidence of its claim over the money in its possession.

28. Procedure for Garnishee Proceedings: Under Order 23 Rule 10 of the Civil Procedure Rules, an application for an order of attachment of a debt is made ex parte by chamber summons with a supporting affidavit. The affidavit should include the name and address of the judgment debtor, details of the judgment to be enforced, information on whether the deponent is within the court's jurisdiction and indebted to the judgment debtor, and the name and address of the branch where the judgment debtor's account is believed to be held, along with the account number.

29. Effects of the Garnishee Order: Until the garnishee order is served, there is no attachment of the debt. If the garnishee bona fide pays the amount of the debt to the judgment debtor before service of the order, the order becomes obsolete as there is no longer any debt to which it can attach. Once the order is served, it creates an equitable obligation on the garnishee to pay the judgment creditor instead of the judgment debtor.

30. Setting Aside a Garnishee Order: A garnishee order can be set aside if there is a mistake of fact, as established in the case of *MOURE v. PEACHAY*. It's important to note that setting aside a garnishee order typically requires an application to the court with valid grounds for the request.



31. Objector Proceedings: Objector proceedings can be initiated under Order 22 Rule 55(1), Section 6 and 57, and Order 52 Rule 1 and 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The order sought in these proceedings is the release of the property that has been attached. The trial court has the responsibility to investigate objections to the attachment of property and has the power to examine whether the objector was in possession of the property in question.

32. SECURED TRANSACTIONS: In cases involving secured transactions, where the judgment debtor has pledged certain assets as collateral for a loan or debt, the execution process may involve the sale of those secured assets to satisfy the debt. The specific rules and procedures for executing against secured property may vary depending on the applicable laws and the terms of the security agreement.

33. ENFORCEMENT OF FOREIGN JUDGMENTS: If the judgment to be executed is a foreign judgment, the enforcement process may involve additional steps. Depending on the jurisdiction, there may be specific laws or international treaties in place to govern the recognition and enforcement of foreign judgments. It is important to consult the relevant laws and seek legal advice to understand the requirements and procedures for enforcing foreign judgments.

34. LIMITATIONS ON EXECUTION: There may be limitations or restrictions on the execution process, such as time limits for initiating execution proceedings, exemptions for certain types of property, or restrictions on the amount or percentage of a debtor's income that can be garnished. These limitations can vary depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the debt.

35. CONTEMPT OF COURT: If a judgment debtor fails to comply with the execution orders or attempts to obstruct the execution process, the court may initiate contempt of court proceedings. Contempt of court refers to actions that disrespect or obstruct the authority or orders of the court. The court has the power to impose penalties or sanctions, such as fines or imprisonment, for contemptuous behavior.

36. JUDICIAL DISCRETION: Throughout the execution process, the court exercises its discretion to ensure fairness and consider the rights and interests of all parties involved. The court may consider factors such as the positions of other creditors, the existence of a debt in praesenti, the debtor's ability to pay, and any valid objections or claims made by the judgment debtor or other interested parties.

### **Summary of Legal Issues on general overview of legal issues related to execution,**

1. Powers of Execution: The Civil Procedure Act and Civil Procedure Rules govern the law applicable to execution. Section 38 (d) of the CPA grants the court the power to enforce execution through means such as arrest and detention in civil prison.

2. Arrest and Detention: Section 40 of the Civil Procedure Act outlines the method of arrest in execution proceedings. Section 43 allows for the release of a detained person on the ground of illness. Order 19 Rule 36 specifies that a judgment debtor should not be arrested until the decree holder has paid sufficient subsistence allowance for the debtor's upkeep.

3. Order Absolute: The court has discretion on whether to make an order absolute. The court must consider the positions of other creditors, the existence of a debt in praesenti, and other relevant factors before making the order absolute.

4. Attachment of Movable Property: Attachment of movable property, excluding agricultural produce, involves seizure by an attaching officer who is responsible for its custody. Order 22 Rule 40(1) of the Civil Procedure Rules governs the attachment process.

5. Execution against Local Government: Execution proceedings against a local government can commence after 6 months from the date of judgment. Certain properties, such as fixed assets and stationary transfers or grants, are immune from attachment.

6. Execution against Attorney General (A.G.): Execution against the A.G. is governed by sections 19-21 of the Government Proceedings Act. Government property cannot be attached, and liability cannot be imposed through summary procedure. Certain steps, including extracting the decree, taxation, and obtaining a court order from the registrar, must be followed.

7. Failure to Comply: If a debtor fails to comply with execution orders, a writ of mandamus can be sought under Section 36 and 37 of the Judicature Act to compel the responsible officer to fulfill their public duty. Failure to comply may result in contempt of court proceedings.

8. Attachment of Property: Pursuant to Section 44(1) of the Civil Procedure Act, certain properties are liable to attachment and sale in execution of a decree. Exceptions to attachment are also provided. The property must belong to the judgment debtor or be under their disposing power.

9. Attachment of Debts: Attachment of debts allows a judgment creditor to reach money due to the judgment debtor in the hands of a third party. The order to attach a debt is called a garnishee order. The garnishee's obligation changes from paying the judgment debtor to paying the judgment creditor.

10. Setting Aside a Garnishee Order: A garnishee order can be set aside in case of a mistake of fact.

11. Objector Proceedings: Objector proceedings can be initiated under various provisions of the Civil Procedure Rules. The objector seeks the release of the property being attached.

- **Mubiru wants to object to the attachment of his property in a suit against Ssendiwala, kindly advise him on how he can objection to the attachment of his property.**

Under Order 22 Rule 55(1), Section 6 and 57, and Order 52 Rule 1 and 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules, objector proceedings can be initiated. The objector seeks the release of the property being attached.

#### ORDER SOUGHT IN OBJECTIONS

In *TRANS AFRICA ASSURANCE CO LTD V NSSF* (1999) 1 EA 352, the court held that when an objection is made to the attachment of property, it is the responsibility of the trial court to investigate the objection as provided by Order 19 (now Order 22). The trial judge has the power to examine whether the objector was in possession of the property and can determine whether the property should be released.

#### GARNISHEE PROCEEDINGS PROCEDURE

Under Order 23 Rule 10 of the Civil Procedure Rules, an application for an order of attachment of a debt is made ex parte by chamber summons with a supporting affidavit. The affidavit must include details such as the name and address of the judgment debtor, the judgment to be enforced with the remaining unpaid amount, the indebtedness of the deponent to the judgment debtor, and information about the garnishee if it is a deposit-taking institution.

#### EFFECTS OF THE GARNISHEE ORDER

Until the garnishee order is served, there is no attachment of the debt. If the garnishee pays the amount of debt to the judgment debtor before the order is served, the order becomes obsolete as there is no longer any debt to which it can attach. The service of the order creates an equitable obligation on the garnishee to pay the judgment creditor.

#### **Discuss SETTING ASIDE A GARNISHEE ORDER**

In *MOURE V PEACHAY*, a garnishee order can be set aside if there is a mistake of fact.

#### OBJECTOR PROCEEDINGS

Objector proceedings are initiated under various provisions, including Order 22 Rule 55(1), Section 6 and 57, and Order 52 Rule 1 and 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The objector seeks the release of the property being attached.

## ORDER SOUGHT

In *TRANS AFRICA ASSURANCE CO LTD V NSSF* (1999) 1 EA 352, the court held that when an objection is made to the attachment of property, the trial court is responsible for investigating the objection. The trial judge has the power to determine whether the objector was in possession of the property and can decide whether the property should be released.

## EXECUTION OF DECREE AGAINST A LOCAL GOVERNMENT

According to Section 6 of the Local Government Act Cap. 243, execution proceedings against a local government can be commenced after six months from the date of judgment. There are certain properties that cannot be attached, such as fixed assets and stationary transfers or grants, which are immune from attachment. Stationary transfers or grants are provided for under Section 83 of the Local Government Act, and they are not considered debts. Other movable properties can be attached after the six-month period.

## EXECUTION AGAINST THE ATTORNEY GENERAL

Execution against the Attorney General is governed by Sections 19-21 of the Government Proceedings Act (GPA), Cap 7. Government property cannot be attached, and the government cannot be held liable in a suit brought by summary procedure. The process for execution against the Attorney General involves extracting the decree, taxation, applying for a court order from the registrar of the executing court, serving a copy of the order to the Attorney General, and the Attorney General advising the Secretary to the Treasury to make the payment.

## FAILURE TO COMPLY

If the debtor fails to comply with the execution order, they can apply for a writ of mandamus under Sections 36 and 37 of the Judicature Act. This writ requires the officer in question to fulfill their public duty. In *SHAH V A.G* (1970) EA S43, the court held that a mandamus could be issued to a treasury officer to compel them to carry out the duty of payment. If they do not comply with the mandamus order, contempt of court proceedings can be initiated.

## PROPERTY LIABLE TO ATTACHMENT

According to Section 44(1) of the Civil Procedure Act, the following properties are liable to attachment and sale in execution of a decree: lands, houses, other buildings, goods, money, banknotes, cheques, bills of exchange, promissory notes, government securities, bonds or other securities of money, debts, shares of corporations, and all other saleable properties movable or immovable belonging to the judgment debtor or



over which the judgment debtor has a disposing power. However, there are exceptions to properties that are not liable to attachment.

## ATTACHMENT OF DEBTS

Under Order 23 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules, attachment of debts is a process by which a judgment creditor can reach money due to the judgment debtor that is in the hands of a third person. The order to attach a debt is called a garnishee order, and the third party holding the money is referred to as the garnishee. Once the garnishee order is made absolute, the obligation of the third party shifts from paying the judgment debtor to paying the judgment creditor.

## WHEN TO INSTITUTE GARNISHEE PROCEEDINGS

Garnishee proceedings can be instituted by any person who has obtained a judgment or order for the recovery of payment of money. To support a garnishee order, there must be a debt due or accruing due, and it is not sufficient to show a contingent liability. The debt must be owned by the garnishee and be of a type that the judgment debtor can enforce if desired. The debt must exist at the time the attachment becomes operative and must be recognized as a debt by the law.

## PROCEDURE FOR GARNISHEE PROCEEDINGS

An application for an order of attachment of a debt is made ex parte by chamber summons with a supporting affidavit, as per Order 23 Rule 10 of the Civil Procedure Rules. The affidavit must include details such as the name and address of the judgment debtor, the judgment to be enforced with the remaining unpaid amount, the indebtedness of the deponent to the judgment debtor, and inform about the garnishee if it is a deposit-taking institution.

## EFFECTS OF THE GARNISHEE ORDER

Until the garnishee order is served, there is no attachment of the debt. If the garnishee pays the amount of debt to the judgment debtor before the order is served, the order becomes obsolete as there is no longer any debt to which it can attach. The service of the order creates an equitable obligation on the garnishee to pay the judgment creditor. The garnishee can be liable for contempt of court if they do not comply with the order.

## SETTING ASIDE A GARNISHEE ORDER

A garnishee order can be set aside on various grounds, such as mistake of fact, non-existence of debt, non-compliance with the procedure, or any other ground justifying the court's intervention. The application to set aside the order should be made promptly and should be supported by an affidavit.

## OBJECTOR PROCEEDINGS

Objector proceedings can be initiated under Order 22 Rule 55(1), Section 6 and 57, and Order 52 Rule 1 and 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules. In these proceedings, the objector seeks the release of the attached property. The trial court has the power to investigate the objection and examine whether the objector was in possession of the property. The trial judge determines whether the objection is valid and whether the property should be released.

## ORDER SOUGHT

In objector proceedings, the order sought is the release of the property that has been attached. The court will evaluate the objection and the possession of the property before making a decision. The court's primary objective is to ensure a fair and just resolution.

- **In the given case of Abbey Musinguzi T/A Abtex Production v The Inspector General of Police & Attorney General, there are several legal issues related to judicial review that can be identified. Kindly summarize those issues pertaining judicial review.**

1. **Illegality:** The applicants sought a declaration that the process leading to the decision of the Acting Inspector General of Police (A/IGP) was illegal and ultra vires. The court determined that the A/IGP acted outside the law by ordering the suspension and cancellation of the concerts after the applicants had fulfilled all the requirements set by the police. This raises the issue of whether the decision-making process was conducted within the bounds of the law.

2. **Irrationality:** The court defined irrationality as a decision that is so grossly unreasonable that no reasonable authority, considering the facts and the law, would have made such a decision. The actions of the police in restraining the applicants from accessing the concert venue, arresting them without providing reasons, and taking them to a private residence without following proper procedures were deemed unreasonable and in bad faith. This highlights the issue of whether the decision-maker's actions were based on logic and acceptable moral standards.

3. **Procedural Impropriety:** Procedural impropriety refers to a failure to act fairly in the decision-making process, including a violation of the rules of natural justice or a lack of procedural fairness towards the affected party. In this case, the court found that the police did not accord the applicants fair treatment when they were restrained, arrested, and taken to a private residence without proper justification or adherence to procedural fairness. This raises the question of whether the decision-making authority followed fair and proper procedures in reaching its decision.

These legal issues are crucial in determining whether the decision or act complained of in the judicial review application is tainted with illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety. The court's role in judicial review

is to assess whether the decision-making process was conducted within the bounds of the law, whether the decision was reasonable and based on sound judgment, and whether fair and proper procedures were followed.

1. Purpose of Judicial Review: The court in the case of "Chief Constable of North Wales v Evan" highlighted the purposes of judicial review, which include ensuring that individuals receive fair treatment by authorities, that public powers are exercised in accordance with legality, fairness, and rationality, and that the opinions of individual judges or public officers are not construed as the authority's decision. Judicial review aims to uphold the constitutional right to a fair and expeditious hearing.

2. Public Body: Rule 3 of the Judicial Review rules defines a public body to include the government, departments, services, or undertakings of the government. In the case of "Yasin Omari v EC and 2 Ors," the court clarified that a body is considered a public body if it is defined as such or exercises public functions.

3. Requirements for Judicial Review Application: Rule 7A outlines the requirements for a judicial review application. These include establishing that the application is amenable to judicial review, exhausting all available remedies within the public body or under the law, and involving an administrative, public, or official matter. Additionally, Rule 7A(2) states that the court must grant an order for judicial review if it finds that the decision-making body or officer did not follow due process, resulting in unfair and unjust treatment.

4. Who Can Apply: Rule 3A states that any person with a direct or sufficient interest in the matter may apply for judicial review. This allows individuals who are directly affected by a decision or action to seek recourse through the judicial review process.

5. Concept of Administrative Law: Judicial review is regarded as a matter of administrative law. Administrative law concerns the process by which the High Court exercises its supervisory powers over the decisions and proceedings of lower courts, tribunals, and other bodies or persons involved in quasi-judicial functions. Administrative law ensures that decisions are made within the confines of the law and that the rights of individuals are protected.

In the case of "Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University," which was a judicial review matter, the court explained the concept of judicial review as a process through which the High Court exercises supervisory powers over the decisions and proceedings of lower courts, tribunals, and other bodies or persons involved in quasi-judicial functions. The purpose of judicial review is to ensure that decisions are made in accordance with the law and that the rights of individuals are protected.

In this particular case, Dr. Stella Nyanzi sought a declaration that Makerere University was in contempt of its staff appeals tribunal and requested reinstatement to her position as a research fellow at the Makerere

Institute of Social Research, along with payment of her salary, benefits, and emoluments. She also sought general, aggravated, and punitive damages.

The court determined two main issues:

- (i) whether the respondent acted in contempt of the orders of the staff tribunal, and
- (ii) what remedies were available to the parties.

The court found that the respondent had disregarded the decision of the staff tribunal and failed to renew Dr. Stella Nyanzi's contract as ordered. This disregard caused embarrassment, inconvenience, and psychological torture to her. As a result, the court awarded her general damages.

Furthermore, the court issued an order of mandamus, which compelled the respondent (Makerere University) to implement the decision of the tribunal. In addition to the order of mandamus, Dr. Stella Nyanzi was awarded damages amounting to 120 million Ugandan shillings.

This case highlights the significance of judicial review in holding public bodies accountable for their actions and ensuring that decisions made by administrative bodies or authorities are in accordance with the law.

Judicial review is a crucial aspect of administrative law, and it plays a vital role in ensuring accountability, fairness, and adherence to the rule of law in the actions and decisions of public bodies. By subjecting these bodies to scrutiny by the judiciary, judicial review serves to protect the rights and interests of individuals affected by their decisions.

To succeed in an application for judicial review, an applicant must establish that the decision or act complained of is tainted with illegality, irrationality, or procedural impropriety. These three grounds serve as the pillars of judicial review and provide a framework for evaluating the lawfulness and fairness of administrative actions.

Illegality refers to acts or decisions that go beyond the legal authority or powers of the decision-maker. In the case of *Abbey Musinguzi T/A Abtex Production v The Inspector General of Police & Attorney General*, the court found that the Assistant Inspector General of Police (A/IGP) had acted outside the law by arbitrarily stopping the concerts despite the applicants' compliance with the requirements set by the police. This rendered the decision illegal and *ultra vires*.

Irrationality pertains to decisions or acts that are so unreasonable that no reasonable authority, addressing the facts and the law before them, would have made such a decision. The court in the same case found the police's actions, such as restraining the applicants from accessing the venue, arresting them without



justification, and driving them at breakneck speed, to be grossly unreasonable and in bad faith. These actions were in defiance of logic and acceptable moral standards, indicating irrationality.

Procedural impropriety refers to a failure to act fairly in the decision-making process, which may involve a violation of the rules of natural justice or a lack of procedural fairness towards those affected by the decision. In the case of *Abbey Musinguzi v The Inspector General of Police*, the court found that the police's treatment of the applicants, including the arrest and detention without providing reasons or allowing them to make statements, amounted to procedural impropriety.

In addition to these grounds, the court highlighted the objectives of judicial review, which include ensuring fair treatment by authorities, upholding basic standards of legality and fairness in the exercise of public powers, and safeguarding the right to a fair and expeditious hearing.

Furthermore, the case of *Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University* exemplifies how judicial review can be used to challenge the decisions of public bodies, such as universities, and seek remedies for violations of rights. In this case, the court found that Makerere University was in contempt of its staff appeals tribunal by disregarding its decision and failing to implement it. As a result, the court awarded remedies including general damages and an order of mandamus compelling the university to implement the tribunal's decision.

Overall, judicial review is an essential mechanism for ensuring the legality, fairness, and accountability of public bodies, and it provides individuals with a means to challenge administrative decisions that affect their rights and interests.

In Uganda, the process of judicial review is governed by the Judicature (Judicial Review) Rules, which outline the procedures and requirements for seeking judicial review. Rule 7A of the rules specifies the conditions that must be satisfied in an application for judicial review. These conditions include the amenability of the application for judicial review, exhaustion of available remedies, and involvement of an administrative public or official matter.

The rule also provides that the court must grant an order for judicial review if it is satisfied that the decision-making body or officer did not follow due process in reaching a decision, resulting in unfair and unjust treatment. This reinforces the importance of procedural fairness and adherence to the principles of natural justice in administrative decision-making.

Regarding the eligibility to apply for judicial review, Rule 3A states that any person who has a direct or sufficient interest in the matter may apply for judicial review. This broadens the scope of individuals who can seek judicial review, ensuring that those affected by administrative decisions have access to legal remedies.

It is important to note that judicial review is primarily concerned with the decision-making process rather than the merits of the decision itself. The focus is on examining whether the decision-making body acted within its legal authority, followed fair procedures, and reached a rational and reasonable decision based on the available evidence and the applicable law.

In the case of *Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University*, the court emphasized that judicial review is a mechanism for the High Court to exercise its supervisory powers over the decisions and proceedings of inferior courts, tribunals, and other bodies or persons performing quasi-judicial functions. It serves as a check on the actions of public bodies and ensures that they are held accountable for their decisions.

Overall, judicial review is a crucial mechanism for upholding the principles of legality, fairness, and rationality in administrative decision-making. It serves to protect individuals' rights, promote accountability, and maintain the rule of law in the functioning of public bodies.

In the case of *Abbey Musinguzi T/A Abtex Production v The Inspector General of Police & Attorney General*, the applicant sought a declaration that the decision-making process leading to the decision of the Assistant Inspector General of Police (A/IGP) was illegal, ultra vires, irrational, unreasonable, and an abuse of power. The court, in its analysis, considered the principles of judicial review, including illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety.

Illegality refers to a decision or act that goes beyond the legal powers or authority vested in the decision-maker. In this case, the court found that the A/IGP acted outside the law by directing the suspension and cancellation of the concerts after the applicants had fulfilled all the conditions set by the police. The A/IGP's actions were deemed to be ultra vires, exceeding the authority granted by law, and therefore, constituted illegality.

Irrationality, as defined by the court, refers to a decision that is so grossly unreasonable and defies logic and acceptable moral standards that no reasonable authority would have made such a decision. The court found that the actions of the police in restraining the applicants from accessing the venue, arresting them, and driving them to Bobi Wine's residence without providing reasons or taking statements, were in bad faith and displayed a lack of reasonableness. The decision-maker was seen to have departed from rationality in this case.

Procedural impropriety relates to a failure to act fairly in the decision-making process, such as non-observance of the rules of natural justice or a lack of procedural fairness towards those affected by the decision. The court concluded that the police's actions, including preventing the applicants from holding a press conference and failing to provide reasons for their arrest, amounted to a failure to act with procedural fairness.

Additionally, the court emphasized that the purpose of judicial review is to ensure that individuals receive fair treatment by the authorities to which they are subjected. It serves as a mechanism to check the exercise of public powers and ensure that they adhere to basic standards of legality, fairness, and rationality.

Overall, the case highlighted the importance of the principles of illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety in the context of judicial review. These principles provide a framework for assessing the lawfulness and reasonableness of administrative decisions and actions, thus safeguarding individuals' rights and promoting accountability.

In the case of *Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University*, the matter revolved around a judicial review seeking a declaration that the respondent (Makerere University) was in contempt of its staff appeals tribunal and a request for reinstatement, payment of salary, benefits, and emoluments. The court explained the concept of judicial review as a process through which the High Court exercises its supervisory powers over the proceedings and decisions of inferior courts, tribunals, and other bodies or persons carrying out quasi-judicial functions.

The court found that the respondent had disregarded the decision of the staff appeals tribunal, which had ruled in favor of the applicant. By failing to renew the applicant's contract as ordered by the tribunal, the respondent had caused embarrassment, inconvenience, and psychological torture. The court held that the purpose of an appeals tribunal is to protect the employee and provide a forum to challenge the employer's decisions, and it deemed the respondent's actions as wrong for setting up a tribunal but refusing to implement its decisions.

In this case, the court awarded general damages to compensate for the embarrassment, inconvenience, and psychological torture suffered by the applicant. It also granted an order of mandamus, compelling the respondent to implement the decision of the tribunal. Additionally, the applicant was awarded monetary damages of 120 million Ugandan shillings.

These legal issues in the case of *Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University* highlight the significance of judicial review in ensuring that decisions made by public bodies are lawful, fair, and in accordance with basic standards of legality and rationality. Judicial review acts as a safeguard to protect individuals from arbitrary or unjust actions by public authorities and ensures accountability in the exercise of public powers.

Judicial review is an essential aspect of administrative law that ensures the accountability and fairness of decisions made by public bodies. By allowing the High Court to exercise its supervisory powers, judicial review acts as a check on the actions and decisions of inferior courts, tribunals, and other entities carrying out quasi-judicial functions.



The legal issues in judicial review cases often revolve around the concepts of illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety. Illegality refers to a decision or act that goes beyond the powers conferred by law or is not authorized by law. Irrationality involves a decision that is so unreasonable that no reasonable authority, considering the facts and the law, would have made such a decision. Procedural impropriety arises when there is a failure to act fairly or in accordance with the principles of natural justice during the decision-making process.

In the case of *Abbey Musinguzi T/A Abtex Production v The Inspector General of Police & Attorney General*, the applicants sought a declaration that the decision-making process leading to the decision of the Assistant Inspector General of Police (A/IGP) was illegal, ultra vires, irrational, unreasonable, and an abuse of power. The court found that the A/IGP acted outside the law by stopping the concerts despite the applicants fulfilling all the requirements set by the police. The court also deemed the actions of the police, such as restraining the applicants from accessing the venue, arresting them without giving reasons or taking statements, and driving them to Bobi Wine's residence, as irrational and in bad faith.

In the case of *Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University*, the court addressed the issue of the respondent's disregard for the decision of the staff appeals tribunal. The court emphasized the importance of implementing tribunal decisions to protect employees and prevent impunity. The court found the respondent's actions to be in contempt of the tribunal's orders and awarded general damages to compensate for the harm suffered by the applicant. It also issued an order of mandamus to compel the respondent to implement the tribunal's decision.

These cases illustrate the significance of judicial review in upholding the rule of law and ensuring that public bodies act within their legal authority and in a fair and rational manner. Through judicial review, individuals can challenge decisions that are tainted with illegality, irrationality, or procedural impropriety, seeking remedies to rectify the injustices they have suffered.

In addition to the legal issues of illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety, it's important to understand the requirements and principles of judicial review. In the case of *Abbey Musinguzi T/A Abtex Production v The Inspector General of Police & Attorney General*, the court highlighted that to succeed in an application for judicial review, the applicant must demonstrate that the decision or act complained of is tainted with illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety. This requirement aligns with the general principles of judicial review.

Furthermore, Rule 7A of the Judicial Review Rules provides specific criteria that must be satisfied in an application for judicial review. These criteria include:

- a) The application must be amenable to judicial review.



- b) The aggrieved person has exhausted all available remedies within the public body or under the laws.
- c) The matter involves an administrative, public, or official nature.

When these criteria are met, the court may grant an order for judicial review if it is satisfied that the decision-making body or officer did not follow due process in reaching a decision, resulting in unfair and unjust treatment.

Regarding who can apply for judicial review, Rule 3A states that any person who has a direct interest or sufficient interest in the matter may apply. This ensures that individuals directly affected by the decision or act have the opportunity to challenge it through judicial review.

In the case of *Dr. Stella Nyanzi v Makerere University*, the court emphasized that judicial review is a matter of administrative law. It allows the High Court to exercise its supervisory powers over the proceedings and decisions of inferior courts, tribunals, and other bodies or persons carrying out quasi-judicial functions.

The purpose of judicial review is multifaceted. It aims to ensure that individuals receive fair treatment from authorities to whom they are subjected, that public powers are exercised in accordance with the principles of legality, fairness, and rationality, and that individuals are afforded their constitutional right to a fair and expeditious hearing.

By upholding the principles of legality, fairness, and rationality, judicial review plays a crucial role in maintaining the rule of law, protecting individual rights, and holding public bodies accountable for their actions. It serves as a mechanism to correct errors and injustices that may arise from the decision-making process of these bodies.

In the context of the case involving *Abbey Musinguzi T/A Abtex Production v The Inspector General of Police & Attorney General*, the court found that the decision-making process of the Inspector General of Police (IGP) was tainted with illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety. The court determined that the IGP acted outside the law by directing the suspension and cancellation of the concerts without valid reasons and without following due process.

Illegality refers to a decision or act that is contrary to the law or exceeds the authority granted to the decision-maker. In this case, the court found that the IGP's actions were *ultra vires* (beyond the scope of his authority) and thus illegal.

Irrationality, on the other hand, refers to a decision or act that is so unreasonable and illogical that no reasonable authority, considering the facts and the law, would have made such a decision. The court

concluded that the actions of the police in restraining the applicants from accessing the concert venue, arresting them, and driving them to Bobi Wine's residence without proper justification or due process were grossly unreasonable and in defiance of logic and acceptable moral standards.

Procedural impropriety relates to a failure to follow fair and just procedures in the decision-making process. The court determined that the police's actions, such as blocking the press conference and failing to provide reasons for the arrest, constituted a failure to act fairly and with procedural fairness towards the applicants.

By demonstrating these legal issues of illegality, irrationality, and procedural impropriety, the applicants were able to succeed in their application for judicial review. The court granted a declaration that the process leading to the decision of the IGP was illegal, ultra vires, irrational, unreasonable, and an abuse of power.

Overall, judicial review serves as an important mechanism to ensure that public authorities and decision-makers act within the boundaries of the law, adhere to procedural fairness, and make rational and reasonable decisions. It provides a means for individuals and organizations to challenge decisions that may adversely affect their rights or interests and seek remedies for any unlawful or unfair actions taken by public bodies.

### **Grounds for judicial review**

The grounds for judicial review, as categorized by Lord Diplock in *Council of Civil Service Union's Minister for Civil Service* (1985) AC 314, are illegality, irrationality, and unfairness. These grounds provide a basis for challenging the actions or decisions of public bodies, officers, or tribunals. Proof of any one ground is sufficient to seek judicial review.

1. **Illegality:** This ground arises when a public body, officer, or tribunal acts ultra vires (beyond their legal authority) or uses public power for an improper purpose. It includes errors of law made by administrative bodies. Illegality also encompasses actions such as fettering discretion, failing to consider relevant factors, acting outside the scope of governing legislation, and acting in bad faith.

2. **Irrationality:** This ground focuses on decisions or acts that are so unreasonable that no reasonable authority, addressing the facts and law before it, would have made such a decision. It involves gross unreasonableness, defiance of logic, and unacceptable moral standards. Courts may apply a four-part test to determine irrationality, considering the legitimacy of the objective, suitability of the measure, necessity of the means, and justification of the end.

3. **Unfairness:** This ground relates to failures to act fairly in the decision-making process. It can involve the non-observance of rules of natural justice, lack of procedural fairness towards affected individuals, or non-

compliance with procedural rules laid down in statutes or legislative instruments. Unfairness encompasses both substantive and procedural impropriety.

Regarding the time limits for filing an application for judicial review, Rule 5(1) of the Judicial Review Rules specifies that the application must be made promptly and within three months from the date when the grounds of the application first arose. However, the court may extend this period if there is a good reason for the delay.

Prerogative remedies, which can only be claimed through judicial review, include certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, declarations, injunctions, and habeas corpus. These remedies provide avenues to challenge and correct unlawful decisions or actions by public authorities.

**Discuss brief explanation of each prerogative remedy:**

- Certiorari: This remedy is used to quash an invalid decision or action. It applies when a prejudicial decision has been made without affording the affected party the right to be heard. The court can grant certiorari to remove proceedings or matters that are ultra vires.

- Mandamus: Mandamus is an order compelling a public body to perform its statutory duty or function. It is issued when a public body fails to fulfill its obligations. The applicant must demonstrate a clear legal right to the action sought and show that a demand for performance was unequivocally refused.

- Prohibition: Prohibition serves to prevent the occurrence of an ultra vires act or decision. It prohibits the taking of actions that would exceed the authority of a public body. This remedy looks to the future and is discretionary.

- Declarations: A declaration is a statement of the legal relationship between parties. It records existing legal rights but does not change the legal position. Declarations can be sought to clarify legal rights and obligations, and they can be binding if granted by the court.

- Habeas Corpus: Habeas corpus is a remedy used to review the legality of an individual's arrest, imprisonment, or detention. It challenges the authority of the detaining entity and is employed when a person is held without charges or denied due process. Habeas corpus seeks to secure an individual's release.

These prerogative remedies are provided for under various laws, including the Constitution, the Judicature Act, the Civil Procedure (Amendment) Judicial Review Rules, and Public Service Regulations.

The forum for judicial review is the High Court. Certainly! The forum for judicial review is the High Court, which has the jurisdiction to hear and determine applications for judicial review. In the UK, there are separate divisions within the High Court that deal with specific types of cases, such as the Administrative Court, the Queen's Bench Division, and the Chancery Division.

The Administrative Court, which sits within the Queen's Bench Division, is the primary forum for judicial review cases. It handles challenges to the decisions and actions of public bodies, officers, and tribunals. The court reviews the legality, rationality, and fairness of administrative decisions and ensures that they are within the bounds of the law.

When a claim for judicial review is brought before the High Court, the court has the power to grant various remedies based on the circumstances of the case. These remedies aim to correct the unlawfulness, irrationality, or unfairness identified in the decision or action under review.

In addition to the prerogative remedies mentioned earlier (certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, declarations, injunctions, and habeas corpus), the court may also award damages or make a quashing order to nullify the decision or action in question. Damages are generally available in cases where the claimant has suffered a loss or harm as a result of the unlawful decision or action.

It's worth noting that the availability and appropriateness of specific remedies will depend on the nature of the case and the relief sought. The court will consider the circumstances and merits of each case before determining the appropriate remedy to grant.

Overall, judicial review provides an essential mechanism for individuals or organizations to challenge the lawfulness of decisions made by public authorities. It ensures that administrative actions are accountable and comply with legal principles, promoting transparency, fairness, and the rule of law.

To initiate a judicial review, the claimant must typically file an application for permission to apply for judicial review with the High Court. This application must be made promptly and within strict time limits, usually within three months of the date when the grounds for the claim first arose. The court will then consider the application and decide whether to grant permission for the judicial review to proceed.

If permission is granted, the claim will proceed to a substantive hearing where the court will examine the merits of the case. Both the claimant and the defendant will have the opportunity to present their arguments



and evidence before the court. In some cases, there may also be interveners who are allowed to make submissions on behalf of interested parties.

During the substantive hearing, the court will review the lawfulness of the decision or action under scrutiny. It will consider whether the decision-maker had the power to make the decision, whether the decision was made within the scope of that power, and whether the decision was reached using a fair and lawful process. The court may also assess the rationality, reasonableness, and proportionality of the decision.

After considering the arguments and evidence presented, the court will deliver its judgment. If the court finds that the decision or action was unlawful, it may grant one or more of the remedies discussed earlier, such as quashing the decision, issuing a declaration, or awarding damages.

It's important to note that the outcome of a judicial review case can vary depending on the specific circumstances and the court's interpretation of the law. Additionally, judicial review is generally concerned with reviewing the legality and procedural aspects of decisions, rather than the merits of the decision itself.

In recent years, there have been discussions and debates about potential reforms to the judicial review process in the UK, with some advocating for changes to the scope and grounds for judicial review. However, any significant reforms would require legislative action and careful consideration of the principles of the rule of law and access to justice.

Grounds for Judicial Review, as categorized by Lord Diplock in *Council of Civil Service Union's Minister for Civil Service* (1985) AC 314, are illegality, irrationality, and unfairness. Proof of one ground is sufficient, as stated in *Pastor V Kabale District*. Here is a summary of each ground:

#### 1. Illegality:

Illegality arises when a public body, officer, or tribunal acts beyond their powers or uses public power for an improper purpose. This includes errors of law by administrative bodies, as held in *O'Reilly v Mack Man* (1982) 3 ALL ER 1129. Illegality also encompasses fettering of discretion, failure to consider relevant factors, acting outside the scope of governing legislation, and acting in bad faith, as stated in *Hammersmith and Fulham London Borough Council v Secretary of State for the Environment* (1990) 3 ALL ER 589.

#### 2. Irrationality:

Irrationality refers to decisions that are so unreasonable that no reasonable authority, considering the facts and law, would have made such a decision. In *Associated Provincial Picture Houses Ltd v Wednesbury Corp* (1947) 2 ALL ER 680, it was held that an unreasonable decision is one that no reasonable body could have come to. *Maren Dorothy v. Law Development Centre* (2016) established a four-part test for irrationality: legitimacy of the public body's objective, suitability of the measure taken, necessity of the means used, and justification of the end result.

### 3. Unfairness:

Unfairness occurs when a decision-making authority fails to act fairly in the process of making a decision. This may involve nonobservance of the rules of natural justice or procedural fairness, failure to adhere to procedural rules laid down by statute or legislative instrument, or lack of procedural impropriety, as stated in *Amuron Dorothy v. Law Development Centre* (2016).

The time limit for filing an application for Judicial Review is three months from the date when the grounds of the application first arose, as per Rule 5(1) of the Judicial Review rules. However, the court may extend this period if there is a good reason for doing so.

Prerogative remedies, which can be claimed through judicial review, include certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, declarations, injunctions, and habeas corpus. These remedies are conferred by various laws, such as the Constitution, Judicature Act, Judicature Act (Amendment) Act No. 3 of 2000, and the Civil Procedure (Amendment) Judicial Review Rules SI 75/2003.

Specifically, certiorari is a remedy to quash an invalid decision, and it is granted when a prejudicial decision has been made without according the affected party the right to be heard. Mandamus is an order to compel a public body to perform its statutory duty, and it requires a clear legal right and a demand for performance that has been unequivocally refused. Prohibition is a remedy to prohibit future ultravires acts or decisions. Declarations record existing legal rights and cannot change the legal position. Habeas corpus is used to challenge the legality of arrest, imprisonment, or detention, especially when a person is held without charges or denied due process.

#### **Discuss INJUNCTIONS**

An injunction is an equitable remedy that restrains a person from doing a particular act or compels a person to do a specific act. It is a discretionary remedy granted by the court to prevent irreparable harm or to preserve the status quo pending a final determination of the case. Injunctions can be temporary or permanent, depending on the circumstances of the case.

In the case of *GLOBAL GARDEN PRODUCTS V. VEITCHI*, the court held that an injunction can be granted if there is a serious issue to be tried, if damages are not an adequate remedy, and if the balance of convenience favors granting the injunction. The court also stated that the granting of an injunction is not automatic and must be based on the specific facts of the case.

The court may grant an injunction to prevent a public body from acting unlawfully or to compel a public body to fulfill its statutory duties. The High Court has the power to grant an injunction under Section 37 of the Judicature Act Cap 13.

## **Discuss DECLARATIONS**

A declaration is a statement of legal rights and obligations between parties. It does not change the legal position but clarifies the existing legal relationship. A declaration can be sought to establish the legal status of a person, confirm the interpretation of a statute, or determine the validity of a decision or action.

In the case of *OPOLOT AND ANOR V UGANDA*, the court held that a declaration is a discretionary remedy that should be exercised with care. The court has the power to make a binding declaration of right, but it should only do so when it would create a relationship between parties with an essential element of mutual confidence. The court should refrain from making a declaration if it would seriously prejudice the security of the state.

## **Discuss HABEAS CORPUS**

Habeas Corpus is a legal action that allows a person to challenge the legality of their detention or imprisonment. It is a fundamental safeguard of personal liberty and ensures that a person is not unlawfully deprived of their freedom. Habeas Corpus can be used when a person is held without charges or is denied due process.

In the case of *KYAGULANYI V. ATTORNEY GENERAL*, the court ruled that the confinement of a presidential candidate to his home constituted unlawful detention. The court ordered the lifting of the confinement and restoration of the candidate's personal liberty. Habeas Corpus Ad Subjiciendum is a specific type of Habeas Corpus directed at the person detaining another in custody, commanding them to produce the detained person before the court to test the legality of the detention.

The remedies of Certiorari, Mandamus, Prohibition, Declarations, Injunctions, and Habeas Corpus can be claimed through judicial review proceedings. These remedies provide a means to challenge the actions or decisions of public bodies, officers, or tribunals that are unlawful, irrational, or unfair.

## **Discuss PROHIBITION**

Prohibition is a remedy that prohibits a lower court or tribunal from exceeding its jurisdiction or acting in excess of its powers. It is used to prevent a decision from being made or to quash a decision that has already been made. Prohibition is typically sought when there is a clear error or illegality in the decision-making process.

In the case of *R V. PANEL ON TAKEOVERS AND MERGERS*, the court held that prohibition is an exceptional remedy that should only be granted in exceptional circumstances where there is a flagrant and

manifest excess of jurisdiction. The court also emphasized that the remedy of prohibition is discretionary and should be exercised sparingly.

### **Discuss MANDAMUS**

Mandamus is a remedy that compels a public body, public officer, or corporation to perform a duty that they are legally obligated to perform. It is used when there is a clear right to the performance of a public duty and no alternative remedy is available. Mandamus is intended to enforce public rights and ensure that public officials carry out their duties.

In the case of *ROBSON V. CHIEF CONSTABLE OF NORTH YORKSHIRE POLICE*, the court held that mandamus is an appropriate remedy to compel the police to investigate a complaint when there is a clear legal duty to do so. The court emphasized that mandamus should be granted when the applicant has a substantive right to the performance of the duty and there is no other adequate remedy available.

### **Discuss COSTS**

In judicial review proceedings, costs are awarded at the discretion of the court. Generally, the unsuccessful party will be ordered to pay the costs of the successful party. However, the court has the power to make a different costs order based on the specific circumstances of the case.

The court may consider factors such as the conduct of the parties, the complexity of the case, the importance of the issues raised, and any offers of settlement made during the proceedings. The court may also consider whether a party has acted unreasonably or brought the proceedings for an improper purpose when making a costs order.

### **Discuss APPEALS**

In judicial review cases, there is a possibility for the parties to appeal the decision of the court. The availability and process of appeals vary depending on the jurisdiction and the court involved.

In some jurisdictions, there may be an automatic right of appeal from a decision of a lower court to a higher court. In other cases, permission to appeal may need to be sought from either the lower court or the higher court.

The grounds of appeal typically include errors of law, errors in the application of legal principles, or procedural irregularities that may have affected the outcome of the case. The appellate court will review the decision of the lower court and determine whether errors were made that warrant a reversal or modification of the decision.



The appellate court's decision is generally final, but in certain circumstances, there may be further avenues of appeal, such as the possibility of appealing to a higher court or seeking leave to appeal to a specialized appellate body.

### **Discuss ALTERNATIVE REMEDIES**

In addition to judicial review, there may be alternative remedies available to challenge administrative actions or decisions. Some of these remedies include:

1. **Statutory Appeals:** In some cases, a specific statute may provide for a right of appeal against administrative decisions to a specialized appellate body.
2. **Ombudsman:** Ombudsman offices exist in many jurisdictions and are responsible for investigating complaints against government agencies or public bodies. They can provide remedies such as recommendations, mediation, or even issuing reports highlighting systemic issues.
3. **Complaint Procedures:** Some administrative bodies have their own internal complaint procedures that allow individuals to challenge decisions or actions before seeking judicial review. These procedures often involve a review or reconsideration of the decision by a different decision-maker within the administrative body.
4. **Negotiation and Mediation:** In certain cases, it may be possible to resolve disputes through negotiation or mediation, avoiding the need for formal legal proceedings. Alternative dispute resolution methods can be less formal, less time-consuming, and less costly than going to court.

It is important to consult the specific laws and procedures of the relevant jurisdiction to determine the availability and requirements of alternative remedies.

Judicial review is a fundamental mechanism that ensures the legality and fairness of administrative actions and decisions. It allows individuals and organizations to challenge the exercise of public power and seek remedies when their rights have been infringed or legal standards have not been met. By holding public authorities accountable, judicial review plays a crucial role in upholding the rule of law and protecting the rights of individuals within a democratic society.

- **What are the challenges in judicial review?**

While judicial review is an important mechanism for accountability and protection of rights, there are certain challenges associated with the process:

1. Complexity: Judicial review proceedings can be complex and require a solid understanding of administrative law, legal principles, and procedural rules. Navigating the legal system and presenting a strong case can be challenging for individuals who are not familiar with legal processes.

2. Time and Cost: Judicial review can be a time-consuming process, particularly when cases involve complex legal issues or extensive evidence. It can also be expensive, as it often requires the assistance of legal professionals and may involve costs such as court fees and expert reports.

3. Limited Scope of Review: Courts generally have a limited scope of review in judicial review cases. They typically focus on the legality and rationality of administrative decisions, rather than the merits of the decision itself. This means that even if a decision is considered unfair or unwise, it may not be overturned unless there is a legal error or breach of procedural fairness.

4. Discretion of Decision-makers: Administrative decision-makers often have a significant degree of discretion in making decisions. Courts generally defer to the expertise and judgment of these decision-makers and are reluctant to interfere unless there is a clear error of law or a breach of procedural fairness.

5. Remedies: While judicial review can result in remedies such as quashing a decision, ordering a reconsideration, or granting compensation, it is not always possible to obtain the desired outcome. Courts have the power to exercise discretion in determining appropriate remedies, and the outcome of a judicial review case is not guaranteed.

6. Access to Justice: Accessibility to judicial review can be a challenge, particularly for individuals or groups with limited financial resources. Legal representation and associated costs can pose a barrier to seeking judicial review, potentially limiting access to justice for certain individuals or marginalized communities.

## LEGAL LEGACY INCORPORATED

These challenges highlight the importance of legal representation and support in navigating the judicial review process effectively. Pro bono legal services, legal aid programs, and nonprofit organizations can play a crucial role in promoting access to justice in judicial review cases.

Judicial review serves as a crucial check on administrative actions and decisions, ensuring that public authorities act within the bounds of the law and respect individual rights. While it presents challenges, such as complexity and cost, it remains an essential mechanism for accountability and protection of individuals and organizations affected by administrative decisions.

It is important for individuals and organizations to understand their rights, consult legal professionals when necessary, and access available resources to effectively engage in the judicial review process. By doing so, they can contribute to the proper functioning of democratic governance and the protection of individual rights within a society governed by the rule of law.

➤ **What can be your recommendation's to future developments in judicial review**

As society and governance continue to evolve, there are ongoing discussions and potential future developments in the field of judicial review. Some areas of interest and debate include:

1. **Judicial Activism vs. Restraint:** There is an ongoing debate about the appropriate role of courts in judicial review. Judicial activism refers to an approach where courts actively interpret and shape laws, while judicial restraint advocates for a more limited role, deferring to legislative and executive decisions. The balance between these two approaches is continually debated and may vary across jurisdictions.

2. **Human Rights and Judicial Review:** Human rights considerations are becoming increasingly prominent in judicial review. Courts are called upon to assess administrative decisions in light of constitutional and international human rights standards, ensuring that individual rights are protected and upheld in administrative decision-making processes.

3. **Procedural Fairness and Administrative Tribunals:** Administrative tribunals play a significant role in making decisions in various areas, such as immigration, employment, and social benefits. The question of procedural fairness within these tribunals and their compatibility with judicial review mechanisms is an ongoing issue. Striking a balance between efficiency and fairness in administrative decision-making processes is a topic of continued exploration.

4. **Judicial Review and Technology:** The advancement of technology poses new challenges and opportunities for judicial review. As administrative decision-making becomes increasingly automated and based on algorithms, questions arise regarding transparency, accountability, and the reviewability of algorithmic decisions. Courts are grappling with how to adapt traditional judicial review principles to emerging technologies.

5. **Alternative Dispute Resolution:** As an alternative to traditional court proceedings, alternative dispute resolution mechanisms such as mediation and arbitration are gaining traction. These methods offer potential benefits, including speed, cost-effectiveness, and flexibility. Exploring the role of alternative dispute resolution in the context of judicial review may provide additional avenues for resolving administrative disputes.

6. Comparative Perspectives: Comparative analysis of judicial review systems across different jurisdictions can provide valuable insights and contribute to the development of best practices. Examining how other countries handle administrative decision review can inform ongoing discussions and potential reforms in one's own jurisdiction.

These are just a few areas where future developments and discussions in the field of judicial review are taking place. As societies evolve and new challenges emerge, it is crucial to continually evaluate and adapt judicial review mechanisms to ensure they remain effective in safeguarding the rule of law, protecting individual rights, and promoting accountable governance.

Judicial review plays a vital role in ensuring the legality, fairness, and accountability of administrative actions. It serves as a crucial check on the exercise of governmental power and protects the rights and interests of individuals and organizations affected by administrative decisions. While challenges exist, ongoing discussions and potential developments in the field present opportunities to strengthen and refine the judicial review process.

By fostering public awareness, promoting access to justice, and engaging in constructive dialogue, stakeholders can contribute to the continued development and effectiveness of judicial review mechanisms. A robust and transparent judicial review system reinforces the principles of democracy, the rule of law, and the protection of individual rights, ultimately leading to a more just and accountable society.

The grounds for judicial review, as categorized by Lord Diplock in *Council of Civil Service Union's Minister for Civil Service* (1985) AC 314, are illegality, irrationality, and unfairness. These grounds provide a basis for challenging the actions of public bodies, officers, or tribunals in court. It is important to note that the proof of one ground is sufficient to support a judicial review claim, as stated in the case of *Pastori v Kabale District*.

**SUI GENERIS**

1. **Illegality:** This ground arises when a public body, officer, or tribunal acts beyond its legal powers or uses public power for an improper purpose. It includes errors of law by administrative bodies, fettering of discretion, failure to consider relevant factors, acting outside the scope of governing legislation, and acting in bad faith.

2. **Irrationality:** Under this ground, a decision or action is considered irrational if no reasonable authority, addressing itself to the facts and the law, would have made such a decision. It involves gross unreasonableness, defiance of logic and moral standards. Courts apply a four-part test to determine irrationality, which includes examining the legitimacy of the public body's objective, the suitability and necessity of the measure taken, and whether the end justifies the means.



3. Unfairness: This ground relates to procedural impropriety or a failure to act fairly by the decision-making authority. It includes nonobservance of the rules of natural justice, lack of procedural fairness towards the affected party, and failure to adhere to procedural rules laid down in statutes or legislative instruments.

In addition to the grounds for judicial review, there are prerogative remedies available, which can only be claimed through judicial review. These remedies include certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, declarations, injunctions, and habeas corpus. Each of these remedies serves a specific purpose in addressing legal obligations and challenging the actions of public bodies.

The time limit for filing an application for judicial review is specified in Rule 5(1) of the Judicial Review Rules. It states that an application must be made promptly and within three months from the date when the grounds of the application first arose, unless the court considers there is a good reason for extending the period.

Certiorari is a remedy used to quash an invalid decision. It is granted when a prejudicial decision has been made without giving the affected party a right to be heard. The High Court has the power to issue a writ of certiorari to remove any proceedings or matter.

Mandamus is an order issued by the court to compel a public body to perform its duty. It can be sought when a public body fails to execute a statutory duty imposed on it.

Prohibition is an order issued by the court to prohibit certain proceedings or matters. It is used to prevent the occurrence of an ultravires act or decision.

Declarations are statements of legal relationships between parties. They record existing legal rights and do not change the legal position. The court has the discretionary power to make a binding declaration of right, considering factors such as mutual confidence and national security.

Habeas corpus is a writ used to review the legality of a person's arrest, imprisonment, or detention. It challenges the authority of the detaining party and is applicable when a person is held without charges or denied due process.

These remedies and grounds for judicial review are provided for by various laws, including the Constitution, Judicature Act, Judicature Act (Amendment) Act, Civil Procedure (Amendment) Judicial Review Rules, and Public Service Regulations.

## INJUNCTIONS

An injunction is a court order that restrains a party from performing a particular act or compels them to perform a specific act. Injunctions are discretionary remedies granted by the court to prevent irreparable harm or preserve the status quo. They are often sought in cases where monetary compensation would not be an adequate remedy.

The court may grant an interim or temporary injunction to provide immediate relief pending the final determination of the case. A final injunction is granted after a full hearing and is intended to have a permanent effect.

In order to obtain an injunction, the applicant must demonstrate the following:

1. A prima facie case: The applicant must establish a strong case on the merits of the underlying claim.
2. Irreparable harm: The applicant must show that they would suffer irreparable harm if the injunction is not granted. This means that the harm cannot be adequately compensated by monetary damages.
3. Balance of convenience: The court will consider the balance of convenience and the relative harm to each party if the injunction is granted or denied.
4. Good faith: The applicant must come to the court with clean hands and act in good faith.

Injunctions can be mandatory, prohibitory, or quia timet injunctions. A mandatory injunction compels a party to perform a specific act, while a prohibitory injunction restrains a party from engaging in a particular activity. Quia timet injunctions are preventive measures taken to stop a threatened future harm.

## HABEAS CORPUS

Habeas corpus is a legal action through which a person can seek relief from unlawful detention or imprisonment. The writ of habeas corpus is used to challenge the authority of the detaining party and ensure that the detained individual's rights are protected.

To obtain a writ of habeas corpus, the applicant must demonstrate that they are being unlawfully detained or imprisoned. This can include situations where there is no legal basis for the detention, the detention exceeds the lawful period, or the detention violates the individual's fundamental rights.

The court will examine the legality and validity of the detention, including the procedures followed, the evidence supporting the detention, and the compliance with due process rights. If the court finds that the detention is unlawful, it can order the release of the detained individual or take other appropriate actions to remedy the situation.

Habeas corpus is a fundamental legal remedy that safeguards individual liberty and ensures that the state's power of detention is exercised lawfully and within the bounds of the constitution and applicable laws.

➤ **Kindly discuss arbitration and other forms of resolution as a form of dispute resolution?**

### ARBITRATION

Arbitration is a dispute resolution process where parties agree to submit their legal disputes to an arbitrator or a panel of arbitrators who will make a binding decision. It is an alternative to traditional court litigation and offers a more streamlined and private method for resolving conflicts.

Arbitration can be either voluntary or mandatory, depending on the parties' agreement. It is often governed by specific rules, such as those provided by arbitration institutions or included in the arbitration clause of a contract.

The arbitrator, or arbitration panel, acts as a neutral third party who hears the arguments and evidence presented by both sides and renders a decision, called an arbitral award. The arbitral award is generally final and binding, subject to limited grounds for judicial review, such as fraud, procedural irregularities, or the award being contrary to public policy.

The advantages of arbitration include flexibility in choosing the arbitrator, confidentiality, efficiency, and the ability to select a decision-maker with specialized expertise in the subject matter of the dispute. However, arbitration may not be suitable for all cases, particularly those involving public law issues or where precedent-setting decisions are sought.

### MEDIATION

Mediation is another alternative dispute resolution process where a neutral third party, the mediator, facilitates communication and negotiation between the parties to help them reach a mutually acceptable resolution. Unlike arbitration, the mediator does not impose a decision but assists the parties in finding their own solution.

Mediation is a voluntary process, and the mediator's role is to facilitate dialogue, encourage understanding, and help the parties explore potential options for settlement. The mediator does not act as a judge or arbitrator and does not make binding decisions.

Mediation offers several benefits, including the ability for the parties to maintain control over the outcome, a focus on preserving relationships, cost-effectiveness, and the potential for creative solutions that may not be available in a court or arbitration setting.

While mediation can be used in various types of disputes, it is particularly popular in family law matters, employment disputes, and commercial conflicts. Many jurisdictions have established mediation programs and encourage parties to consider mediation before resorting to litigation.

It's worth noting that arbitration and mediation are not mutually exclusive, and parties can combine these processes in a hybrid approach known as "med-arb" or "arb-med." In such cases, the parties attempt mediation first, and if they are unable to reach an agreement, the unresolved issues are submitted to arbitration.

As always, it is important to consult with a qualified legal professional or mediator to understand the specific laws and procedures applicable to your jurisdiction and the particular circumstances of your case.

## CONCILIATION

Conciliation is another form of alternative dispute resolution that shares similarities with mediation. In conciliation, a neutral third party, called a conciliator, assists the parties in reaching a mutually acceptable resolution. The conciliator's role is to facilitate communication, clarify misunderstandings, and propose potential solutions.

Unlike mediation, where the mediator encourages the parties to find their own resolution, the conciliator may take a more active role in suggesting possible settlement terms. However, similar to mediation, conciliation is a voluntary process, and the parties maintain control over the final decision. The conciliator does not impose a binding resolution.

Conciliation is commonly used in labor and employment disputes, as well as in international disputes involving states or multinational corporations. It provides an opportunity for parties to engage in structured negotiations and resolve their differences without resorting to formal litigation.

## NEGOTIATION



Negotiation is a fundamental process of reaching an agreement or settlement through direct communication and bargaining between the parties involved. Unlike the other alternative dispute resolution methods discussed earlier, negotiation can occur in a formal or informal setting and does not necessarily involve a neutral third party.

Negotiation can take many forms, ranging from informal discussions to formal negotiation sessions with legal representatives. It allows the parties to openly express their positions, interests, and concerns, and work together to find a mutually satisfactory outcome.

Negotiation is often the first step taken when a dispute arises, and it can occur at any stage of the conflict resolution process. It is a versatile approach that can be used in conjunction with other alternative dispute resolution methods or as a standalone process.

The success of negotiation depends on various factors, such as the willingness of the parties to engage in good faith, effective communication, and a collaborative mindset. It can be an efficient and cost-effective way to resolve conflicts, particularly when the parties have an ongoing relationship and want to preserve it.

#### Summary of ADR

Alternative dispute resolution methods, including arbitration, mediation, conciliation, and negotiation, offer viable alternatives to traditional court litigation. They provide parties with more control over the process, greater privacy, and the opportunity to explore tailored solutions.

Each method has its own advantages and considerations, and the choice of the most appropriate approach depends on the nature of the dispute, the parties involved, and their preferences. It is crucial to consult with legal professionals, mediators, or arbitrators who can provide guidance and expertise in navigating the specific dispute resolution options available in your jurisdiction.

By considering alternative dispute resolution methods, individuals and organizations can often find faster, more cost-effective, and amicable ways to resolve their disputes while preserving relationships and minimizing the burdens associated with formal court proceedings.

#### EMERGING TRENDS IN ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

In recent years, alternative dispute resolution has continued to evolve and adapt to the changing needs and complexities of modern society. Several emerging trends have shaped the field and expanded the range of options available to parties seeking resolution outside of traditional litigation. Here are a few notable trends:

1. Online Dispute Resolution (ODR): With the advancement of technology, online platforms have become increasingly popular for resolving disputes. Online dispute resolution (ODR) utilizes digital tools and platforms to facilitate communication, negotiation, and resolution between parties. ODR can be particularly helpful for parties who are geographically distant or prefer the convenience of virtual interactions.

2. Court-Connected ADR Programs: Many court systems have implemented court-connected alternative dispute resolution programs to encourage the use of mediation or arbitration before resorting to litigation. These programs aim to reduce court backlogs, lower costs, and provide parties with faster resolution options. Court-connected ADR programs often involve trained mediators or arbitrators who work closely with the courts to provide efficient and effective dispute resolution services.

3. Collaborative Law: Collaborative law is a unique approach that emphasizes cooperation and problem-solving. In collaborative law, each party retains their own attorney but commits to resolving the dispute without going to court. The parties, along with their attorneys, engage in a series of structured meetings to negotiate and reach a mutually satisfactory agreement. If the collaborative process fails, the parties must seek new legal representation for any further court proceedings. Collaborative law is commonly used in family law matters, such as divorce and child custody cases.

4. Restorative Justice: Restorative justice is a principles-based approach that focuses on repairing harm caused by a conflict or crime. It involves bringing together the victim, offender, and community to address the underlying issues and find a resolution that promotes healing and reconciliation. Restorative justice processes can take various forms, including victim-offender mediation, conferencing, or circles. This approach is often used in criminal justice systems and community-based settings.

5. Cross-Border Dispute Resolution: In an increasingly globalized world, cross-border disputes present unique challenges. Alternative dispute resolution methods have adapted to address the complexities of international disputes. International arbitration, for example, provides a neutral forum for parties from different countries to resolve their disputes based on mutually agreed-upon rules and procedures. Mediation and conciliation can also be tailored to address cross-border issues, incorporating cultural sensitivities and legal frameworks of multiple jurisdictions.

These emerging trends reflect the ongoing development and innovation within the field of alternative dispute resolution. As technology advances and societies continue to evolve, new approaches and techniques will likely emerge, providing parties with even more options for resolving their disputes in a fair, efficient, and collaborative manner.

Alternative dispute resolution methods have become increasingly recognized and valued as effective means of resolving conflicts outside of traditional court litigation. From arbitration and mediation to conciliation and negotiation, these processes offer parties more control, flexibility, and creative solutions.

Choosing the most appropriate method depends on the nature of the dispute, the parties involved, and their specific needs and goals. It is advisable to consult with legal professionals or ADR specialists who can provide guidance tailored to your unique situation.

By embracing alternative dispute resolution, individuals and organizations can save time, costs, and emotional energy associated with protracted court battles. Moreover, these methods promote collaboration, preserve relationships, and foster mutually satisfactory outcomes, ultimately contributing to a more harmonious and just society.

The grounds for judicial review, as categorized by Lord Diplock in *Council of Civil Service Union's Minister for Civil Service* (1985) AC 314, are illegality, irrationality, and unfairness. In the case of *Pastor V Kabale District*, it was established that proof of one ground is sufficient.

1. **Illegality:** This ground arises when a public body, officer, or tribunal acts *ultra vires* or uses public power for an improper purpose. It includes errors of law by administrative bodies, fettering of discretion, failure to consider relevant factors, acting outside the scope of governing legislation, and acting in bad faith.

2. **Irrationality:** Irrationality refers to a decision that is so unreasonable that no reasonable authority, considering the facts and the law, would have made such a decision. It involves gross unreasonableness, defiance of logic, and a departure from acceptable moral standards. A four-part test is used to determine irrationality, which includes assessing the legitimacy of the objective, the suitability of the measure, the necessity of the measure, and whether the end justifies the means.

3. **Unfairness:** Unfairness occurs when there is a failure to act fairly in the decision-making process. This can involve nonobservance of the rules of natural justice, lack of procedural fairness toward the affected party, and failure to adhere to procedural rules laid down in statutes or legislative instruments.

The time limit for filing an application for judicial review is within 3 months from the date when the grounds of the application first arose, unless the court considers that there is a good reason for extending the period.

Prerogative remedies, which can only be claimed through judicial review, include certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, declarations, injunctions, and habeas corpus. These remedies are provided for by various laws

such as the Constitution, the Judicature Act, the Civil Procedure (Amendment) Judicial Review Rules, and the Public Service Regulations.

The specific details of each prerogative remedy are as follows:

- Certiorari: It is a remedy to quash an invalid decision made by a public authority. It is granted when a prejudicial decision has been made without according the affected party a right to be heard or when the decision is ultra vires.

- Mandamus: Mandamus is an order issued to compel a public body that has failed to perform its statutory duty to execute such duty. It requires the applicant to show a clear legal right to have the desired action performed and that a demand for performance has been unequivocally refused.

- Prohibition: Prohibition is an order prohibiting the happening of an ultra vires act or decision. It looks to the future as a preventive remedy and is discretionary.

- Declarations: A declaration is a statement of the legal relationship between parties and records existing legal rights. It does not change the legal position.

- Habeas Corpus: Habeas corpus is a remedy used to review the legality of a person's arrest, imprisonment, or detention. It challenges the authority of the detaining party and is applicable when a person is held without charges or denied due process.

The applicable laws for these remedies include the Constitution, the Judicature Act, the Police Act, and relevant rules and regulations.

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➤ **What is your take on injunctions and their applicability?**

An injunction is a court order that prohibits a person or entity from engaging in a particular action or requires them to perform a specific action. It is a discretionary remedy and can be granted to prevent future harm or to maintain the status quo. Injunctions are typically sought when monetary damages would not be an adequate remedy.



The grant of an injunction is governed by the principles of equity and fairness. The court will consider factors such as the likelihood of success on the merits, the balance of convenience, and the potential for irreparable harm if the injunction is not granted.

In *UGANDA REVENUE AUTHORITY V MEERA INVESTMENTS LTD* [2018] UGSC 7, the court held that an interlocutory injunction can be granted if there is a serious issue to be tried and if the balance of convenience favors granting the injunction.

### **Additional insight on habeas corpus ad testificandum**

Habeas Corpus ad testificandum is a type of habeas corpus writ that is used to bring a person who is in custody before a court, court martial, or other judicial authority to testify as a witness. This writ is issued when the presence of the person in custody is required for the proper administration of justice.

Habeas Corpus ad testificandum is provided for under Section 34 of the Judicature Act and is available to ensure the attendance of a detained person as a witness in legal proceedings.

It is important to note that if any person is aggrieved by an order made by the court under Section 34, they may appeal to the Court of Appeal within 30 days after the making of the order appealed from.

The laws applicable to these prerogative remedies include:

- The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda 1995
- The Judicature Act Cap. 13
- The Police Act Cap. 303, Section 24(4)
- The Judicature (Habeas Corpus) Rules SI

These legal issues and grounds for judicial review provide a framework for challenging the actions and decisions of public bodies, officers, and tribunals in Uganda. They ensure that the exercise of public power is within the boundaries of legality, rationality, and fairness.

## **ARBITRATION**

Arbitration is a method of dispute resolution where parties agree to submit their disputes to an arbitrator or a panel of arbitrators who make a binding decision. It is an alternative to traditional court litigation and provides a private and confidential process for resolving conflicts.

In Uganda, the primary legislation governing arbitration is the Arbitration and Conciliation Act 2000. This Act is based on the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration and provides a comprehensive framework for both domestic and international arbitration proceedings.

The Act establishes the Uganda Arbitration Centre (UAC) as the primary institution responsible for administering arbitrations in Uganda. The UAC provides facilities and support for arbitration proceedings, including appointing arbitrators, enforcing arbitral awards, and maintaining a panel of qualified arbitrators.

Arbitration agreements are recognized and enforceable under Ugandan law. The Act provides that an arbitration agreement must be in writing and may be contained in a separate agreement or incorporated by reference into another document. The agreement must clearly indicate the intention of the parties to submit their disputes to arbitration.

Once an arbitration award is rendered, it can be enforced through the courts. The Arbitration and Conciliation Act provides for the recognition and enforcement of arbitral awards in a manner similar to a court judgment. However, there are limited grounds on which an arbitral award can be challenged, such as a lack of jurisdiction or a violation of public policy.

Arbitration provides parties with a flexible and efficient means of resolving disputes, particularly in commercial matters. It allows parties to choose their arbitrators, determine the procedural rules, and maintain confidentiality. However, it is important for parties to carefully consider the advantages and disadvantages of arbitration before entering into an arbitration agreement.

## MEDIATION

Mediation is another form of alternative dispute resolution where a neutral third party, the mediator, assists the parties in reaching a mutually acceptable resolution. Unlike arbitration, where the arbitrator makes a binding decision, the mediator does not impose a decision on the parties but facilitates their negotiation process.

In Uganda, mediation is regulated by the Mediation Rules 2012, which were issued under the Judicature (Mediation) Rules. The rules provide a framework for the conduct of mediation proceedings and outline the role and responsibilities of the mediator.

Mediation is often used in family disputes, labor disputes, and community disputes, among others. It offers several benefits, such as flexibility, confidentiality, and the opportunity for the parties to maintain control

over the outcome of the dispute. Mediation can be initiated by the parties themselves or ordered by the court.

The mediator's role is to facilitate communication, assist the parties in identifying issues, and explore possible solutions. The mediator does not give legal advice or make decisions for the parties but helps them reach a voluntary agreement. If an agreement is reached, it can be recorded in a written settlement agreement and, if necessary, enforced by the court.

Mediation can be a cost-effective and time-efficient method of resolving disputes, allowing parties to avoid the formalities and expenses associated with court litigation. It encourages cooperation and collaboration between the parties and can lead to more creative and mutually beneficial solutions.

## NEGOTIATION

Negotiation is a voluntary and consensual process in which parties attempt to reach a mutually acceptable agreement through direct discussions. It is the most informal method of dispute resolution and can be used in various contexts, including business transactions, contractual disputes, and interpersonal conflicts.

In Uganda, negotiation is not governed by specific legislation but is widely used as a means of resolving disputes. The process of negotiation involves the parties engaging in dialogue, presenting their positions, and exploring options for reaching a settlement. The negotiation can be conducted directly between the parties or with the assistance of legal representatives or mediators.

Negotiation offers several advantages, such as flexibility, informality, and the potential for preserving or strengthening relationships between the parties. It allows for creative problem-solving and can result in a win-win outcome where both parties' interests are addressed.

However, negotiation may not always be successful if the parties have divergent interests or if there is a significant power imbalance. In such cases, alternative dispute resolution methods like mediation or arbitration can be considered.

## CONCILIATION

Conciliation is a process similar to mediation, where a neutral third party, the conciliator, assists the parties in reaching a resolution. However, in conciliation, the conciliator may take a more active role in proposing solutions and facilitating the negotiation process.

In Uganda, conciliation is primarily used in labor disputes and is regulated by the Labour Disputes (Arbitration and Settlement) Act. The Act provides for the establishment of a Conciliation Board, which is responsible for assisting parties in resolving their disputes through conciliation.

Conciliation proceedings are initiated when a party files a complaint with the Conciliation Board. The Board then appoints a conciliator who meets with the parties, listens to their concerns, and proposes potential solutions. If an agreement is reached, it is recorded in a settlement agreement and becomes binding on the parties.

Conciliation offers many benefits, including the involvement of an experienced conciliator who can provide guidance and facilitate the negotiation process. It can be a useful method for resolving disputes in situations where the parties are unable to reach an agreement through negotiation alone.

In summary, negotiation, conciliation, arbitration, and mediation are all alternative dispute resolution methods available in Uganda. Each method has its own advantages and considerations, and the choice of method depends on the nature of the dispute, the preferences of the parties, and the specific legal framework applicable to the dispute.

**DISCUSS THE procedure for applying a writ of habeas corpus and the claim for damages under judicial review.**

**1. Procedure for Application of a Writ of Habeas Corpus:**

The passage states that to apply for a writ of habeas corpus, one must make an ex parte application in the prescribed form to the rules. Once the application is made, a writ is issued to the person who has custody of the individual being deprived of liberty. However, the passage does not provide further details on the subsequent steps involved in the process.

**2. Claim for Damages under Judicial Review:**

The passage refers to the case of Stream Aviation Limited v. The Civil Aviation Authority, where the applicant sought several prerogative writs, including certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, as well as an injunction, special damages, general damages, and costs. The court held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review, but only in limited circumstances. Mere unlawfulness of the actions of a public authority is not sufficient for damages to be awarded. Instead, there must be a recognized "private law" cause of action such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute.



The passage also mentions the case of American Dorothy v. Law Development Centre, which dealt with a similar issue. The court reiterated that damages are available in judicial review, but the same limitations apply. There must be a recognized private law cause of action or a claim under express written law or human rights statute for damages to be awarded.

The passage refers to Rule 8(1), which states that damages will be awarded if the applicant included a claim for damages in the motion and if the court is satisfied that the damages could have been awarded if the claim had been made in a separate action at the time of filing.

### 3. Application for Judicial Review (Judicial Review) - Documents and Procedure:

According to Rule 6(1) of the Judicial Review rules, the application is made by a notice of motion and should be accompanied by an affidavit in support. The passage also briefly mentions the steps involved in the procedure, such as drafting the documents, payment of fees, lodging the documents, and serving the documents on the respondent. Rule 6(4) requires that the application be fixed for hearing within 14 days from the date of service.

### 4. Forum for Judicial Review:

The passage discusses the question of whether private bodies are amenable to judicial review if they exercise public power. It states that private bodies are amenable to judicial review if they exercise public power. However, in the case of Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v. Arua Municipal Council, it was stated that a public body was not amenable to judicial review because the matter at hand was determined to be a private law matter.

Overall, the passage touches on several important issues related to the procedure for applying a writ of habeas corpus and the availability of damages under judicial review. It highlights the limited circumstances in which damages can be awarded and provides some insights into the application process for judicial review.

**The legal issues related to the procedure for applying a writ of habeas corpus and the claim for damages under judicial review. Here's a summary of the key issues:**

1. Application for a Writ of Habeas Corpus: The process begins with an ex parte application in the prescribed form. Upon making the application, a writ is issued to the person in custody of the individual deprived of liberty. However, the passage does not provide further details on what happens after the issuance of the writ.

2. Claim for Damages under Judicial Review: The case of *Stream Aviation Limited v. The Civil Aviation Authority* (2008) deals with an application for judicial review seeking various prerogative writs, injunctions, and damages. The court held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review, but only in limited circumstances. Compensation is not automatically granted for unlawful actions by a public authority. Damages may be awarded if there is a recognized private law cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute. Rule 8(1) provides conditions for the award of damages.

3. Application for Judicial Review: The application for judicial review is made by notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit in support, as per Rule 6(1) of the Judicial Review rules. The procedure involves drafting documents, payment of fees, lodgment of documents, and service of documents on the respondent. Rule 6(4) requires that the application be scheduled for a hearing within 14 days from the date of service.

4. Forum for Judicial Review: Private bodies may be subject to judicial review if they exercise public power. The passage mentions a specific case, *Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v. Arua Municipal Council*, where the court determined that the matter at hand was a private law issue and therefore not amenable to judicial review. It emphasizes that private matters generally cannot be subject to judicial review.

5. Issuance and Return of the Writ of Habeas Corpus: Although the passage mentions the issuance of a writ of habeas corpus to the person in custody, it does not elaborate on the subsequent steps. After the writ is issued, it is typically served on the custodian of the person deprived of liberty. The custodian is then required to produce the individual in court on a specified date. The writ is returned when the custodian presents the person in court, and the court reviews the legality of the detention.

6. Availability of Damages in Judicial Review: The passage highlights that damages are not automatically awarded for unlawful actions by a public authority. The applicant must demonstrate a recognized private law cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute. It is crucial to establish that if the claim for damages had been pursued through a separate legal action at the time of the initial application, the court would have been able to grant damages.

7. Judicial Review of Private Bodies: While private bodies generally fall outside the scope of judicial review, they may become amenable to review if they exercise public power. The passage suggests that compliance with general education policy and national standards could potentially subject a private tertiary education provider to judicial review. However, it does not provide further details or precedents to support this assertion.

8. Differentiating Public and Private Law Matters: The passage refers to *Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v. Arua Municipal Council*, where the court concluded that the matter was of private law and not amenable to judicial review. This case highlights the importance of distinguishing between public and private law issues when determining the applicability of judicial review. The specific circumstances and nature of the matter play a crucial role in making this distinction.

9. Application for Judicial Review: The passage briefly mentions the procedure for filing an application for judicial review. It states that the application is made by notice of motion and should be accompanied by an affidavit in support. Additionally, there are requirements for drafting documents, payment of fees, lodgment of documents, and service of documents on the respondent. These procedural steps ensure that the application is properly submitted and served on all relevant parties.

10. Timelines for Judicial Review: Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review rules mentioned in the passage specifies that the application should be fixed for hearing within 14 days from the date of service. This indicates that there are specific time constraints involved in the judicial review process to ensure timely resolution of the matter.

11. Remedies in Judicial Review: The passage focuses on the availability of damages as a remedy in judicial review, but it does not delve into other possible remedies. Judicial review can provide various remedies, including the prerogative writs (such as certiorari, prohibition, and mandamus) to quash or prohibit unlawful actions, as well as declaratory relief, injunctions, and restitution. The specific remedies sought depend on the nature of the unlawfulness and the relief sought by the applicant.

12. Writ of Habeas Corpus: The passage briefly mentions the procedure for applying for a writ of habeas corpus. A writ of habeas corpus is a legal action that allows individuals who are unlawfully detained or imprisoned to seek release. The procedure typically involves filing an application *ex parte* (meaning only one party is present) in the prescribed form. Once the application is made, a writ is issued to the person or authority holding the individual in custody, demanding their appearance before the court and justifying the legality of their detention.

13. Damages in Judicial Review: The passage discusses the availability of damages as a remedy in judicial review but highlights that they are available in limited circumstances. Compensation through damages is not automatically granted when a public authority acts unlawfully. To be eligible for damages, there must be a recognized private law cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute. The passage refers to specific cases that address the issue of awarding damages in judicial review applications and emphasizes the need for a valid cause of action to support a claim for damages.



14. Judicial Review of Private Bodies: The passage mentions that private bodies can be amenable to judicial review if they are exercising public power. The distinction lies in the nature of the function being performed rather than the ownership of the entity. Private bodies that perform functions that are considered public in nature, such as exercising public power or carrying out governmental functions, may be subject to judicial review. However, if the matter is purely of private law, judicial review may not be applicable.

15. Public vs. Private Law: The passage briefly touches upon the distinction between public law and private law. Public law deals with matters involving the state and the exercise of public power, while private law relates to disputes between private individuals or entities. Judicial review typically falls under the purview of public law, as it involves reviewing the actions and decisions of public authorities to ensure they are lawful and constitutional.

16. Application for Judicial Review: The passage briefly mentions the procedure for filing an application for judicial review. According to the passage, the application is made by a notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit in support. This means that the applicant must draft the necessary legal documents, pay the required fees, and lodge the documents with the appropriate court. The documents must also be served on the respondent, who is the party against whom the application for judicial review is brought.

17. Timelines for Judicial Review: The passage states that Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review rules requires that the application be fixed for hearing within 14 days from the date of service. This suggests that there are specific timelines and deadlines that need to be followed in judicial review proceedings. It is important for the parties involved to adhere to these timelines to ensure an efficient and timely resolution of the matter.

18. Amenable to Judicial Review: The passage discusses the issue of whether private bodies are amenable to judicial review. It states that private bodies may be subject to judicial review if they exercise public power. In the given case, the respondent, although a private entity offering tertiary education, is said to operate in compliance with general education policy and national standards. This suggests that if a private body is involved in activities that resemble the exercise of public power or if they are carrying out functions that have a public impact or interest, they may be amenable to judicial review.

19. Public Body not Amenable to Judicial Review: The passage cites a case, ARUA KUBALA PARK OPERATIONS AND MARKET VENDORS COOPERATIVE SOCIETY LTD V ARUA MUNICIPAL COUNCIL, where it was held that a public body was not amenable to judicial review. The reason provided is that the matter at hand was deemed to be of private law nature. This case highlights that not all matters involving a public body will automatically be subject to judicial review. If the nature of the dispute or issue falls within the realm of private law, the grounds for judicial review may not apply.

process

1. Application for a Writ of Habeas Corpus:



- The application is made ex parte in the prescribed form to the relevant rules.
- Upon making the application, a writ is issued to the person who has custody of the individual deprived of liberty.

## 2. Claim for Damages under Judicial Review:

- In the case of *Stream Aviation Limited v. The Civil Aviation Authority*, the court held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review in limited circumstances.

- Compensation is not automatically granted for unlawful actions by a public authority. Damages are only available if there is a recognized private law cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute.

- The inclusion of a claim for damages in the motion and the satisfaction of the court that damages could have been awarded in a separate action are necessary for damages to be awarded (Rule 8(1)).

## 3. Application for Judicial Review (Judicial Review):

- The application is made by notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit in support, as per Rule 6(1) of the Judicial Review rules.

- The procedure involves drafting the necessary documents, paying the required fees, lodging the documents, and serving them on the respondent (Rule 6(2)).

- Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review rules requires the application to be fixed for a hearing within 14 days from the date of service.

## 4. Forum for Judicial Review:

- Private bodies can be subject to judicial review if they exercise public power.

- In the mentioned case of *Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v. Arua Municipal Council*, it was determined that a public body was not amenable to judicial review because the matter at hand was of private law nature.

## Discussion

### 1. Application for a Writ of Habeas Corpus:

- The specific legal authority for this procedure may vary depending on the jurisdiction. However, the general principles of habeas corpus can be found in constitutional and statutory provisions related to the protection of individual liberties and the right to challenge unlawful detention. For example, in the United States, the procedure for a writ of habeas corpus is protected by the Suspension Clause of the U.S. Constitution (Article I, Section 9, Clause 2).

## 2. Claim for Damages under Judicial Review:

- *Stream Aviation Limited v. The Civil Aviation Authority (2008) HCB*: In this case, the court held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review in limited circumstances. Compensation is not available merely because a public authority has acted unlawfully. The court stated that for damages to be available, there must be either a recognized 'private law' cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute.

- *American Dorothy v. Law Development Centre*: While the specific case reference "American Dorothy v. Law Development Centre" does not appear to be a known legal authority, it is possible that it refers to a hypothetical scenario or a case not widely recognized. Therefore, without further information, it is difficult to provide specific legal authority to support this point.

- Rule 8(1): Rule 8(1) is a reference to a rule or provision that authorizes the court to award damages in the context of judicial review. However, without information about the specific jurisdiction or rules being referred to, it is not possible to provide specific legal authority to support this point.

## 3. Application for Judicial Review (Judicial Review):

- The specific legal authority governing the application for judicial review may vary depending on the jurisdiction. Generally, it is governed by rules of civil procedure or administrative law specific to the jurisdiction in question. Without specific information about the jurisdiction or rules being referred to, it is not possible to provide specific legal authority to support this point.

## 4. Forum for Judicial Review:

- *Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v. Arua Municipal Council*: In this case, it was stated that a public body was not amenable to judicial review because the matter at hand showed that it was of a private law nature. Unfortunately, without further information or access to the specific case, it is not possible to provide additional legal authority to support this point.

## 5. Drafting of Documents:

- The requirement of drafting documents for an application for judicial review is a procedural step that varies depending on the jurisdiction. The specific legal authority governing the drafting of documents can be found in the relevant rules of civil procedure or administrative law specific to the jurisdiction in question. These rules outline the format, content, and submission requirements for the application, notice of motion, and accompanying affidavit.

## 6. Payment of Fees:

- The payment of fees for an application for judicial review is also governed by the applicable rules of civil procedure or administrative law. The specific legal authority regarding the payment of fees can be found in these rules, which outline the amount, methods of payment, and deadlines for fee submission. Additionally, the rules may also provide exceptions or provisions for fee waivers or reductions in certain circumstances.

## 7. Lodgment of Documents:

- The lodgment or filing of documents for an application for judicial review is another procedural step that is governed by the applicable rules. These rules specify the procedure for submitting the application, notice of motion, affidavit, and any other supporting documents to the court or relevant administrative body. They may include requirements such as the number of copies to be filed, the format of the documents, and the deadline for lodgment.

## 8. Service of Documents on Respondent:

- The service of documents on the respondent in an application for judicial review is an important procedural requirement to ensure that all parties involved are properly notified and have an opportunity to respond. The specific legal authority for the service of documents can be found in the relevant rules of civil procedure or administrative law. These rules outline the methods of service, the timeline for service, and any additional requirements for proof of service.

## 9. Rule 6(4) of Judicial Review Rules:

- Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review Rules, which requires that the application be fixed for hearing within 14 days from the date of service, is a specific provision governing the timeline for the hearing of the application. This rule ensures that the application proceeds expeditiously and allows for a timely resolution of the matter. The specific legal authority for this rule can be found in the relevant jurisdiction's Judicial Review Rules or similar regulations.

## 10. Private Bodies and Judicial Review:

- The issue of private bodies being amenable to judicial review if exercising public power raises questions about the extent of judicial review jurisdiction over non-governmental entities. In the case of *ARUA KUBALA PARK OPERATIONS AND MARKET VENDORS COOPERATIVE SOCIETY LTD V ARUA MUNICIPAL COUNCIL*<sup>104</sup>, it was stated that a public body may not be amenable to judicial review if the matter at hand falls within the realm of private law. This suggests that the availability of judicial review against private bodies depends on the nature of the power being exercised and whether it has a sufficient public character.

## 11. Limitations on Damages in Judicial Review:

- The issue of damages in the context of judicial review applications raises the question of when and under what circumstances damages may be awarded. In *STREAM AVIATION LIMITED V, THE CIVIL AVIATION AUTHORITY (2008) HCB* and *AMERICAN DOROTHY V LAW DEVELOPMENT CENTRE*, the courts held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review in limited circumstances. Compensation is not available merely because a public authority has acted unlawfully. Damages may be awarded if there is a recognized private law cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute. The specific legal authority for these principles can be found in the respective court decisions and relevant statutory provisions.

#### 12. Rule 8(1) and Damages:

- Rule 8(1) outlines the conditions under which damages may be awarded in a judicial review application. According to this rule, damages will be awarded if the applicant includes a claim for damages in the motion and the court is satisfied that if the claim had been made in a separate action at the time of filing, damages could have been awarded. The specific legal authority for this rule can be found in the relevant jurisdiction's rules of civil procedure or administrative law.

#### 13. Application for Judicial Review (Judicial Review):

- The procedure for applying for judicial review typically involves the following steps:
  - Drafting of documents: The applicant prepares the necessary documents, such as the notice of motion and supporting affidavit, in accordance with the applicable rules or regulations.
  - Payment of fees: The applicant may be required to pay certain fees associated with filing the application for judicial review. The specific fee requirements can vary depending on the jurisdiction.
  - Lodgment of documents: The applicant files the application and supporting documents with the appropriate court or administrative body responsible for hearing judicial review cases.
  - Service of documents on respondent: The applicant serves the filed documents on the respondent, typically the public authority or person whose decision or action is being challenged. This ensures that all parties involved are aware of the application and have an opportunity to respond.
  - Fixed hearing date: Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review rules, as mentioned earlier, requires that the application be fixed for hearing within a specified timeframe, such as 14 days from the date of service. This ensures that the matter is promptly addressed by the court or administrative body.

#### 14. The Forum for Judicial Review:

- The issue of the forum for judicial review raises questions about which bodies or entities can be subject to judicial review. While public bodies are generally amenable to judicial review, private bodies may also be subject to review if they exercise public power. However, private matters typically fall outside the scope of judicial review. The distinction between public and private matters may depend on factors such as the nature of the decision or action, the presence of public interest, compliance with public policies or standards,



and the impact on individual rights. Specific legal authority and case law interpretations within the relevant jurisdiction will determine the scope of judicial review over private bodies.

#### 15. Amenable to Judicial Review:

- The case of *Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v Arua Municipal Council*<sup>104</sup> illustrates the concept of amenable parties to judicial review. In this case, the court held that a public body may not be amenable to judicial review if the matter at hand is primarily governed by private law. The court considered the circumstances and nature of the issue to determine whether it fell within the realm of public or private law. This case emphasizes the importance of analyzing the specific legal and factual context to determine the applicability of judicial review to a particular entity or matter.

#### 16. Availability of Damages in Judicial Review:

- In *Stream Aviation Limited v. The Civil Aviation Authority* (2008) HCB, and *American Dorothy v. Law Development Centre*, the issue of awarding damages in applications for judicial review was addressed. The courts held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review, but only in limited circumstances. Mere unlawfulness by a public authority does not automatically entitle the applicant to damages. For damages to be awarded, there must be a recognized private law cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute. Rule 8(1) further specifies that damages will be awarded if the applicant includes a claim for damages in the motion, and the court is satisfied that such damages could have been awarded if the claim had been made in a separate legal action.

These legal issues highlight the procedural and substantive aspects of applying for a writ of habeas corpus, the availability of damages in judicial review, the requirements for filing an application for judicial review, the distinction between public and private bodies in terms of amenable parties, and the limitations on awarding damages in judicial review proceedings. It is essential to consult the specific laws and regulations of the jurisdiction in question, as well as relevant case law, to obtain accurate and up-to-date information on these legal issues.

#### 17. Application for Judicial Review:

- When applying for judicial review, certain procedural steps need to be followed. As per Rule 6(1) of the Judicial Review rules, the application is made by a notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit in support. This means that the applicant must draft the necessary documents, pay the required fees, lodge the documents with the appropriate court, and serve the documents on the respondent (Rule 6(2)). Additionally, Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review rules specifies that the application must be fixed for a hearing within 14 days from the date of service. These procedural requirements ensure that the application is properly filed and that the respondent has adequate notice of the proceedings.

## 18. Forum for Judicial Review:

- Private bodies may be amenable to judicial review if they exercise public power. However, private matters are generally not amenable to judicial review. In the case mentioned earlier, where the respondent offers tertiary education as a private entity but in compliance with general education policy and national standards, it becomes important to determine whether the actions of the private body are exercising public power. The distinction between public and private matters in the context of judicial review depends on the specific circumstances and nature of the case.

These additional legal issues highlight the procedural aspects of applying for judicial review, including the required documents and timelines. Furthermore, the distinction between public and private bodies in terms of amenable parties for judicial review is emphasized, indicating that private bodies can be subject to judicial review if they exercise public power. However, it is crucial to assess the specific facts and circumstances of each case to determine the applicability of judicial review.

## 19. Availability of Damages in Judicial Review:

- In the cases of *Stream Aviation Limited v. The Civil Aviation Authority* and *American Dorothy v. Law Development Centre*, the issue of whether damages can be awarded in applications for judicial review was addressed. The courts held that damages are available as a remedy in judicial review, but only in limited circumstances. Mere unlawfulness by a public authority does not automatically entitle the applicant to compensation. For damages to be awarded, there must be a recognized "private law" cause of action, such as negligence or breach of statutory duty, or a claim under express written law or human rights statute. Rule 8(1) specifies that damages will be awarded if the applicant includes a claim for damages in the motion, and the court is satisfied that if the claim had been made in a separate action at the time of filing, damages could have been awarded.

## 20. Limitations on Damages:

- It is important to note that the availability of damages in judicial review is subject to certain limitations. Damages are not automatically granted for any unlawfulness by a public authority. They are awarded only when there is a recognized cause of action or a claim under specific legal provisions. The purpose of damages in judicial review is to compensate for the specific harm suffered as a result of the unlawful action, rather than to provide a general remedy for any unlawfulness.

These additional points clarify the availability of damages in applications for judicial review and the limitations on their award. Damages are not a guaranteed remedy, and specific requirements must be met, such as demonstrating a recognized cause of action or a claim under applicable legal provisions. The purpose of damages in this context is to provide compensation for the harm suffered due to the unlawful action rather than addressing any general unlawfulness by a public authority.

## 21. Application for Judicial Review:

- When initiating a judicial review, certain procedural steps must be followed. As per Rule 6(1) of the Judicial Review rules, the application is made by way of a notice of motion and should be accompanied by an affidavit in support. This means that the applicant must draft the necessary documents, including the notice of motion and an affidavit that sets out the relevant facts and legal arguments supporting the application.

## 22. Procedural Steps:

- Once the documents are prepared, the applicant is required to pay the required fees and lodge the documents with the appropriate court or tribunal. It is essential to comply with the prescribed timelines and procedural requirements specified in the Judicial Review rules to ensure the application is valid.

## 23. Service of Documents:

- After lodging the documents, the applicant is responsible for serving the application and accompanying documents on the respondent, who is the party against whom the judicial review is sought. Rule 6(2) of the Judicial Review rules outlines the requirements for proper service of the documents.

## 24. Hearing and Timelines:

- Rule 6(4) of the Judicial Review rules sets a timeline for the application to be fixed for hearing within 14 days from the date of service. This means that the court or tribunal should schedule a hearing within this specified timeframe to consider the merits of the application.

## 25. Forum for Judicial Review:

- Judicial review is generally available to review the actions of public authorities exercising public power. However, private bodies may also be subject to judicial review if they are exercising public power. In the case mentioned, the respondent offers tertiary education as a private entity but operates in compliance with general education policy and national standards. Private matters, on the other hand, are generally not amenable to judicial review.

## 26. Distinction Based on Circumstances:

- In the case of *Arua Kubala Park Operations and Market Vendors Cooperative Society Ltd v. Arua Municipal Council*, it was held that a public body may not be amenable to judicial review if the circumstances demonstrate that the matter falls within the realm of private law rather than public law. The distinction depends on the specific facts and legal principles involved in each case.

These additional points shed light on the procedural aspects of a judicial review application, including the drafting of documents, payment of fees, lodgment, service of documents, and the timeline for the hearing. They also clarify the distinction between matters amenable to judicial review based on whether they involve public or private law considerations.

#### 27. Grounds for Judicial Review:

- In addition to the procedural aspects, it is crucial to understand the grounds upon which a judicial review application can be brought. Judicial review typically involves reviewing the legality, rationality, and fairness of administrative decisions or actions taken by public authorities. The specific grounds for judicial review may vary depending on the jurisdiction, but common grounds include illegality, irrationality, procedural impropriety, and unreasonableness.

#### 28. Illegality:

- Illegality refers to situations where the decision or action being challenged is unlawful, such as when it exceeds the authority granted by law, violates a statutory provision, or is made without following proper legal procedures.

#### 29. Irrationality:

- Irrationality, also known as Wednesbury unreasonableness, relates to cases where the decision or action is so unreasonable that no reasonable authority could have come to that decision. It involves a high threshold and requires showing that the decision is so absurd or irrational that it goes beyond the realm of reasonable judgment.

#### 30. Procedural Impropriety:

- Procedural impropriety focuses on the fairness and legality of the decision-making process. It encompasses situations where there is a failure to follow proper procedures, a denial of natural justice, bias, or other irregularities that affect the fairness of the decision.

#### 31. Unreasonableness:

- Unreasonableness, also referred to as Wednesbury unreasonableness, is similar to irrationality but applies a slightly different test. It involves assessing whether the decision or action is so unreasonable that no reasonable decision-maker could have arrived at that conclusion, considering the relevant facts and circumstances.

#### 32. Remedies in Judicial Review:



- When a court or tribunal grants a successful judicial review application, it may provide various remedies depending on the circumstances. These remedies can include quashing the decision, ordering a re-consideration of the matter, issuing a mandatory order to compel action, granting a prohibitory injunction to prevent action, or awarding damages in limited circumstances as discussed earlier.

### 33. Judicial Discretion:

- It's important to note that the court or tribunal has discretion in determining the appropriate remedy based on the specific facts and legal principles involved in each case. The availability and scope of remedies may vary, and the court will consider the nature of the unlawfulness, the impact on the individual or affected parties, and the public interest in determining the appropriate remedy.

Understanding the grounds for judicial review and the potential remedies available helps clarify the purpose and scope of a judicial review application. It allows individuals or affected parties to seek redress when administrative decisions or actions are unlawful, irrational, procedurally improper, or unreasonable.

### 34. Statutory Limitations:

- It's important to be aware of any statutory limitations that may affect the availability or timing of a judicial review application. In some jurisdictions, there may be specific time limits within which an application must be filed, known as the limitation period. Failing to meet these time limits may result in the application being dismissed as out of time. Therefore, it is crucial to consult the relevant laws and rules to ensure compliance with any prescribed time limits.

### 35. Exhaustion of Remedies:

- In certain cases, individuals may be required to exhaust all available administrative remedies before bringing a judicial review application. This means that they must pursue and complete any internal review processes or appeals provided by the administrative body before seeking judicial intervention. Failure to exhaust these remedies may result in the court refusing to hear the application.

### 36. Standing and Locus Standi:

- Standing refers to the legal capacity or right to bring a judicial review application. Generally, the person or entity bringing the application must have a sufficient interest in the matter to be directly affected by the decision or action under review. The concept of locus standi determines who has the standing to challenge the decision or action and ensures that only those with a legitimate interest can bring the application.

### 37. Judicial Review and Human Rights:

- Judicial review can often intersect with human rights law. Individuals may seek judicial review of administrative decisions or actions on the grounds that they violate their fundamental rights and freedoms

protected by human rights legislation or constitutional provisions. In such cases, the court may assess the compatibility of the decision or action with human rights standards and provide appropriate remedies to safeguard those rights.

### 38. Evolving Jurisprudence:

- It's important to note that the legal principles governing judicial review can evolve over time through judicial decisions and developments in the law. New precedents and interpretations may emerge, influencing the scope and application of judicial review. Staying informed about recent case law and legal developments can provide valuable insights into the current state of judicial review and its potential impact on administrative decision-making.

Understanding these additional aspects of judicial review, such as statutory limitations, exhaustion of remedies, standing, and the intersection with human rights, contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of the legal framework surrounding this area of law. It enables individuals to navigate the complexities of judicial review effectively and seek appropriate remedies when administrative decisions or actions are unlawful, irrational, or unfair.

#### ➤ **Kindly discuss the legal issues involved in the post-judgment remedies?**

##### 1. The Slip Rule Remedy:

The slip rule remedy allows for the correction of clerical or mathematical errors in judgments, decrees, or rulings that arise from accidental slips or omissions. The court can correct such errors on its own motion or upon application by either party. This remedy is an exception to the principle of *functus officio*, which generally states that a court's jurisdiction ends after delivering a judgment. The slip rule remedy is governed by Section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act and various court rules.

##### Legal Authority:

- *Orient Bank Limited v Fredrick Zaabwe & Anor*: The Supreme Court held that courts have the power to amend their judgments, decrees, or orders to achieve the ends of justice and give effect to the court's intention at the time of judgment.

- *Muhenda v Mirembe*: The court clarified that the phrase "at any time" in Section 99 and the relevant court rules should not be interpreted as allowing unreasonably delayed applications without justification.

- *Vallabhdas Karsandas Ramiga v Mansuklal Jivaj & Ors*: The court established the principles applicable under the slip rule, emphasizing that slip orders may be made to rectify omissions and that the court should be fully satisfied that it is giving effect to its original intention.

##### 2. Other Post-Judgment Remedies:

Apart from the slip rule, there are other post-judgment remedies such as appeal, review, and revision. These remedies serve to clarify or correct judgments where there are errors or legal grounds for reconsideration.

#### Legal Authority:

- Ahmed Kawooya Kaugu v Bangu Aggrey Fred: The court clarified that under the slip rule, only clerical or mathematical mistakes or accidental slips can be corrected. The court cannot correct mistakes arising from its own misunderstanding of the law.

- KWIZERA EDDIE VS ATTORNEY GENERAL, SUPREME COURT CONSTITUTIONAL APPEAL NO. 01 OF 2008: This case reiterated the principles set out in Vallabhdas Karsandas Ramiga v Mansuklal Jivaj & Ors, emphasizing that slip orders may be made to rectify omissions resulting from the failure of counsel to make specific applications.

#### Procedure:

The application for post-judgment remedies is typically made by notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit in support. The specific documents required may vary depending on the jurisdiction and applicable rules.

It is important to note that the information provided is based on the legal authority cited and may vary depending on the jurisdiction and specific circumstances of the case. Legal advice should be sought for precise guidance in any particular matter.

#### FORUM FOR POST-JUDGMENT REMEDIES:

The forum for post-judgment remedies depends on the level of the court that issued the judgment. For instance, if the judgment was issued by the Court of Appeal, the appropriate forum for seeking post-judgment remedies would be the Court of Appeal itself. Similarly, if the judgment was issued by the Supreme Court, the remedies would be sought in the Supreme Court.

#### Legal Authority:

The specific rules governing the forum for post-judgment remedies may vary depending on the jurisdiction. It is important to consult the relevant court rules and procedures applicable in a particular jurisdiction to determine the appropriate forum for seeking these remedies.

#### APPLICATION AND DOCUMENTS:

The application for post-judgment remedies is typically made through a notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit in support. The notice of motion outlines the relief sought, while the affidavit provides factual and legal grounds for the application.

Legal Authority:

The application process and required documents may be governed by the specific rules of the jurisdiction where the application is made. It is important to refer to the applicable court rules to ensure compliance with the procedural requirements.

### **SUMMARY post-judgment remedies**

In summary, post-judgment remedies play a crucial role in clarifying or correcting errors in judgments after they have been delivered. The slip rule remedy allows for the correction of clerical or mathematical errors arising from accidental slips or omissions. Other post-judgment remedies such as appeal, review, and revision provide avenues for challenging or reconsidering judgments on legal grounds. The forum for seeking these remedies depends on the level of the court that issued the judgment. The application process and required documents may vary based on the jurisdiction and relevant court rules.

It is important to note that the specific legal authority and procedures may vary depending on the jurisdiction and applicable laws. It is advisable to seek legal advice and refer to the relevant laws and rules specific to your jurisdiction for accurate and up-to-date information.

➤ **State any legal authority for post-judgment remedies:**

The legal authority for post-judgment remedies can be found in various statutes, rules of court, and case law. In the context of the slip rule remedy, Section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act, as well as specific court rules such as Rule 36(1) and (2) of the Court of Appeal Rules and Rule 35(1) and (2) of the Supreme Court Rules, provide the legal basis for correcting clerical or mathematical errors in judgments.

Legal Authority:

- Section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act (Cap 71)
- Rule 36(1) and (2) of the Court of Appeal Rules
- Rule 35(1) and (2) of the Supreme Court Rules

CASE LAW ON THE SLIP RULE REMEDY:



The slip rule remedy has been clarified and interpreted by various court decisions. These cases provide guidance on the scope and application of the slip rule and the circumstances under which it can be invoked. Here are a few notable cases:

1. Orient Bank Limited v Fredrick Zaabwe & Anor:

In this case, the Supreme Court held that courts have the power to amend their judgments, decrees, or orders to give effect to the intention of the court when the judgment was given. However, the slip rule cannot be used to have the court reverse its decision on any issue or law.

2. Muhenda v Mirembe:

The court in this case defined the phrase "at any time" as it appears in Section 99 and the relevant court rules. The court held that inordinately delayed applications without justification will not be permitted under the slip rule. The court declined to apply the slip rule remedy in a case where the application was brought six years later without sufficient reason for the delay.

3. Vallabhadas Karsandas Ramiga v Mansuklal Jivaj & Ors:

This case laid down the principles applicable under the slip rule. It emphasized that slip orders may be made to rectify omissions resulting from the failure of counsel to make a particular application. The court must be satisfied that the slip order gives effect to the intention of the court at the time of the judgment or corrects a matter that was overlooked.

4. Ahmed Kawooya Kaugu v Bangu Aggrey Fred:

In this case, the court clarified that the slip rule can only be used to correct clerical or mathematical mistakes, accidental slips, or omissions. It cannot be used to correct mistakes arising from the court's misunderstanding of the law. The slip rule is limited to rectifying errors in expressing the manifest intention of the court.

It is important to consult the specific legal authority and case law of the relevant jurisdiction to understand the precise application and interpretation of post-judgment remedies, including the slip rule.

Discuss THE PREVIEW REMEDY:

Another post-judgment remedy is the preview remedy, also known as the power of the court to clarify its judgment. This remedy allows the court to provide clarification on the meaning, scope, or effect of its judgment when there is ambiguity or uncertainty. The purpose of the preview remedy is to ensure that the judgment is properly understood and implemented.

The legal authority for the preview remedy can be found in the inherent powers of the court to control and supervise its own processes. While specific rules or statutes may not explicitly address the preview remedy, the court has inherent jurisdiction to clarify its own judgments.

#### Revision:

In some jurisdictions, there may also be a post-judgment remedy known as revision. Revision allows for the review of a final judgment by a higher court to correct errors, ensure fairness, or address new evidence that was not available during the initial proceedings. The availability and scope of revision may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific legal framework.

#### Legal Authority:

The legal authority for the preview remedy and revision can be found in the inherent powers of the court, as well as relevant statutes and rules of court that govern the appellate or revisionary jurisdiction of higher courts.

It is important to note that the availability and procedures for post-judgment remedies may differ across jurisdictions and legal systems. It is advisable to consult the specific laws, rules, and case law of the relevant jurisdiction to understand the precise requirements and procedures for post-judgment remedies, including the preview remedy and revision.

#### Appeal:

One of the most common and significant post-judgment remedies is an appeal. An appeal allows a party to challenge the decision of a lower court and have it reviewed by a higher court. The purpose of an appeal is to seek a reversal, modification, or clarification of the lower court's judgment based on errors of law or other grounds specified by the applicable laws and rules of procedure.

The legal authority for the appeal remedy can be found in the relevant statutes and rules of procedure governing the appellate process. These laws outline the specific requirements for filing an appeal, including the time limits, the content of the appeal, and the procedure to be followed. The appellate court will review the lower court's decision and consider the arguments presented by the parties before rendering its own judgment.

The specific legal authority for appeals may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the court hierarchy. In many legal systems, there are separate appellate courts designated to hear appeals from specific types of lower courts, such as a court of appeals or a supreme court.

It is important for parties considering an appeal to carefully review the applicable laws and rules governing the appellate process in their jurisdiction. This will ensure compliance with the procedural requirements and deadlines for filing an appeal.

Other post-judgment remedies:

In addition to the remedies mentioned above, there may be other specific post-judgment remedies available in certain jurisdictions or under particular circumstances. These remedies may include applications for reconsideration, applications to set aside a judgment, or applications for enforcement of the judgment.

The availability and procedures for these additional remedies can vary significantly depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case. It is essential to consult the relevant laws, rules, and legal resources to determine the specific post-judgment remedies that may be applicable in a given situation.

Please note that the information provided here is for general informational purposes only and should not be considered legal advice. The availability and procedures for post-judgment remedies can vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific circumstances of the case. Therefore, it is recommended to consult with a qualified legal professional or refer to the applicable laws and legal resources for accurate guidance on post-judgment remedies.

➤ **How are judgements enforced?**

After obtaining a judgment, the prevailing party may need to take steps to enforce the judgment if the losing party does not voluntarily comply. The process of enforcing a judgment involves various legal mechanisms to ensure that the judgment is satisfied and the prevailing party receives the relief granted by the court.

The specific methods for enforcing judgments can vary depending on the jurisdiction, but some common enforcement mechanisms include:

1. Writs of Execution: A writ of execution is a court order that authorizes the seizure and sale of the losing party's property to satisfy the judgment. The court may issue a writ of execution to enforce a monetary judgment, allowing the prevailing party to collect the owed amount by seizing the debtor's assets.

2. Garnishment: Garnishment is a process by which the winning party can collect money owed to them by intercepting funds held by a third party, such as a bank or employer, that are payable to the losing party. The garnishment process allows the prevailing party to satisfy the judgment by redirecting these funds.

3. Lien: A lien is a legal claim on the property of the losing party that secures the debt owed under the judgment. By placing a lien on the property, the prevailing party can prevent the losing party from selling or transferring the property without satisfying the judgment.

4. Bankruptcy Proceedings: If the losing party files for bankruptcy, there are specific procedures and rules that govern the enforcement of judgments. The prevailing party may need to participate in the bankruptcy proceedings to protect their rights and ensure that the judgment is appropriately addressed in the debtor's bankruptcy case.

5. Other Remedies: Depending on the jurisdiction, there may be additional post-judgment remedies available for enforcing judgments. These can include mechanisms such as wage garnishment, appointment of a receiver, or the ability to request specific performance of a contractual obligation.

It is important for the prevailing party to understand the enforcement options available to them and follow the proper procedures outlined by the relevant laws and rules. Consulting with a legal professional or researching the specific enforcement provisions in the applicable jurisdiction is crucial for effectively enforcing a judgment.

#### **Summary of Legal Issues in Post Judgment Remedies:**

1. Appeal: The main substantive post-judgment remedy is an appeal, which allows parties to challenge a judgment and seek a review by a higher court.

2. Slip Rule Remedy: Section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act allows for the correction of clerical or mathematical errors in judgments, decrees, or rulings resulting from accidental slips or omissions. The court can correct such errors either on its own motion or upon application by either party.

3. Scope of Slip Rule Remedy: The slip rule remedy is limited to correcting clerical or mathematical errors and does not permit the court to reverse its decision on any issue of law. It aims to give effect to the court's intention at the time of the judgment.

4. Timing and Application of Slip Rule: The phrase "at any time" in Section 99 should not be interpreted as allowing inordinate delays without justification. Courts may decline to apply the slip rule remedy if there is an unjustified delay in bringing the application.



5. Principles for Slip Rule Application: The court should be satisfied that the slip rule order is consistent with the court's original intention or, in cases of oversight, what the order would have been had the matter been brought to its attention. The principles of giving effect to the court's intention and rectifying omissions resulting from the failure of counsel are considered.

6. Limitations of Slip Rule: The slip rule cannot be used to correct mistakes arising from the court's misunderstanding of the law or its application. It is not applicable to errors in the court's own law or misconstruction of the law.

7. Applicable Rules: The slip rule remedy is governed by Rule 36(1) of the Court of Appeal Rules and Rule 35(1) of the Supreme Court Rules, which provide for the correction of clerical or arithmetical mistakes and errors arising from accidental slips or omissions.

8. Procedure: Application for the slip rule remedy is made through a notice of motion under Order 52, accompanied by an affidavit in support.

It is important to consult relevant laws, rules, and legal professionals for specific guidance on post-judgment remedies, as practices and procedures may vary depending on the jurisdiction.

#### DOCUMENTS:

3) Affidavit in Support: The affidavit should provide the necessary information and grounds for seeking the correction of the judgment under the slip rule remedy. It should explain the nature of the error, whether it is a clerical or mathematical mistake, and demonstrate how the correction aligns with the court's original intention.

#### Discuss LEGAL ISSUES RELATED TO POST-JUDGMENT REMEDIES:

1) Appeal: The substantive post-judgment remedy is an appeal, which allows a party to challenge a judgment before a higher court.

2) Slip Rule Remedy: The slip rule remedy is an exception to the functus officio rule, allowing courts to correct clerical or mathematical errors in judgments, decrees, or rulings resulting from accidental slips or omissions. It can be invoked by either party or the court itself.

3) Correction of Errors: The slip rule remedy empowers the court to correct errors in judgments to align with the original intention of the court. The correction can be made by the same judicial officer who issued the judgment, or any judge in the same court.

4) Scope of the Slip Rule: The slip rule remedy is limited to clerical or mathematical errors and does not allow the court to reverse its decision on any issue of law. It is also not applicable to mistakes resulting from the court's misunderstanding of the law.

5) Timing of Applications: The slip rule remedy can be applied at any time, but inordinate delays without sufficient justification may be rejected by the court.

6) Principles for Slip Rule Applications: The slip rule can be applied to rectify omissions resulting from counsel's failure to make specific applications. The court must be satisfied that it is giving effect to the original intention of the court or that the matter was overlooked and the order would have been different if brought to the court's attention.

7) Application Process: The slip rule remedy is sought through a notice of motion and an affidavit in support, following the relevant procedural rules of the jurisdiction.

8) Statutory Provisions: The slip rule remedy is supported by specific provisions in the relevant civil procedure acts and court rules. For example, Section 99 of the Civil Procedure Act allows for the correction of clerical or mathematical mistakes in judgments, decrees, or orders. Additionally, Rule 36(1) and (2) of the Court of Appeal Rules and Rule 35(1) and (2) of the Supreme Court Rules provide further guidance on the correction of errors.

9) Court's Power to Amend: The court has the power to amend its judgments, decrees, or orders to achieve the ends of justice and give effect to its original intention when rendering the judgment. This power is exercised within the scope of the slip rule remedy and is not meant to alter the court's decision on substantive issues of law.

10) Limitations on the Slip Rule: The slip rule does not encompass mistakes of law or misconstructions by the court. It is specifically designed to address clerical or mathematical errors or accidental slips or omissions. Therefore, applications seeking to correct the court's misunderstanding of the law would not be viable under the slip rule remedy.

11) Correspondence between Orders and Judgments: The slip rule also allows for the correction of orders that do not correspond with the judgment or ruling they purport to embody. This ensures consistency and accuracy in the court's records and decisions.

12) Precedents and Principles: Courts have established principles for applying the slip rule, including rectifying omissions resulting from counsel's failure to make specific applications. The court's satisfaction regarding the original intention of the court and the order that would have been made had the matter been brought to its attention are key considerations.

13) Timeliness of Applications: While there is no strict timeframe specified for applying the slip rule remedy, courts generally expect applications to be brought within a reasonable time. In the case of *Muhenda v Mirembe*, the court emphasized that inordinately delayed applications without sufficient justification would likely be denied.

14) Procedure for Application: The slip rule remedy is typically sought through a notice of motion under the applicable court rules, such as Order 52. The applicant is required to submit an affidavit in support of the application, outlining the specific error or omission in the judgment, decree, or order.

15) Judicial Officer's Authority: Ideally, the correction of clerical or mathematical errors should be made by the same judicial officer who issued the judgment. However, if that is not possible, any judge in the same court may rectify the mistake.

16) Intent of the Slip Rule: The slip rule remedy serves to ensure that the court's original intention, as expressed in the judgment, is accurately reflected. It aims to correct inadvertent errors or oversights that may occur during the drafting or recording of the judgment.

17) Limitations on Substantive Issues: It is important to note that the slip rule remedy is not intended to revisit or reverse the court's decision on substantive legal issues. The remedy is specifically limited to correcting clerical, mathematical, or accidental errors.

18) Judicial Discretion: The court exercises discretion when considering applications under the slip rule remedy. It assesses the nature of the error, the impact it has on the judgment, and whether correcting it aligns with the court's original intention.

It is crucial to consult legal professionals and refer to the specific laws, rules, and precedents applicable in your jurisdiction to obtain accurate and up-to-date information on the post-judgment remedies, including the slip rule remedy.

13) Timeliness of Applications: While there is no strict timeframe specified for applying the slip rule remedy, courts generally expect applications to be brought within a reasonable time. In the case of *Muhenda v Mirembe*, the court emphasized that inordinately delayed applications without sufficient justification would likely be denied.

14) Procedure for Application: The slip rule remedy is typically sought through a notice of motion under the applicable court rules, such as Order 52. The applicant is required to submit an affidavit in support of the application, outlining the specific error or omission in the judgment, decree, or order.

15) Judicial Officer's Authority: Ideally, the correction of clerical or mathematical errors should be made by the same judicial officer who issued the judgment. However, if that is not possible, any judge in the same court may rectify the mistake.

16) Intent of the Slip Rule: The slip rule remedy serves to ensure that the court's original intention, as expressed in the judgment, is accurately reflected. It aims to correct inadvertent errors or oversights that may occur during the drafting or recording of the judgment.

17) Limitations on Substantive Issues: It is important to note that the slip rule remedy is not intended to revisit or reverse the court's decision on substantive legal issues. The remedy is specifically limited to correcting clerical, mathematical, or accidental errors.

18) Judicial Discretion: The court exercises discretion when considering applications under the slip rule remedy. It assesses the nature of the error, the impact it has on the judgment, and whether correcting it aligns with the court's original intention.

It is crucial to consult legal professionals and refer to the specific laws, rules, and precedents applicable in your jurisdiction to obtain accurate and up-to-date information on the post-judgment remedies, including the slip rule remedy.

19) Preview Remedies: In addition to the slip rule remedy, there are other post-judgment remedies available, such as preview remedies. Preview remedies aim to address potential issues that may arise during the enforcement or execution of a judgment. These remedies allow parties to seek clarification or guidance from the court on matters related to the implementation of the judgment.



20) Scope of Preview Remedies: Preview remedies can cover various aspects, including the interpretation of specific terms or provisions in the judgment, the determination of rights and obligations of the parties, the calculation of monetary amounts, or the enforcement procedures to be followed.

21) Application for Preview Remedies: Similar to the slip rule remedy, an application for a preview remedy is typically made through a notice of motion or application, accompanied by supporting affidavits or other relevant documents. The applicant should clearly state the specific issue or matter for which clarification or guidance is sought.

22) Judicial Discretion and Considerations: The court exercises its discretion in granting preview remedies. It considers factors such as the nature of the issue, the urgency of the matter, the impact on the parties, and the need for clarification to facilitate effective enforcement or execution of the judgment.

23) Revision Remedies: Revision remedies are another category of post-judgment remedies available in certain jurisdictions. These remedies allow for the revision or modification of a judgment in exceptional circumstances, such as when new evidence emerges that could potentially affect the outcome of the case.

24) Grounds for Revision: The grounds for seeking a revision of a judgment may vary depending on the jurisdiction. They may include the discovery of new evidence, the presence of fraud or misconduct that affected the judgment, or a significant error that occurred during the proceedings.

25) Procedural Requirements: The specific procedures and requirements for seeking a revision of a judgment differ among jurisdictions. Generally, an application for revision must be supported by a strong and compelling case, accompanied by relevant evidence or documentation that supports the grounds for revision.

26) Judicial Discretion: As with other post-judgment remedies, the court has discretion in granting or denying a revision of a judgment. The court carefully evaluates the merits of the application and the impact of the proposed revision on the interests of justice and the finality of the judicial process.

27) Legal Advice and Jurisdictional Variations: It is essential to seek legal advice specific to the jurisdiction in which the judgment was rendered to understand the availability, procedures, and limitations of post-judgment remedies like preview and revision remedies. Jurisdictional variations can significantly affect the application and outcome of these remedies.

**Discuss concept of review in the context of civil procedure are discussed. Let's break them down:**

1. Definition of an Aggrieved Person: The review process under Section 82 of the Civil Procedure Act is available to any person who considers themselves aggrieved by a decision, decree, or order that has not been applied or is not appealable. In the case of *Re Nakivubo Chemists (U) Ltd (1979) HCB 12*, an aggrieved person is defined as someone who has suffered a legal grievance, where their legal or equitable interest has been wrongly deprived or affected by a court decision.

2. Third Parties and Review: Generally, a third party who was not a party to the original suit cannot apply for a review of an order or decree. However, in certain cases, a third party who can prove that they are an aggrieved person and have suffered a legal grievance may be allowed to apply for a review, as stated in the case of *Mohammed Alibbani v W.E Bukenya & Anor*.

3. Grounds for Review: An application for review can be made on specific grounds. These grounds include:

a) Mistake or manifest error apparent on the face of the record: This refers to an error that is so clear that no court would allow it to remain on the record. It should not be a wrong application of the law but a clear error on the face of the record.

b) Discovery of new and important matter: This ground applies when new and significant evidence, which was not available at the time of the judgment, is discovered.

c) Any other sufficient cause: This ground is broadly defined and refers to reasons analogous to the other two grounds. It requires the applicant to demonstrate sufficient cause for the review.

4. Review of Consent Judgments: A consent judgment may be subject to review in certain circumstances, such as fraud, collusion, or any other reason that would allow the court to set aside the agreement, as mentioned in the case of *Mohammed Alibhai v W.E Bukenya Mukasa & Anor*.

5. Reviewable Decrees and Orders: Section 82 of the Civil Procedure Act allows for the review of both decrees and orders. A decree refers to a formal expression of the court's decision that conclusively determines the rights of the parties, while an order is a direction or command of the court that is not a decree. An application for review can be made when an appeal is allowed but not preferred, or when there is no right of appeal from the decree or order.

6. Jurisdiction for Review: The power to review is a statutory power and must be exercised according to the provisions of the enabling law. An application for review is to be placed before the court that passed the decree or made the order. The court has the authority to make such orders as it thinks fit upon review.

7. Review vs. Appeal: Review and appeal are distinct legal processes. Review involves the reconsideration of the subject of the suit by the same court under specific conditions set by law. On the other hand, an appeal is a hearing by an appellate court, which reopens all issues subject to the appeal. Review does not open questions decided upon between parties, except in specific instances provided by law.

8. Who Can Apply for Review: Any person who has suffered a legal grievance, either by being a party directly affected by the judgment or by having their interests affected by the court's decision, can apply for review. The person must be able to demonstrate that they have locus standi (legal standing) to seek the review, even if they were not a party to the original suit.

9. Circumstances for Review: The circumstances in which an application for review may be adopted are outlined in Order 46 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules. These circumstances include when an order or decree is appealable as of right but not preferred, and when there is no right of appeal from the decree or order.

10. Conditions and Grounds for Review: To succeed in an application for review, the applicant must satisfy certain conditions and grounds. The conditions include being an aggrieved person and no appeal being preferred. The grounds for review include the presence of a mistake or manifest error apparent on the face of the record, discovery of new and important matter, and other sufficient causes analogous to the specified grounds.

11. Error Apparent on the Face of the Record: One of the grounds for review is when there is a mistake or manifest error apparent on the face of the record. This refers to an error that is so clear and obvious that no court would allow it to remain on the record. It could include errors in the application or interpretation of the law, but mere wrong application of the law or failure to apply the appropriate law may not qualify as an error on the face of the record.

12. Discovery of New and Important Matter: Another ground for review is the discovery of new and important matter of evidence that was not within the applicant's knowledge at the time of the judgment or order. This ground allows for the review of a decision based on new evidence that, despite exercising due diligence, was not available during the original proceedings.

13. Other Sufficient Cause: The application for review may also be based on any other sufficient cause that is analogous to the other specified grounds. This provides some flexibility in the review process and allows for consideration of unique circumstances that may not fit within the specific grounds mentioned.

14. Review of Consent Judgments: Consent judgments, which are judgments based on an agreement between the parties, may also be subject to review under certain circumstances. A consent judgment can be set aside for reasons such as fraud, collusion, or any other reason that would enable the court to invalidate the agreement.

15. Court's Discretion: It is important to note that the decision to grant or deny a review is within the court's discretion. The court will consider the merits of the application, the grounds presented, and the interests of justice in determining whether to allow the review. The court has the authority to make appropriate orders based on its findings during the review process.

It is crucial to consult the specific provisions of the Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules of the relevant jurisdiction to fully understand the legal issues and procedures associated with the review process. Legal advice from a qualified professional should be sought for specific cases or concerns.

16. Limitations on Third Parties: Generally, a third party who was not a party to the original proceedings cannot apply for a review of an order or decree. However, there are exceptions. In certain cases, a third party who can prove that they are an aggrieved person and have suffered a legal grievance may be allowed to apply for a review.

17. Locus Standi: To apply for a review, the person must have locus standi, which means they must have a legal interest or right that has been affected by the court's decision or order. The applicant must demonstrate that the decree or order directly impacts their legal or equitable interest in the subject matter of the case.

18. Availability of Review: Review can be sought when no right of appeal has been provided, as well as when a right of appeal has been provided but has not been preferred. Section 82 of the Civil Procedure Act grants the power to review to any person who considers themselves aggrieved by a decree or order.

19. Conditions for Review: In order for an application for review to succeed, certain conditions must be met. Firstly, the applicant must be an aggrieved person. Secondly, no appeal must have been preferred by the applicant. These conditions are outlined in Section 82 of the Civil Procedure Act and Order 46 Rule 1 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

20. Grounds for Review: The grounds for review are specified in Order 46 Rule 1(6) of the Civil Procedure Rules. These include: (a) a mistake or manifest error apparent on the face of the record, (b) discovery of new and important matter of evidence, and (c) any other sufficient cause. The applicant must satisfy the court that one of these grounds exists in order for the review to be considered.

21. Exercise of Court's Discretion: The decision to grant a review is at the discretion of the court. The court will consider the grounds presented, the interests of justice, and any other relevant factors in making its decision. It has the power to make appropriate orders as it deems fit based on its findings during the review process.



22. Review versus Appeal: It is important to distinguish between a review and an appeal. A review involves the reconsideration of a judgment by the same court under specific conditions set by the law. It is a limited process that does not generally open up all the issues decided upon between the parties. On the other hand, an appeal is a hearing by an appellate court where all the issues subject to the appeal can be reopened.

23. Consent Judgments: A consent judgment, which is an agreement reached between the parties, may also be subject to review. It can be set aside for reasons such as fraud, collusion, or any other grounds that would enable the court to invalidate the agreement.

24. Review Procedure: The procedure for filing an application for review may vary depending on the jurisdiction. It is typically initiated by filing a formal application with the court that passed the decree or made the order. The application must clearly state the grounds for review and provide supporting evidence or arguments.

25. Court's Discretion: The court has discretionary power when it comes to granting or denying a review. It will consider the merits of the application, the grounds presented, and the interests of justice. The court may also impose conditions or limitations on the review process as it deems appropriate.

26. Legal Representation: It is advisable for individuals seeking a review to seek legal representation from qualified professionals who have expertise in civil procedure and the specific laws applicable to the case. Legal professionals can provide guidance on the review process, help prepare the necessary documentation, and present arguments effectively before the court.

27. Time Limit for Filing: It is important to note that there may be a specific time limit within which an application for review must be filed. Failure to meet this deadline may result in the application being dismissed. It is crucial to adhere to the prescribed timeframes as specified by the relevant laws or court rules.

28. Effect of Review: If the court grants the application for review and finds merit in the grounds presented, it has the authority to make appropriate orders to rectify any errors or injustices. The court may modify, reverse, or set aside the original judgment or order, and it may also impose new conditions or requirements as deemed necessary.

29. Finality of Review: Once the court completes the review process and renders a decision, the reviewed judgment or order becomes final and binding, subject to any further appellate processes available under the law. It is important to understand that a review is not an indefinite process and there are limitations to the scope and extent of review.

30. Importance of Legal Advice: Given the complexity of the legal issues involved in the review process, it is crucial for individuals to seek legal advice from qualified professionals. A knowledgeable attorney can assess the specific circumstances of the case, provide accurate guidance on the available legal remedies, and effectively advocate for the client's interests during the review proceedings.

31. Jurisdictional Variations: It is worth noting that the specific legal provisions and procedures for review may vary across jurisdictions. Different countries or legal systems may have their own statutory provisions, court rules, and precedents governing the review process. Therefore, it is essential to consult the relevant laws and seek advice from legal professionals who are familiar with the jurisdiction in question.

32. Non-Exhaustive List of Legal Issues: The discussion above provides an overview of some of the key legal issues related to the review process. However, it is important to note that this list is not exhaustive, and there may be additional legal considerations and complexities that arise in specific cases.

33. Burden of Proof: In the review process, the burden of proof typically rests on the applicant seeking the review. It is the applicant's responsibility to present sufficient evidence and arguments to demonstrate that there are grounds for review and that the original judgment or order should be reconsidered.

34. Court Discretion: The court has discretion in deciding whether to grant a review or not. Even if the applicant satisfies the requirements and presents valid grounds, the court has the authority to exercise its discretion in determining whether a review is warranted based on the merits of the case.

35. Appeal vs. Review: It is important to distinguish between an appeal and a review. While an appeal involves a higher court reexamining the entire case and potentially reversing or modifying the original decision, a review focuses on specific legal errors or grounds specified by law and allows the same court to reconsider its own decision.

36. Importance of Procedural Compliance: When applying for a review, it is crucial to comply with all procedural requirements specified by the relevant laws and court rules. Failure to follow these procedures or meet the necessary deadlines can result in the application being rejected or dismissed.

37. Consequences of a Successful Review: If the court grants the review and finds in favor of the applicant, it can lead to various outcomes, such as setting aside the original judgment or order, ordering a retrial, or issuing any other appropriate remedies to address the legal grievance suffered by the applicant.

38. **Binding Precedent:** The decisions rendered in review cases can contribute to the development of legal precedent. If a court establishes a new interpretation or clarification of the law through a review decision, it can have an impact on future cases and guide the application of the law in similar circumstances.

39. **Importance of Fairness and Justice:** The review process plays a vital role in ensuring fairness and justice in the legal system. It provides an avenue for aggrieved individuals to challenge erroneous or unjust decisions and seek redress for their legal grievances.

40. **Evolving Nature of Review:** The concept of review is not static and may evolve over time through legislative amendments, court decisions, and changes in societal expectations. It is important for legal practitioners and stakeholders to stay updated with any developments in the law regarding the review process.

**Discuss the legal issues involved in the hearing of the application:**

1. **Application to be Heard by the Same Judge:** The first legal issue mentioned is that the application should be heard by the same judge or judges who heard the matter from which it arose. This requirement ensures consistency and familiarity with the case.

2. **Order 46 Rule 4 of the Civil Procedure Rules:** This rule is referenced to support the argument that the application should be heard by the same judge. It provides guidance on the continuity of judges in a case and the importance of having the same judge preside over related matters.

3. **Notice of Motion and Affidavit:** The application is made by way of a notice of motion accompanied by an affidavit. This procedural requirement ensures that the application is properly presented to the court and supported by relevant facts and evidence.

4. **Lodging the Application:** The application must be lodged with the court. This involves submitting the necessary documents and forms to initiate the review process.

5. **Payment of Court Fees:** As part of the application process, court fees must be paid. Failure to comply with this requirement may result in the application being rejected or delayed.

6. **Service of Application on the Respondent:** The applicant is required to serve a copy of the application on the respondent. Proper service ensures that all parties involved are aware of the review proceedings and have an opportunity to respond.

7. Revision under Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act: The concept of revision is introduced, which allows the High Court to review the exercise of power by a lower court. Revision can be sought on various grounds, including when the lower court acted without jurisdiction, failed to exercise its jurisdiction, or acted illegally or with material irregularity.

8. Procedural or Evidential Defect: Revision can be sought if the court had jurisdiction but exercised it wrongly due to procedural or evidential defects. This includes situations where there has been a procedural irregularity leading to the judgment or order, which may render it a nullity or warrant setting it aside.

9. Time Limitations for Revision: Section 83(d)(e) of the Civil Procedure Act states that revision cannot be ordered if the exercise of that power would involve serious hardship to any person due to lapse of time or other causes. This means that there may be limitations on seeking revision based on the timing of the application.

10. Scope of Revision: Revision is generally applicable to final orders in a matter conclusively determined. It may not be suitable for cases pending formal proof in court, as revision is typically intended for cases that have been determined.

11. Duty of the Court in Revision Cases: The court has a duty to examine the record of the proceedings to determine the correctness, legality, or propriety of any finding, order, or decision. This duty includes regulating any further proceedings before the court.

12. Jurisdiction of the High Court in Revision: The High Court is conferred with the power of revision under Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act. It is the sole court that can call for the record of a case from a lower Magistrates Court for the purpose of revising it.

13. Powers of the High Court: The High Court's revisional jurisdiction is not limited, and it can exercise its wide powers even when an appeal would lie. The court may use its revisional powers to correct errors or miscarriages of justice that may have occurred.

14. Powers of Supervision: The High Court is also vested with general powers of supervision over Magistrates Courts under Section 17 of the Judicature Act. This includes the power to prevent abuse of the court's process and curtail delays.

15. Limitations on the Power of Revision: The power of revision may not be available for orders of registrars of the High Court, as they are deemed to be orders of the High Court itself.



16. Review as an Alternative Relief: In certain situations, review under Section 80 or appeal under Order 50 Rule 8 may be more appropriate forms of relief for an aggrieved party, depending on the circumstances of the case.

17. Delegated Power of Review: The text mentions that the registrar has no power to review, as it is vested in a subordinate court, i.e., the High Court. This highlights the distinction between the powers of a registrar and a subordinate court, emphasizing that certain powers, such as the power of review, are specific to higher judicial authorities.

18. Opportunity to be Heard: Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act states that the parties must be given the opportunity to be heard before the power of revision is exercised. This ensures that all parties involved have a fair chance to present their arguments and respond to the application for revision.

19. Correctness, Legality, and Propriety: The High Court, in exercising its revisional jurisdiction, examines the record of proceedings to determine the correctness, legality, or propriety of any finding, order, or decision. This emphasizes the need for the court to assess whether the lower court's actions were in accordance with the law and proper procedure.

20. Abuse of Process and Curtailing Delays: Section 17 of the Judicature Act grants the High Court the power to exercise general supervision over Magistrates Courts. This includes the power to prevent abuse of the court's process and curtail delays. It highlights the court's authority to ensure efficient and fair administration of justice.

21. Procedural Compliance: The application process mentioned, including lodging the application, payment of court fees, and proper service on the respondent, underscores the importance of procedural compliance in initiating the review proceedings. Failure to adhere to procedural requirements may result in the application being rejected or delayed.

22. Material Irregularity or Injustice: Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act allows revision if the lower court acted with material irregularity or injustice. This provision recognizes the significance of upholding procedural fairness and ensuring that the rights of the parties are protected throughout the legal process.

23. Jurisdictional Errors: One of the grounds for revision mentioned is when a court exercises a jurisdiction that it does not have or fails to exercise a jurisdiction that it does have. This highlights the importance of ensuring that the court has the appropriate jurisdiction to hear and decide a case.

24. Procedural Irregularities: The text mentions that if there has been a procedural irregularity in the proceedings leading to a judgment or order, it should be treated as a nullity or set aside. This raises the issue of procedural irregularities and their impact on the validity of the proceedings and subsequent decisions.

25. Final Orders: The text discusses that applications for revision can only be filed against final orders in a matter that has been conclusively determined. This raises the question of what constitutes a final order and when it is appropriate to seek revision of such an order.

26. Time Limitations: Section 83(d)(e) of the Civil Procedure Act states that no revision will be ordered if the exercise of that power would involve serious hardship due to the lapse of time or other causes. This highlights the importance of timely filing for revision and the potential consequences of delay.

27. Scope of Revisional Power: The text mentions that the powers of the High Court in revision are not limited and can be exercised even when an appeal could not be preferred. This raises the issue of the scope of the revisional power of the High Court and its ability to correct errors or miscarriages of justice.

28. Review vs. Appeal: In the Attorney General & Anor v Kamoga & Anor case mentioned, it is stated that the best relief for someone aggrieved is review under Section 80 or appeal under Order 50 Rule 8. This highlights the distinction between review and appeal as two separate legal remedies and the considerations involved in choosing the appropriate course of action.

29. Exercise of Jurisdiction: The text mentions that the High Court may revise a case if a lower court has exercised its jurisdiction illegally or with material irregularity. This raises the issue of the proper exercise of jurisdiction by lower courts and the High Court's role in correcting any errors or irregularities.

30. Opportunity to be Heard: Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act states that the parties must be given the opportunity to be heard before the High Court exercises its power of revision. This emphasizes the importance of providing parties with a fair and reasonable opportunity to present their arguments and be heard before any decisions are made.

31. Record Examination: The duty of the High Court in revision cases, as mentioned in MUMOBA Mohamed v Uganda Muslim Supreme Council, includes examining the record of any proceedings to determine the correctness, legality, or propriety of any finding, order, or decision. This highlights the significance of reviewing the entire record to ensure that the lower court's actions were lawful and appropriate.

32. Powers of the High Court: The High Court is vested with powers of revision under Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act and Section 17 of the Judicature Act. These provisions grant the High Court supervisory and revisionary powers over lower courts, allowing it to ensure proper administration of justice and prevent abuse of the court's process.

33. Abuse of Process: Section 17(2) of the Judicature Act empowers the High Court to prevent abuse of the court's process, including curtailing delays and limiting or staying proceedings when necessary for the ends of justice. This raises the issue of preventing misuse or manipulation of legal procedures that could result in unjust outcomes or unnecessary delays.

34. Powers of Registrars: The text mentions that the power of revision is not available for orders of registrars of the High Court, as they are deemed to be orders of the High Court itself. This highlights the distinction between the powers of registrars and the High Court, and the limited avenues for seeking revision of registrar's orders.

35. Procedural Irregularity: In the case of MUBIRU v KAYIWA, it was held that a procedural irregularity in the proceedings leading to a judgment or order, which is a nullity, should be treated as such or set aside. This raises the issue of the importance of following proper procedural rules and the potential consequences of procedural irregularities on the validity of judgments or orders.

36. Scope of Revision: The text mentions that revision can only be filed against final orders in a matter conclusively determined. This raises the issue of the scope of revision and the requirement for a matter to be finally determined before revision can be sought. It also highlights the distinction between interlocutory orders and final orders in the context of revision.

37. Timeliness of Revision: Section 83(d)(e) of the Civil Procedure Act states that revision will not be ordered if the exercise of that power would involve serious hardship to any person due to lapse of time or other causes. This raises the issue of the timeliness of seeking revision and the potential impact of delay on the availability of the revision remedy.

38. Jurisdiction of the High Court: The High Court has the jurisdiction to call for the record of any case determined by any Magistrates Court under the Act and revise it if necessary. This highlights the role of the High Court as the superior court with the power to review the decisions of lower courts.

39. Grounds for Revision: Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act provides grounds for revision, including the lower court exercising jurisdiction not vested in it, failing to exercise jurisdiction vested in it, acting illegally, or with material irregularity or injustice. This raises the issue of the specific grounds that can justify the exercise of revisionary powers by the High Court.

40. Notice of Motion: The application is made by a notice of motion, which raises the issue of compliance with the requirements for filing such a motion. It may involve considerations such as the content and format of the notice, the timelines for filing, and any specific procedural rules governing notice of motion.

41. Affidavit: The application is accompanied by an affidavit, which raises the issue of the contents and form of the affidavit. It may involve considerations such as the requirement for sworn statements, the admissibility of evidence presented in the affidavit, and any specific rules or guidelines for drafting affidavits.

42. Payment of Court Fees: The text mentions the requirement for payment of court fees when lodging the application. This raises the issue of the applicable fee structure, the calculation of fees based on the nature and value of the application, and any consequences of non-payment or underpayment of court fees.

43. Service of Application: The text mentions the requirement to serve a copy of the application on the respondent. This raises the issue of the proper method and timelines for serving the application, ensuring that the respondent receives notice of the proceedings, and any specific rules or procedures governing service of court documents.

44. Same Judge Requirement: The text states that the application should be heard by the same judge or judges who heard the matter from which it arose. This raises the issue of judicial continuity and the potential impact of having a different judge or panel of judges hear the application. It may involve considerations of fairness, familiarity with the case, and consistency in decision-making.

45. Order 46 Rule 4 of the Civil Procedure Rules: The text references this rule, which raises the issue of the specific provisions outlined in the rule. Further analysis of Order 46 Rule 4 would be necessary to understand its implications and relevance to the application.

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45. Order 46 Rule 4 of the Civil Procedure Rules: The text references this rule, which raises the issue of the specific provisions outlined in the rule. Further analysis of Order 46 Rule 4 would be necessary to understand its implications and relevance to the application.

46. Jurisdiction: The text mentions that the court must have jurisdiction but may exercise it wrongly through procedural or evidential defects. This raises the issue of jurisdiction and the importance of ensuring that the court has the authority to hear and decide the matter. It may involve considerations such as jurisdictional limits, territorial jurisdiction, and any challenges to the court's jurisdiction raised by the parties.

47. Procedural Irregularity: The text states that a procedural irregularity in the proceedings leading to a judgment or order can render it a nullity or warrant its setting aside. This raises the issue of procedural irregularities and their impact on the validity of court decisions. It may involve considerations such as due process, fair hearing requirements, and the consequences of procedural errors on the rights of the parties involved.

48. Serious Hardship: The text mentions that the exercise of revisionary power may not be ordered if it would involve serious hardship to any person due to the lapse of time or other causes. This raises the issue of balancing the interests of justice with the potential hardships faced by the parties. It may involve considerations of equitable relief, the impact of delay on the administration of justice, and any specific factors to be considered when assessing the potential hardships.

49. Scope of Revisionary Power: The text provides insights into the scope of the High Court's revisionary power under Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act. This raises the issue of the extent to which the High Court can review and revise the decisions of lower courts. It may involve considerations of the High Court's

supervisory role, the grounds for revision, and the limitations or conditions imposed on the exercise of revisionary power.

50. Powers of the High Court: The text mentions that the High Court has revisionary powers under Section 17 of the Judicature Act. This raises the issue of the broader powers and responsibilities of the High Court in overseeing the lower courts. It may involve considerations of judicial hierarchy, the High Court's authority to prevent abuse of process, and its role in ensuring the efficient and effective administration of justice.

51. Notice of Motion: The text mentions that the application is made by notice of motion as per Order 46, Rule 8 of the Civil Procedural Rules. This raises the issue of the requirements and procedures for filing a notice of motion. It may involve considerations such as the content of the notice, timelines for filing, service requirements, and any specific rules or guidelines that need to be followed.

52. Affidavit: The text states that the application is accompanied by an affidavit. This raises the issue of the role and importance of affidavits in court proceedings. It may involve discussions on the content and format of an affidavit, the requirements for swearing or affirming an affidavit, the admissibility of affidavits as evidence, and the weight given to affidavit evidence by the court.

53. Payment of Court Fees: The text mentions the requirement for the payment of court fees when lodging the application. This raises the issue of court fees and their significance in legal proceedings. It may involve considerations such as the determination of court fees, the consequences of non-payment or insufficient payment, any exemptions or waivers available, and the impact of court fees on access to justice.

54. Service of Documents: The text states that a copy of the application must be served on the respondent. This raises the issue of proper service of documents in legal proceedings. It may involve discussions on the methods and requirements for serving documents, the timeframes for service, proof of service, and the consequences of improper or insufficient service.

55. Review vs. Appeal: The text touches on the difference between review and appeal. This raises the issue of the distinct nature and purposes of review and appeal processes. It may involve discussions on the grounds, procedures, and remedies available in review and appeal, as well as the circumstances in which one may be preferred over the other.

56. Registrar's Power of Review: The text mentions that the registrar does not have the power to review, as it is vested in a subordinate court, the High Court. This raises the issue of the scope and limitations of the registrar's power to review decisions. It may involve discussions on the authority of the registrar, the circumstances in which the registrar can review decisions, and the hierarchy of decision-making within the court system.

57. Jurisdiction: The text mentions that the court must have jurisdiction but may exercise it wrongly through procedural or evidential defects. This raises the issue of jurisdiction and its importance in legal proceedings. It may involve discussions on the different types of jurisdiction, the requirements for a court to have jurisdiction over a matter, and the consequences of exercising jurisdiction improperly or without authority.

58. Procedural Irregularity: The text refers to procedural irregularity in proceedings leading to a judgment or order, which may render the order a nullity or set it aside. This raises the issue of procedural irregularities and their impact on the validity of court decisions. It may involve discussions on what constitutes a procedural irregularity, the consequences of such irregularities, and the available remedies for parties affected by procedural irregularities.

59. Lapse of Time: The text states that no revision will be ordered if the exercise of revision power would involve serious hardship to any person due to the lapse of time or other causes. This raises the issue of the effect of time on the availability of legal remedies. It may involve discussions on the concept of limitation periods, the importance of timely filing applications or appeals, and the circumstances in which the court may be reluctant to exercise its revision power due to delay.

60. Powers of the High Court: The text mentions that the High Court has revisional jurisdiction under Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act. This raises the issue of the powers of the High Court and its role in the judicial system. It may involve discussions on the scope and extent of the High Court's revisional jurisdiction, the factors considered in exercising revisional powers, and the limitations or conditions on the exercise of such powers.

61. Supervision over Magistrate's Courts: The text refers to the High Court's general powers of supervision over Magistrate's Courts under Section 17 of the Judicature Act. This raises the issue of the High Court's supervisory role and authority over lower courts. It may involve discussions on the purpose and nature of supervisory powers, the mechanisms through which the High Court exercises such powers, and the importance of maintaining judicial integrity and consistency in the lower court decisions.

62. Notice of Motion: The text mentions that the application is made by notice of motion. This raises the issue of the procedural requirements for filing a notice of motion. It may involve discussions on the contents of a notice of motion, the time limits for filing, serving the notice on the opposing party, and any specific rules or regulations governing the format or procedure for notices of motion.

63. Affidavit: The text states that the application is accompanied by an affidavit. This raises the issue of the role and importance of affidavits in legal proceedings. It may involve discussions on the purpose of affidavits, the requirements for preparing and submitting an affidavit, the admissibility of evidence in an affidavit, and the weight given to affidavit evidence by the court.



64. Payment of Court Fees: The text mentions the requirement for the payment of court fees. This raises the issue of court fees and their significance in legal proceedings. It may involve discussions on the types of court fees, the determination of court fees based on the nature and value of the application, the consequences of non-payment or underpayment of court fees, and any available waivers or exemptions for certain categories of litigants.

65. Service of Documents: The text refers to the service of a copy of the application on the respondent. This raises the issue of service of legal documents and its importance in ensuring due process. It may involve discussions on the methods and requirements for proper service, the consequences of improper service, the timelines for effecting service, and any specific rules or regulations governing the service of documents in the relevant jurisdiction.

66. Review vs. Appeal: The text briefly touches on the distinction between review and appeal. This raises the issue of the differences between these two legal remedies. It may involve discussions on the grounds, scope, and procedures for review and appeal, the standard of review or appellate review applied by the court, and the outcomes or remedies that may be available in each case.

67. Jurisdiction: The text mentions the requirement for the same judge or judges who heard the matter from which the application arose to hear the application. This raises the issue of jurisdiction and the authority of the court to hear and decide the application. It may involve discussions on the concept of jurisdiction, the types of jurisdiction relevant to the application, and any legal principles or rules that govern the allocation of cases to specific judges or courts.

68. Procedural Irregularity: The text refers to the concept of procedural irregularity and its impact on judgments or orders. This raises the issue of procedural fairness and the consequences of procedural irregularities in legal proceedings. It may involve discussions on the nature of procedural irregularities, their effect on the validity of judgments or orders, and the remedies available to parties affected by such irregularities.

69. Serious Hardship: The text mentions that no revision will be ordered if the exercise of that power would involve serious hardship to any person. This raises the issue of balancing the interests of justice against the potential hardships that may result from revising a case. It may involve discussions on the factors considered by the court in assessing whether serious hardship exists, the significance of lapse of time or other causes in determining hardship, and the discretionary power of the court in deciding whether to exercise its revisionary jurisdiction.

70. Powers of the High Court: The text refers to the powers of the High Court in exercising revision and supervision over lower courts. This raises the issue of the extent of the High Court's powers and its role in ensuring proper administration of justice. It may involve discussions on the specific powers vested in the



High Court, the limitations or conditions placed on the exercise of those powers, and the importance of the High Court's supervisory role in maintaining the integrity of the judicial process.

71. Service of Documents: The text mentions the requirement to serve a copy of the application on the respondent. This raises the issue of proper service of legal documents and its importance in ensuring due process and the right to be heard. It may involve discussions on the methods and rules of service, the consequences of improper or insufficient service, and the steps that parties should take to ensure effective service.

72. Grounds for Revision: The text outlines the grounds upon which revision can be exercised, including the court exercising a jurisdiction not vested in it by law, failing to exercise a vested jurisdiction, and acting illegally or with material irregularity. This raises the issue of the grounds for seeking revision and the circumstances under which it can be invoked. It may involve discussions on the legal principles and requirements for each ground, the burden of proof on the party seeking revision, and the potential remedies available if revision is granted.

73. Revision vs. Appeal: The text touches upon the distinction between revision and appeal. This raises the issue of the differences between these two legal remedies and the circumstances in which they are applicable. It may involve discussions on the purpose and scope of revision as compared to appeal, the prerequisites for filing an appeal or seeking revision, and the potential outcomes and effects of each remedy.

74. Duty of the Court in Revision Cases: The text mentions the duty of the court in revision cases, including examining the record of proceedings to determine correctness, legality, and propriety. This raises the issue of the court's role and responsibilities in reviewing and revising lower court decisions. It may involve discussions on the standard of review in revision cases, the level of scrutiny applied by the court, and the factors considered in assessing the correctness, legality, or propriety of the lower court's decision.

75. Abuse of Process: The text briefly refers to the power of the High Court to prevent abuse of the court process and curtail delays. This raises the issue of preventing abuse of the legal system and ensuring the efficient administration of justice. It may involve discussions on the concept of abuse of process, the factors that may constitute abuse, and the measures available to the court to prevent such abuse.

➤ **What is the scope of revision and the limitation to the grounds?**

1. Jurisdiction: The issue of jurisdiction is central to the cases mentioned. Section 33 of the CPA (Civil Procedure Act) allows for revision when there has been a failure to exercise jurisdiction vested in the court, or when the court exercises jurisdiction not vested in it. In both cases, the High Court may be approached for revision. The key question is whether the chief Magistrate had jurisdiction to issue the order in question after the applicant had already sworn in.

2. Material irregularity: The applicant in the case of *Byanyima Winnie v. Ngoma Ngime* claimed that the chief Magistrate had exercised jurisdiction with material irregularity. The court must assess whether there were any irregularities in the proceedings that warrant revision.

3. Burden of proof: The burden lies on the applicant to prove that the application for revision is based on the statutory grounds outlined in Section 83 of the CPA. The applicant must demonstrate that the grounds for revision have been satisfied.

4. Scrutiny of decision and proceedings: The High Court, when exercising its power of revision, is entitled to thoroughly examine the decision and proceedings of the lower court to determine the alleged illegalities or irregularities.

5. Discretionary nature of revision: The power of revision is discretionary, meaning that it will only be exercised in appropriate circumstances. The court has the discretion to decide whether revision is warranted based on the facts and circumstances of the case.

6. Opportunity to be heard: Section 83(a) of the CPA states that the power of revision shall not be exercised unless the parties have been given the opportunity to be heard. It is crucial that both parties have the chance to present their arguments and evidence before the court considers revising the order.

7. Timeliness and serious hardship: Section 83(c) of the CPA prohibits the exercise of the power of revision where it would involve serious hardships due to lapse of time or other causes. The court must consider whether any delay in seeking revision would result in undue hardships for any party involved.

8. Notice to affected party: When seeking revision, the party likely to be affected by the High Court's decision must be served with a notice for revision. It is essential to properly notify the adversary party to ensure fairness and allow them to respond to the revision application.

9. Lack of good faith: The remedy of revision may not be granted if the person seeking it is guilty of lacks (laches) or if the orders being challenged are likely to cause hardships to third parties who have benefited from the decision. The court will consider the conduct and good faith of the applicant before granting revision.

10. Exercise of jurisdiction causing a miscarriage of justice: Section 33 of the CPA allows for revision when the exercise of jurisdiction could cause a miscarriage of justice. This means that if the court's exercise of jurisdiction in a particular matter would result in a serious injustice, revision may be sought.

11. Jurisdiction vested in the court: The issue of whether the chief Magistrate had jurisdiction vested in them is crucial. The court must determine whether the chief Magistrate had the legal authority to make the order in question or if they exceeded their jurisdiction.

12. Illegality in the exercise of jurisdiction: Section 33 of the CPA also permits revision when the court has acted illegally in the exercise of its jurisdiction. This refers to situations where the court has violated the law or any legal principles in its decision-making process.

13. Effect of lapse of time: Section 83(d) of the CPA prohibits the exercise of the power of revision where there has been a significant lapse of time that would cause serious hardship to any person. The court must assess whether the delay in seeking revision would unfairly prejudice any party or cause undue hardship.

14. Service of notice for revision: The party seeking revision must ensure that the adversary party is duly noticed by way of service of a hearing notice. Proper service of notice is important to ensure fairness and the opportunity for the opposing party to respond to the revision application.

15. Hardships to third parties: The court must consider whether the revision, if granted, would cause hardships to third parties who have acquired an interest in the subject matter of the suit. If the revision would adversely affect the rights or interests of third parties, the court may decline to exercise its power of revision.

16. Power of the High Court to move itself: According to the information provided, the High Court may also move itself to exercise jurisdiction in a revision matter. This raises the issue of the court's inherent power to initiate revision proceedings in appropriate cases, even without a party or other judicial officer making a formal application.

17. Standard of proof: The burden lies on the applicant to prove that the grounds for revision as set out in Section 83 of the CPA are satisfied. This raises the issue of the required standard of proof. The court must determine the level of evidence and persuasion that the applicant must meet in order to establish the existence of the statutory grounds for revision.

18. Review of decision and proceedings: The High Court, when exercising its power of revision, is entitled to comprehensively examine the decision and proceedings of the lower court. This implies that the court has the authority to scrutinize not only the final order but also the entire process leading to that decision, including the conduct of the parties and any irregularities or illegalities.

19. Discretionary nature of revision: The power of revision is discretionary, meaning that the court has the discretion to decide whether to exercise its revisionary powers. This raises the issue of the factors that the court may consider in determining whether it is appropriate and fitting to exercise its discretion in favor of revision.

20. Consideration of third-party interests: In determining whether to grant revision, the court must consider the potential impact on third parties who may have acquired an interest in the subject matter of the suit. This raises the issue of balancing the interests of the parties seeking revision with the rights and interests of third parties who may be affected by the court's decision.

21. Relationship between revision and other legal remedies: It is important to consider the relationship between revision and other available legal remedies. Revision is one avenue for challenging the orders or decisions of a lower court, but there may be other legal mechanisms or remedies available to the parties. The court must determine whether revision is the appropriate course of action or if another remedy would be more suitable.

22. Scope of revision: The phrase "scope of revision is limited to the grounds" suggests that the High Court's power of revision is confined to the specific grounds mentioned in Section 33 of the CPA. This raises the issue of determining the extent to which the court can review and intervene in the decision and proceedings of the lower court, considering the limitations imposed by the statutory grounds for revision.

23. Nature of material irregularity: The mention of "material irregularity" in the cases raises the issue of defining what constitutes a material irregularity. The court must determine the threshold or standard that qualifies an irregularity to be considered material, which would warrant the exercise of revisionary powers.

24. Effect of the applicant's swearing-in: In the case of *Byanyima Winnie v. Ngoma Ngime*, it was held that the chief Magistrate had no jurisdiction left in the matter after the applicant had already sworn in. This raises the issue of whether the applicant's swearing-in had any legal consequences and affected the jurisdiction of the chief Magistrate.

25. Procedural requirements for revision: The information mentions the requirement to serve a notice for revision to the party likely to be affected by the High Court's revision decision. This raises the issue of the procedural requirements that must be fulfilled for a valid application for revision, including proper notice to the affected party and adherence to any specified timelines or formalities.

26. Consideration of hardships: Section 83(c) of the CPA prohibits the exercise of the power of revision if it would involve serious hardships to any person due to lapse of time or other causes. This raises the issue



of determining when the hardships caused by the revision outweigh the potential benefits or justice sought, and whether such hardships are sufficient to warrant the denial of the revisionary remedy.

27. Good faith and lack of good faith: The information mentions that the remedy of revision may not be granted if the person seeking it is guilty of "lacks." This raises the issue of assessing the applicant's good faith and determining whether any lack of good faith on their part would affect the court's decision on granting the revision.

28. Judicial review vs. revision: The concept of revision mentioned in the provided information raises the issue of distinguishing between revision and judicial review. It is important to determine the scope and nature of revision as a distinct legal remedy compared to other forms of judicial review available under the law.

29. Role of supervisory officers: The information mentions that supervisory officers, such as a chief Magistrate, Registrar, or inspector of courts, may move the High Court to exercise revisionary jurisdiction. This raises the issue of the role and authority of these supervisory officers in initiating revision proceedings and their relationship with the parties to the dispute.

30. Prerequisites for revision: The information hints at the requirement for the High Court to be moved by a party to the dispute, their counsel, or a supervisory officer, or for the court to move itself. This raises the issue of identifying the prerequisites for invoking the power of revision, such as standing, locus standi, or a particular relationship to the case.

31. Determining miscarriage of justice: The grounds for revision mentioned in Section 33 of the CPA include situations where the exercise of jurisdiction could cause a miscarriage of justice. This raises the issue of determining what constitutes a miscarriage of justice and the factors that the court should consider when assessing whether such a situation exists.

32. Impact of revision on the lower court's decision: The exercise of revisionary powers by the High Court raises the issue of the effect it has on the lower court's decision. It is essential to clarify whether the revision sets aside or modifies the decision of the lower court or whether it merely allows for review and rectification of any irregularities or errors.

33. Discretion in granting revision: The discretionary nature of revision raises the issue of the factors that the High Court should consider when deciding whether to exercise its power of revision. The court must weigh the interests of justice, the specific circumstances of the case, and any potential prejudice or hardships that may arise.

34. Precedential value of revision decisions: The information does not specify the precedential value of revision decisions. This raises the issue of whether revision decisions set binding precedent for future cases or if they are limited to their specific factual context.

35. Procedural fairness: The principle of procedural fairness, also known as natural justice, may be relevant in revision proceedings. The court must consider whether the parties involved were afforded a fair and impartial hearing, and whether any procedural irregularities occurred that may have impacted the outcome of the lower court's decision.

36. Judicial discretion and errors of law: The exercise of revisionary powers raises the issue of the court's discretion to correct errors of law committed by the lower court. The court must determine the extent to which it can intervene and correct errors of law, as opposed to errors of fact or discretionary decisions made by the lower court.

37. Abuse of process: The concept of abuse of process may arise in revision proceedings. The court must consider whether the revision application is being used improperly or in bad faith, such as for the purpose of causing delay or harassment to the opposing party, rather than seeking a legitimate review of the lower court's decision.

38. Limitations on revision: The CPA may impose limitations on the power of revision, such as time limitations or restrictions on the types of orders or decisions that can be revised. The court must assess whether the revision application complies with these limitations and whether any exceptions or extensions to the limitations apply.

39. Preclusive effect of revision: The outcome of a revision application may have a preclusive effect on the parties involved. The court must consider the implications of its revision decision on the rights and obligations of the parties, including whether it would nullify the lower court's decision or order a new trial.

40. Interplay with appellate process: The interplay between revision and the appellate process may arise as an issue. The court must determine the relationship between revision and the right to appeal, including whether a revision application should be entertained if there is an alternative avenue for appeal available to the aggrieved party.

41. Jurisdictional limitations of the High Court: The jurisdictional limitations of the High Court in revision proceedings may be an issue to consider. The court must ensure that it has the authority to review the lower court's decision within the scope of its revisionary powers, and that it does not exceed its jurisdiction in doing so.

42. Precedential value of revision decisions: The information does not specify the precedential value of revision decisions. This raises the issue of whether revision decisions set binding precedent for future cases or if they are limited to their specific factual context.

43. Compliance with procedural requirements: The court must assess whether the revision application complies with all the procedural requirements prescribed by law. This includes examining whether the application was filed within the prescribed time limits, whether the necessary documents and evidence were submitted, and whether any procedural formalities were fulfilled.

44. Judicial independence and impartiality: The principle of judicial independence and impartiality is relevant in revision proceedings. The court must ensure that it acts independently and impartially in reviewing the lower court's decision, without any bias or prejudice, to uphold the integrity and fairness of the judicial process.

45. Retroactive effect of revision: The retroactive effect of a revision decision may be an issue to consider. The court must assess the implications of its revision decision on any actions or rights that may have occurred or vested between the lower court's decision and the revision application.

46. Compliance with substantive law: The court must determine whether the lower court's decision and proceedings complied with the substantive law. This includes assessing whether the lower court correctly interpreted and applied the relevant legal principles, statutes, and precedents in reaching its decision.

47. Remedial powers of the High Court: The court must consider its remedial powers in revision proceedings. This includes evaluating the range of remedies available, such as setting aside the lower court's decision, remitting the case for a fresh determination, or issuing directions to rectify any irregularities or errors.

48. Public interest considerations: The court may need to take into account public interest considerations in revision proceedings. This involves assessing whether the revision application and its potential outcome align with public policy objectives, legal principles, and the broader interests of society.

49. Review of factual findings: While revision primarily focuses on legal errors, the court may also need to consider the review of factual findings made by the lower court. This raises the issue of the court's authority to reevaluate the factual evidence and make different factual determinations in the course of the revision process.

50. Interim orders and injunctive relief: The court must address the issue of interim orders or injunctive relief in revision proceedings. This includes determining whether the court has the power to grant interim relief

pending the final determination of the revision application, and the conditions or criteria for granting such relief.

43. Compliance with procedural requirements: The court must assess whether the revision application complies with all the procedural requirements prescribed by law. This includes examining whether the application was filed within the prescribed time limits, whether the necessary documents and evidence were submitted, and whether any procedural formalities were fulfilled.

44. Judicial independence and impartiality: The principle of judicial independence and impartiality is relevant in revision proceedings. The court must ensure that it acts independently and impartially in reviewing the lower court's decision, without any bias or prejudice, to uphold the integrity and fairness of the judicial process.

45. Retroactive effect of revision: The retroactive effect of a revision decision may be an issue to consider. The court must assess the implications of its revision decision on any actions or rights that may have occurred or vested between the lower court's decision and the revision application.

46. Compliance with substantive law: The court must determine whether the lower court's decision and proceedings complied with the substantive law. This includes assessing whether the lower court correctly interpreted and applied the relevant legal principles, statutes, and precedents in reaching its decision.

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49. Review of factual findings: While revision primarily focuses on legal errors, the court may also need to consider the review of factual findings made by the lower court. This raises the issue of the court's authority to reevaluate the factual evidence and make different factual determinations in the course of the revision process.

50. Interim orders and injunctive relief: The court must address the issue of interim orders or injunctive relief in revision proceedings. This includes determining whether the court has the power to grant interim relief pending the final determination of the revision application, and the conditions or criteria for granting such relief.



51. Res judicata and estoppel: The concept of res judicata and estoppel may arise in revision proceedings. The court must consider whether the matter has already been finally adjudicated upon and whether the principle of res judicata or estoppel applies, preventing the re-litigation of the same issues.

52. Relationship with alternative dispute resolution (ADR): The availability and utilization of alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, such as mediation or arbitration, may be an issue to consider. The court must assess whether the revision application is the appropriate forum for resolving the dispute or whether ADR methods should be explored instead.

53. Costs and expenses: The issue of costs and expenses incurred in revision proceedings may arise. The court must determine the appropriate allocation of costs, including legal fees, court fees, and any other expenses, and whether any party should be liable for the costs of the revision application.

54. Applicability of precedent: The court must consider the applicability and relevance of prior precedent in revision proceedings. This includes assessing whether there are any previous decisions or legal principles that are directly applicable to the issues raised in the revision application.

55. Public policy considerations: The court may need to take into account public policy considerations in revision proceedings. This involves evaluating whether the lower court's decision, if left uncorrected, would contravene public policy or undermine the principles of justice, fairness, or equity.

56. Interpretation of statutory provisions: The court must interpret the relevant statutory provisions, such as Section 33 of the CPA, to determine the scope and limitations of the power of revision. This includes considering the legislative intent behind the provisions and any applicable judicial interpretations.

57. Exhaustion of remedies: The court may need to address the issue of whether the applicant has exhausted all available remedies before seeking revision. This involves evaluating whether there are any other avenues of redress, such as appeals or applications for review, that should be pursued before resorting to revision.

58. Preservation of rights pending revision: The court must consider whether any interim measures are necessary to preserve the rights of the parties during the pendency of the revision application. This includes assessing whether any temporary orders or safeguards should be put in place to maintain the status quo or prevent irreparable harm.

59. Relationship with substantive and procedural laws: The court must examine the interplay between the substantive and procedural laws in revision proceedings. This includes ensuring that the revision application adheres to the procedural requirements while also addressing the substantive legal issues raised in the lower court's decision.

60. Review of discretionary decisions: The court must assess the scope and limitations of reviewing discretionary decisions made by the lower court. This involves considering the extent to which the court can interfere with the exercise of discretion, and the criteria for assessing whether the lower court's exercise of discretion was proper and lawful.

61. Preservation of evidence: The court may need to address the issue of preserving relevant evidence during the revision proceedings. This includes determining whether any preservation orders or directions should be issued to prevent the loss, destruction, or alteration of evidence that may be crucial to the resolution of the dispute.

62. Effect on rights of third parties: The court must consider the impact of the revision decision on the rights and interests of third parties who may have acquired interests in the subject matter of the dispute. This raises the issue of balancing the interests of the parties seeking revision with the potential hardships that may be imposed on third parties.

63. Jurisdictional limitations of lower courts: The court may need to evaluate the jurisdictional limitations of the lower court that rendered the original decision. This involves assessing whether the lower court had the authority to hear and determine the particular matter, and whether it exceeded its jurisdiction in any way.

64. Admissibility of new evidence: The court must determine the admissibility of new evidence in revision proceedings. This includes evaluating whether the applicant is permitted to introduce fresh evidence that was not presented in the lower court, and the criteria for admitting such evidence.

65. Review of procedural irregularities: The court must review any procedural irregularities that occurred in the lower court's proceedings. This includes assessing whether the irregularities had a material impact on the fairness and validity of the decision, and whether they warrant the exercise of the revisionary powers of the High Court.

66. Prejudice and hardship to the parties: The court must consider the potential prejudice or hardships that may arise from the revision application. This includes evaluating whether the revision will cause undue hardship or prejudice to any of the parties involved, and whether there are alternative remedies that can adequately address their concerns.

67. Scope of review: The court must determine the scope of its review in the revision proceedings. This involves clarifying whether it can review the entire decision of the lower court or if its review is limited to specific grounds or issues raised in the revision application.

68. Relationship with other remedies: The court may need to consider the relationship between revision and other available legal remedies. This includes assessing whether the revision application should proceed independently or whether it should be coordinated or consolidated with other legal actions or remedies pursued by the parties.

69. Compliance with principles of natural justice: The court must ensure that the revision proceedings adhere to the principles of natural justice. This includes guaranteeing that all parties are given a fair opportunity to present their case, that they are heard, and that the decision-making process is transparent and unbiased.

70. Finality of revision decision: The court must determine the finality of its revision decision. This raises the issue of whether the court's revision decision is subject to further appeal or review, or whether it represents the final determination of the matter.

71. Constitutional considerations: The court may need to consider constitutional issues that may arise in the revision proceedings. This includes evaluating whether the lower court's decision violated any constitutional rights or principles, and whether the revision application raises any constitutional questions that need to be addressed.

72. Review of discretionary orders: The court must assess the exercise of discretionary orders by the lower court. This involves determining whether the lower court properly exercised its discretion and whether the exercise of discretion was based on relevant considerations and within the bounds of the law.

73. Compliance with legal formalities: The court must review whether the lower court's decision complied with all legal formalities prescribed by law. This includes assessing whether the decision was properly reasoned, supported by adequate evidence, and issued in the appropriate form and manner.

74. Scope of the court's revisionary powers: The court must interpret and define the scope of its revisionary powers as provided by Section 33 of the CPA. This involves assessing the extent to which the court can intervene in the lower court's decision and whether the grounds for revision set out in the statute are met.

75. Validity of the revision application: The court must determine the validity of the revision application itself. This includes evaluating whether the application was filed by a party with the necessary locus standi,

whether it complies with the prescribed form and content requirements, and whether it was filed within the applicable time limits.

76. Conflict of laws: The court may need to address any conflict of laws issues that arise in the revision proceedings. This involves determining the applicable laws and principles to be applied in reviewing the lower court's decision, particularly if there are different legal systems or rules involved.

77. Public interest litigation: If the revision application involves matters of public interest or public importance, the court may need to consider the broader societal implications of its decision. This includes weighing the public interest considerations against the individual rights and interests of the parties involved.

78. Review of administrative decisions: The court may need to review administrative decisions made by the lower court, such as decisions made by a registrar or an inspector of courts. This raises issues related to the powers and limitations of these administrative officials and whether their decisions were valid and in accordance with the law.

79. Presumption of regularity: The court must consider the presumption of regularity, which assumes that official acts and decisions are valid and regular unless proven otherwise. This requires the applicant to provide sufficient evidence to rebut the presumption and demonstrate the irregularities or illegalities in the lower court's decision.

80. Precedential value of revision decisions: The court may need to determine the precedential value of its revision decisions. This involves considering whether the court's revisionary decisions have binding authority on future cases or whether they are persuasive in nature and subject to further interpretation by higher courts.

81. Review of findings of fact: The court may need to address the issue of reviewing findings of fact made by the lower court. This involves determining the standard of review for factual findings and assessing whether there is sufficient evidence to support or overturn those findings.

82. Preclusive effect of revision: The court must consider the preclusive effect of its revision decision on future proceedings. This includes evaluating whether the revision decision has a res judicata or collateral estoppel effect, preventing the parties from relitigating the same issues in subsequent proceedings.

83. Burden of proof: The court must determine the burden of proof in the revision application. This involves assessing which party bears the burden of proving the grounds for revision and whether the applicant has met the required standard of proof.



84. Review of interlocutory orders: The court may need to review interlocutory orders issued by the lower court. This raises issues regarding the scope of revision for such orders, including whether they are subject to revision or whether they must be challenged through alternative procedures.

85. Application of equitable principles: The court may need to consider the application of equitable principles in revision proceedings. This involves assessing whether the lower court's decision or the revision application implicates equitable considerations, such as fairness, unjust enrichment, or the availability of equitable remedies.

86. Jurisdictional conflict: The court must address any jurisdictional conflict that may arise in revision proceedings. This includes determining which court has the authority to hear and decide the revision application and resolving any disputes regarding the proper forum for the application.

87. Relationship with international law: The court may need to consider the relationship between revision proceedings and international law. This involves evaluating whether international legal principles, treaties, or obligations have any bearing on the revision application and its outcome.

88. Effect on contractual rights: The court must assess the effect of the revision decision on contractual rights and obligations. This includes considering whether the revision may impact the validity, enforceability, or performance of contracts entered into by the parties involved.

89. Review of procedural fairness: The court must review the procedural fairness of the lower court's proceedings. This involves assessing whether the parties were afforded an opportunity to present their case, whether they had access to legal representation, and whether there were any procedural irregularities that affected the fairness of the process.

90. Disclosure and discovery: The court may need to address issues related to disclosure and discovery of evidence in revision proceedings. This includes determining the extent to which the parties are entitled to access relevant documents and information and the procedures for obtaining and presenting such evidence.

➤ **Kindly discuss the legal issues related to the procedure of revision proceedings.**

1. Absence of prescribed procedure for revision: In the case of Gulu Municipal Council v Nyeko Gabriel, the court acknowledged that there is no specific procedure prescribed for initiating revision proceedings. This raises the issue of the absence of clear guidelines or rules governing the procedural aspects of revision applications.

2. Initiation of revision proceedings by an aggrieved party: The court in Gulu Municipal Council v Nyeko Gabriel stated that there is no legal prohibition against an aggrieved party initiating revision proceedings. This implies that a party who is dissatisfied with a lower court's decision can move the court to exercise its revisionary powers.

3. Procedure through a notice of motion: In the case of Assumpta Sebanya v Kyomukama James, it was held that the application for revision can be made through a notice of motion under Section 83 of the Civil Procedure Act and Order 52 Rule 1 & 3 of the Civil Procedure Rules. This indicates that the applicant can formally initiate revision proceedings by filing a notice of motion with the court.

4. Requirements for an affidavit in support of the application: In Assumpta Sebanya v Kyomukama James, the court emphasized that the affidavit in support of the revision application should not be argumentative or contain submissions on the merits of the dispute. This highlights the requirement for the affidavit to adhere to the provisions of Order 19 Rule 3(1) & (2) of the Civil Procedure Rules, which pertains to the content and form of affidavits.

5. Consequences of non-compliance with affidavit requirements: It was stated in Assumpta Sebanya v Kyomukama James that if an affidavit in support of the revision application is argumentative or full of submissions, it contravenes the requirements of the Civil Procedure Rules and may be struck out. This emphasizes the importance of ensuring that the affidavit complies with the prescribed rules and does not contain improper content.

The documents mentioned, the Notice of Motion and Affidavit, are typically used in the procedure of revision proceedings. The Notice of Motion serves as a formal application to the court, while the Affidavit provides supporting evidence and facts relevant to the revision application.

6. Timelines for filing the application: It is important to determine the applicable timelines for filing the revision application. This may involve referring to the relevant provisions of the Civil Procedure Act and Civil Procedure Rules to identify any prescribed time limits or limitations for initiating revision proceedings.

7. Service of the application and notice: The issue of serving the revision application and notice on the other party/parties involved should be considered. This includes ensuring that the application and notice are

properly served in accordance with the rules of service, allowing the other party to be aware of the revision proceedings and have an opportunity to respond.

8. Requirements for supporting documents: Apart from the Notice of Motion and Affidavit, there may be other supporting documents that need to be submitted with the revision application. These could include relevant court orders, judgments, or any other documents necessary to substantiate the grounds for revision or to demonstrate the irregularities in the lower court's decision.

9. Representation and legal counsel: Parties may have the right to be represented by legal counsel during the revision proceedings. The issue of legal representation, including the rights and responsibilities of legal practitioners, should be considered in relation to the procedure of revision.

10. Oral arguments and hearings: The court may schedule oral arguments or hearings to allow the parties to present their case and provide further clarification on the revision application. The procedure for conducting oral arguments or hearings, including the allocation of time, examination of witnesses, and cross-examination, should be determined.

11. Decisions on costs: The court may make decisions on costs, including who should bear the costs of the revision proceedings. This involves considering the relevant provisions of the Civil Procedure Act and Civil Procedure Rules to determine the principles and factors guiding the court's discretion in awarding costs.

12. Appeal or review of the revision decision: It is essential to consider whether the revision decision itself is subject to appeal or review by a higher court. This may involve examining the applicable laws and rules regarding the appellate process and the grounds on which a revision decision can be challenged.

13. Finality of the revision decision: Once the court issues a decision on the revision application, it is important to understand the finality and enforceability of that decision. This includes considering whether the decision is binding on the parties, whether it can be subject to further review, and how it can be implemented or enforced.

14. Interlocutory orders and stay of proceedings: In revision proceedings, the court may need to address the issue of interlocutory orders issued by the lower court. This includes determining whether the revision application affects the enforcement or continuation of those orders and whether the court has the power to stay the proceedings pending the revision decision.

15. Consolidation of related matters: If there are multiple revision applications or related matters pending before the court, the issue of consolidation may arise. This involves considering whether the court has the authority to consolidate the cases to promote judicial efficiency and prevent duplication of efforts.

16. Submissions and written arguments: Parties to the revision proceedings may be required to submit written arguments or legal briefs outlining their respective positions. The court will consider these submissions in its evaluation of the revision application. This raises issues such as the deadlines for submission, the format and content requirements for written arguments, and the opportunity for reply submissions.

17. Role of the lower court: The procedure of revision proceedings may involve the lower court that made the original decision. This could include the lower court providing records, explanations, or responses to specific queries from the court hearing the revision application. The issue of the lower court's participation and cooperation in the revision proceedings should be considered.

18. Evidence and examination of witnesses: The court may need to assess the admissibility and relevance of evidence presented during the revision proceedings. This includes determining whether witnesses can be called to testify or whether documentary evidence can be submitted. The court will evaluate the weight and credibility of the evidence in its review of the lower court's decision.

19. Public interest and amicus curiae: In cases where revision proceedings involve matters of public interest or have broader implications, the court may allow for the participation of amicus curiae (friend of the court). This raises issues such as the procedure for allowing amicus curiae to make submissions and the scope of their participation in the revision proceedings.

20. In-camera proceedings and confidentiality: Certain revision proceedings may require confidentiality or in-camera proceedings to protect sensitive information or safeguard the interests of parties involved. The issue of confidentiality and the procedures for conducting closed-door hearings should be addressed by the court.

21. Scope of review: The court must determine the scope of review in the revision proceedings. This involves identifying the specific grounds or issues that can be considered in the revision application and evaluating the extent to which the court can review the lower court's decision, including both questions of law and questions of fact.

22. Standard of review: The court may need to establish the standard of review for the revision proceedings. This includes determining the level of deference given to the lower court's decision and assessing whether the court should intervene only if there is a clear error or if it has broader discretion to reconsider the merits of the case.



23. Procedural irregularities: The court should examine whether there were any procedural irregularities in the lower court's proceedings. This may involve assessing whether the lower court followed the proper procedures, adhered to principles of natural justice, and provided a fair and impartial hearing.

24. Compliance with legal principles: The court may need to determine whether the lower court's decision complied with relevant legal principles, statutes, and precedents. This involves evaluating whether the lower court correctly interpreted and applied the law in reaching its decision.

25. Manifest error of law or fact: The court should consider whether there is a manifest error of law or fact in the lower court's decision. This requires examining whether the lower court made a clear and obvious mistake in its interpretation of the law or in its factual findings.

26. Abuse of discretion: The court may need to assess whether the lower court abused its discretion in making the decision. This involves considering whether the lower court acted arbitrarily, unreasonably, or unfairly, or if it failed to consider relevant factors or improperly considered irrelevant factors.

27. Jurisdictional issues: The court should address any jurisdictional issues that arise in the revision proceedings. This includes determining whether the lower court had the proper jurisdiction to hear and decide the case and assessing whether any jurisdictional errors occurred in the lower court's exercise of its jurisdiction.

28. Review of findings of fact: The court may need to review the lower court's findings of fact. This involves considering whether the lower court's findings were supported by the evidence presented and whether there is a basis for challenging or overturning those findings.

29. Pronouncement of judgment: The court should consider the process and requirements for pronouncing the judgment in the revision proceedings. This includes determining whether the court should provide written reasons for its decision and the timeframe within which the judgment should be rendered.

30. Execution of the revision decision: The court may need to address the execution and enforcement of the revision decision. This involves considering how the revision decision will be implemented, what steps may be necessary to enforce the decision, and whether any additional orders or directions are required.

- **Kindly discuss the legal issues involved in the interim applications pending review or revision?**

1. Interim relief and stay of execution: The legal issue here pertains to the availability of interim relief, such as a stay of execution, during the pendency of a review or revision application. The applicant may seek temporary measures to prevent the enforcement of the lower court's decision until the review or revision is completed.

2. Jurisdiction and powers of the court: The legal issue involves determining the jurisdiction and powers of the court to entertain and grant interim applications pending review or revision. This may be based on specific provisions of the Judicature Act, Civil Procedure Act, and Civil Procedure Rules, which confer inherent powers on the court to grant interim relief.

3. Interpretation of constitutional provisions: The legal issue arises when there is a need to interpret specific provisions of the Constitution, such as Article 137. The Constitutional Court is vested with the power to interpret the Constitution, and the legal issue involves determining the scope and application of these interpretative powers.

4. Constitutional questions and conflicts: The legal issue pertains to the identification and resolution of constitutional questions or conflicts that require interpretation by the Constitutional Court. This may involve determining whether an act of parliament, another law, or an act/omission by a person or authority is in apparent conflict with the Constitution.

5. Prima facie violation and referral to the Constitutional Court: The legal issue involves establishing whether a petition or application to the Constitutional Court demonstrates, on the face of it, a violation of a constitutional provision. The applicant must establish a prima facie violation and its effect to justify the referral of the matter to the Constitutional Court for interpretation.

6. Jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court: The legal issue concerns the jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court, which is derived from Article 137 of the Constitution. The Constitutional Court's jurisdiction extends to petitions brought for the interpretation of the Constitution, and it has the power to grant appropriate redress in such cases.

7. Limitation period for filing petitions: The legal issue revolves around the limitation period for filing petitions before the Constitutional Court. The specific time limit for filing petitions under Article 137 may need to be determined, as it impacts the timeliness of the application and whether it complies with the applicable rules and directions.

8. Grounds for granting interim relief: The court needs to determine the grounds on which interim relief, such as a stay of execution, can be granted during the pendency of a review or revision application. This

may involve assessing the likelihood of success on the merits, irreparable harm, balance of convenience, or any other relevant factors.

9. Notice to the opposing party: The legal issue concerns the requirement to provide notice to the opposing party about the interim application and the opportunity for them to be heard. This ensures procedural fairness and allows the opposing party to respond to the application and present their arguments.

10. Duration of interim relief: The court may need to determine the duration for which the interim relief will remain in effect. This may involve setting a specific timeframe or establishing conditions under which the relief will be granted or revoked.

11. Variation or vacation of interim relief: The court should address the circumstances under which the interim relief may be varied or vacated. This may occur if there is a change in circumstances, new evidence emerges, or the court deems it appropriate based on the facts of the case.

12. Interplay with other legal remedies: The legal issue involves considering how the interim relief pending review or revision interacts with other available legal remedies. This may include assessing whether the applicant has exhausted alternative remedies or whether the interim relief can coexist with other ongoing proceedings.

13. Compliance with procedural requirements: The court needs to ensure that the interim application complies with the relevant procedural requirements, such as the proper form, filing deadlines, and documentation. Failure to meet these requirements may result in the dismissal or rejection of the application.

14. Review of the lower court's decision: The court may need to review the lower court's decision to determine whether there are arguable grounds for review or revision. This may involve examining the record of the lower court proceedings, assessing the legal errors alleged, and considering the likelihood of success on the merits.

15. Preservation of rights and interests: The legal issue pertains to the protection of the rights and interests of all parties involved during the interim period. The court must balance the interests of the applicant seeking relief with the potential harm or prejudice that may be caused to the opposing party.

16. Standard of review: The court needs to determine the appropriate standard of review for the interim application. This may involve assessing whether the court should apply a prima facie standard, a balance of probabilities, or any other standard based on the nature of the case and the relief sought.

17. Applicable legal test: The court may need to apply a specific legal test to determine the merits of the interim application. This may involve analyzing factors such as the likelihood of success on the underlying review or revision, the potential for irreparable harm, or the public interest considerations involved.

18. Preservation of assets: In cases where there is a risk of dissipation of assets or harm to the applicant's interests, the court may need to consider granting interim relief to preserve the status quo and protect the applicant's rights pending the review or revision.

19. Availability of alternative remedies: The court should consider whether there are alternative remedies available to the applicant that may be more appropriate or effective in addressing their concerns. This may include seeking injunctive relief, filing an appeal, or pursuing other legal avenues.

20. Evidence and affidavit requirements: The court may require the applicant to provide supporting evidence and file a detailed affidavit outlining the grounds for the interim application. Compliance with the rules regarding evidence and affidavit requirements is crucial for the court to assess the merits of the application.

21. Role of case law and precedent: The court may rely on existing case law and precedent to guide its decision on the interim application. This may involve considering similar cases where interim relief was granted or denied and assessing the relevant legal principles established in those cases.

22. Discretion of the court: The court's decision to grant or deny interim relief is often discretionary. The legal issue involves understanding the factors that the court may consider in exercising its discretion and the extent to which the court's decision is subject to review.

23. Implications for ongoing proceedings: The court should consider the potential impact of granting interim relief on the ongoing proceedings and the parties involved. This includes assessing whether the relief may prejudice the opposing party or unduly delay the resolution of the underlying dispute.

**Discuss Legal issues in interim applications pending review or revision:**

1. Entitlement to interim relief: Applicants may seek interim relief, such as a stay of execution, during the pendency of the review or revision process.



2. Applicable provisions: The application may be made under Section 33 of the Judicature Act, Section 98 of the Civil Procedure Act, and Order 52 of the Civil Procedure Rules, which involve the inherent power of the court.

3. Article 126(2)(e) of the Constitution: In the case of *Kasiry Byaruhanga & Co. Advocates v Uganda Development Bank*, the court held that reliance on Article 126(2)(e) requires the litigant to demonstrate that it was not desirable to pay undue regard to the relevant provisions. It is not a tool for defaulting litigants.

4. Difference between review and revision: As per *AG & Anor v. James Mark Kamoga & Anor*, the High Court has supervisory jurisdiction to revise decisions of subordinate Magistrate's Courts, while Section 82 of the Civil Procedure Act empowers the High Court to review decisions. The conditions and principles applicable to their exercise differ.

5. Jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court: Article 137 of the Constitution grants the Constitutional Court the power to interpret the constitution. Various articles, such as 137, 50, 2, 4, 40, 119, 152, 153, 154, 159, and 163, are relevant. The Rules of the Constitutional Court (Petitions for Declarations under Article 137 of the Constitution) Legal Notice No. 4 of 1996 should also be considered.

6. Requirements for constitutional interpretation: In *Mbabalijude v Edward Sekandi*, it was held that a constitutional question arises when there is an issue requiring an interpretation of the constitution for the resolution of the cause. There must be an apparent conflict with the constitution, and the dispute's resolution depends on the constitutional court's interpretation.

7. Violation of constitutional provision: In *Ismail Serugo v. Kampala City Council*, it was stated that the petition must demonstrate on its face that a provision has been violated. The applicant must show prima facie the alleged violation and its effect before referring the question to the constitutional court.

8. Jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court: The jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court is derived from Article 137 of the Constitution. An application for redress can be made in the context of a petition brought for the interpretation of the Constitution. Clauses (3) and (4) of Article 137 empower the Constitutional Court to grant appropriate redress.

9. Limitation period: The limitation period for filing a petition under the Constitutional Court is not specified in Article 137(3)(a) of the Constitution. In *Fox Odoi-Oyewolo & Anor v. AG*, it was held that the objection based on a 30-day limit was overruled. The specific time limit is governed by the rules, currently The Judicature (Rules of the Constitutional Court) (Petitions for Declarations under Article 137 of the Constitution) Directions.

**Discuss The legal issues raised in the mentioned Constitutional Petitions:**

1. Law Applicable: The petitions are brought under Article 137(3) of the 1995 Constitution of Uganda and Rule 3 of the Constitutional Court (Petitions and References) Rules 2005. These provisions outline the form and contents of the petition and establish the jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court.

2. Locus: Article 137(3) of the Constitution permits any person, whether aggrieved or not, to bring a constitutional petition. The jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court to interpret and construe constitutional provisions is emphasized in the case of Paul Kawanga Ssemwogerere & Others v. Attorney General. The court's jurisdiction to interpret the Constitution is distinct from its power to declare a provision void. The court has the responsibility to construe and harmonize provisions of the Constitution, even if they may appear to be conflicting, with the aim of effectuating the purpose of the instrument.

3. Grounds for Petition: The petitions seek the court's interpretation of specific constitutional provisions in light of acts or legislation. Article 137(3) allows for petitions to be filed when there is an alleged inconsistency or contravention of a provision of the Constitution by an act of Parliament, any other law, or an act or omission by any person or authority. The petitions aim to obtain a declaration of inconsistency and seek appropriate redress.

4. Jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court: The Constitutional Court, as specified in Article 137(1), has jurisdiction to determine any question regarding the interpretation of the Constitution. Its jurisdiction is unlimited and unfettered when it comes to interpreting the Constitution. The court is empowered to refer any question arising in proceedings before any other court to the Constitutional Court for decision.

5. Purpose of Constitutional Interpretation: The Constitutional Court has the responsibility to harmonize constitutional provisions and construe them in a way that complements one another. The integrated and cohesive nature of the Constitution requires that all provisions relating to a particular subject be considered and interpreted together to effectuate the purpose of the instrument. The court's interpretation serves as guidance for authorities, and if necessary, amendments may be made to achieve harmonization.

6. Procedure and Relief: Article 137(3) provides for the procedure of filing a constitutional petition and seeking a declaration of inconsistency and redress, where appropriate. The petitions are aimed at challenging the inconsistency of an act of Parliament or any other law with the Constitution or the contravention of a constitutional provision by an act or omission of any person or authority.

**Discuss The legal issues raised in the mentioned Constitutional Petitions are as follows:**

1. Law Applicable: The petitions are brought under Article 137(3) of the 1995 Constitution of Uganda and Rule 3 of the Constitutional Court (Petitions and References) Rules 2005. These provisions outline the form and contents of the petition and establish the jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court.

2. Locus: Article 137(3) of the Constitution permits any person, whether aggrieved or not, to bring a constitutional petition. The jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court to interpret and construe constitutional provisions is emphasized in the case of Paul Kawanga Ssemwogerere & Others v. Attorney General. The court's jurisdiction to interpret the Constitution is distinct from its power to declare a provision void. The court has the responsibility to construe and harmonize provisions of the Constitution, even if they may appear to be conflicting, with the aim of effectuating the purpose of the instrument.

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6. Procedure and Relief: Article 137(3) provides for the procedure of filing a constitutional petition and seeking a declaration of inconsistency and redress, where appropriate. The petitions are aimed at challenging the inconsistency of an act of Parliament or any other law with the Constitution or the contravention of a constitutional provision by an act or omission of any person or authority.

### **Summarize of the legal issues in the Constitutional Petitions:**

1. Law Applicable: The petitions are brought under Article 137(3) of the 1995 Constitution of Uganda and Rule 3 of the Constitutional Court (Petitions and References) Rules 2005, which outline the applicable legal framework and the requirements for the form and contents of the petition.



2. Locus: Article 137(3) permits any person, whether aggrieved or not, to bring a constitutional petition. The jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court to interpret or construe constitutional provisions is highlighted in the case of Paul Kawanga Ssemwogerere & Others v. Attorney General. The court has the power to declare provisions of the constitution void, but the jurisdiction to interpret and declare provisions void are considered as two different things.

3. Jurisdiction of the Constitutional Court: Article 137(1) grants the Constitutional Court the jurisdiction to determine any question regarding the interpretation of the constitution. The court's jurisdiction is unlimited and unfettered, and it has the responsibility to interpret and harmonize constitutional provisions brought before it, even if they appear to be conflicting. The court must ensure that the constitution is read as an integrated and cohesive whole.

4. Petition and Declaration: Article 137(3) allows any person alleging inconsistency or contravention of a provision of the constitution to petition the Constitutional Court for a declaration to that effect and seek appropriate redress.

5. Constitutional Interpretation: Constitutional interpretation involves harmonizing provisions of the constitution that pertain to the same subject, aiming to complement rather than contradict each other. The Constitutional Court has the authority and responsibility to interpret and pronounce on provisions brought before it, even if they are inconsistent with each other. Through this process, the court can guide authorities to achieve harmonization through amendments.

6. Procedural Considerations: The procedures for filing a petition and seeking a declaration are outlined in Article 137(3). The typical relief sought in such petitions is a declaration of inconsistency or contravention and, where possible, redress.

7. Questions of Constitutional Interpretation: Constitutional petitions can arise from the inconsistency of an act of parliament with the provisions of the constitution or from acts or omissions by any power or authority that contravene constitutional provisions.

**The legal issues involved in the proceedings in a court of law, other than a field court martial, can be summarized as follows:**

1. Interpretation of the Constitution: The main legal issue is the interpretation of the provisions of the constitution. If a question arises in any court proceedings regarding the interpretation of the constitution, the court may refer the question to the constitutional court for a decision. The constitutional court has the jurisdiction and responsibility to interpret the constitution and provide guidance on its application.



2. Substantial question of law: The court must determine whether the question of constitutional interpretation raised in the proceedings involves a substantial question of law. If the court considers it to be a substantial question, it has the discretion to refer the question to the constitutional court for a decision. This ensures that important constitutional matters are appropriately addressed.

3. Priority of constitutional proceedings: Constitutional proceedings are given priority by the court of appeal. Once a petition or a question is made or referred to the court of appeal, it must proceed to determine the matter as soon as possible. The court may even suspend other matters pending before it to prioritize constitutional cases.

4. Procedure for filing a petition: The legal issues also include the procedural requirements for filing a petition in constitutional proceedings. This includes drafting the petition and accompanying affidavits, lodging copies of the petition at the court registry, paying requisite fees and depositing security for costs, and effecting service on all respondents within a specified timeframe.

5. Respondent's reply and service: The legal issues further involve the requirements for the respondent to file a reply if they intend to oppose the petition. The reply should be filed within a specific timeframe and accompanied by an affidavit. The respondent must also serve the reply on the petitioner promptly.

These legal issues ensure that constitutional matters are properly addressed, and the rights and provisions of the constitution are interpreted and applied correctly within the court proceedings.

6. Preservation of documents: Another legal issue is the preservation of the petition and accompanying documents. The petitioner is required to lodge copies of the petition at the court registry to ensure their preservation and availability for the court proceedings. This ensures that all relevant documents are properly maintained and can be referred to during the proceedings.

7. Security for costs: In some cases, the petitioner may be required to deposit a sum of money as security for costs. This serves as a safeguard in case the petitioner is unsuccessful in the proceedings and is ordered to pay the costs incurred by the respondent. The amount of the security for costs is usually determined by the court.

8. Service of documents: Proper service of documents is essential in constitutional proceedings. The petitioner must effect service on all respondents within a specified timeframe. If the Attorney General is not a party to the proceedings, service must also be made on them. Service ensures that all parties involved are aware of the proceedings and can respond accordingly.

9. Role of affidavits: Affidavits play a crucial role in constitutional proceedings. The petitioner is required to submit an affidavit along with the petition, providing sworn statements and supporting evidence. Similarly, the respondent is expected to file a reply accompanied by an affidavit if they intend to oppose the petition. Affidavits serve as a means of presenting factual information and supporting arguments before the court.

These legal issues help ensure that constitutional proceedings are conducted in a fair and orderly manner, with proper adherence to procedural requirements and the preservation of relevant documents. They provide a framework for addressing constitutional questions and seeking redress in court when constitutional rights or provisions are at stake.

10. Determination by the Court of Appeal: Once a petition is made or a question of constitutional interpretation is referred to the Constitutional Court, Article 137(7) specifies that the Court of Appeal shall proceed to determine the petition as soon as possible. The Court of Appeal is required to prioritize constitutional proceedings and may suspend other matters before it to give priority to the constitutional case.

11. Decision and order of the Constitutional Court: After considering the petition and the arguments presented by the parties, the Constitutional Court will make a decision on the constitutional question at hand. The court has the power to make a declaration regarding the interpretation of the constitution and may grant appropriate orders for redress if necessary. The decision of the Constitutional Court is binding on the court in which the question of constitutional interpretation arose, and that court is expected to dispose of the case in accordance with the decision of the Constitutional Court.

12. Role of legal authorities: In constitutional proceedings, legal authorities, including relevant case law and legal principles, play a significant role. They are cited and relied upon by the parties to support their arguments and positions. Legal authorities help in the interpretation and application of constitutional provisions and guide the court in reaching its decision.

Legal authorities, such as constitutional provisions, rules of court, and precedents, provide guidance and serve as references for the court in interpreting and applying the law. They contribute to the consistency, predictability, and integrity of constitutional proceedings, ensuring that decisions are based on sound legal principles and the protection of constitutional rights.

13. Drafting of the petition and affidavits: Rule 3 of the rules governing constitutional court petitions requires the petitioner to draft a petition outlining the constitutional issues at hand. Additionally, supporting affidavits may be included to provide factual evidence or support for the petitioner's claims.

14. Lodging of the petition: The petitioner is required to lodge the petition at the court registry by submitting eight copies, as stipulated in Rule 4(2) of the rules.

15. Payment of fees and security for costs: To initiate the constitutional petition, the petitioner must pay the requisite fees and deposit a sum of money, typically 200,000 shillings, as security for costs. This serves as a safeguard to ensure that the petitioner is financially accountable in case they do not succeed in their petition, as per Rule 4(3) of the rules.

16. Service of documents: The petitioner is responsible for effecting service of the petition on all respondents within five days, as outlined in Rule 5(1) of the rules. If the Attorney General is not a party to the proceedings, they must also be served. Proper service ensures that all parties are aware of the petition and have an opportunity to respond.

17. Respondent's address of service: Upon being served with the petition, the respondent has three days to file an address of service, indicating the address at which subsequent documents can be served on them. This address must also be served on the petitioner, as per Rule 6(1) of the rules.

18. Filing of reply: If the respondent intends to oppose the petition, they must file their reply within seven days after being served with the petition. The reply should be accompanied by an affidavit, providing any relevant evidence or arguments in response to the petitioner's claims. This is required under Rule 6(3) and Rule 6(5) of the rules.

19. Service of reply: Once the reply is filed, it must be served immediately on the petitioner, as per Rule 6(6) of the rules. This ensures that both parties are aware of each other's arguments and can adequately prepare for the proceedings.

These procedural requirements and steps ensure transparency, fairness, and proper presentation of arguments in constitutional proceedings. They establish a clear framework for the parties involved and promote a just and efficient resolution of constitutional questions before the court.

20. Hearing of the petition: Once the necessary documents have been filed and served, the constitutional court will schedule a hearing for the petition. During the hearing, both the petitioner and the respondent will have an opportunity to present their arguments, call witnesses if necessary, and provide further evidence to support their respective positions.

21. Constitutional interpretation: One of the key legal issues in constitutional proceedings is the interpretation of the relevant constitutional provisions. The court will analyze the language, intent, and

purpose of the constitutional provisions in question to determine their meaning and application to the case at hand. The court may also consider previous judicial decisions, legal principles, and international legal standards in its interpretation.

22. Substantial question of law: The constitutional court may exercise its discretion to refer a question of constitutional interpretation to the constitutional court if it considers the question to involve a substantial question of law. This ensures that complex or significant constitutional issues are addressed by the specialized constitutional court, promoting consistency and expertise in constitutional jurisprudence.

23. Remedies and redress: If the constitutional court finds that a constitutional violation has occurred, it has the power to grant appropriate remedies and redress. This may include issuing a declaration of the violation, ordering specific actions to be taken or ceased, or awarding compensation or damages to the aggrieved party. The court's decision on remedies aims to provide effective relief and restore constitutional rights.

24. Court of Appeal's role: The Court of Appeal plays a role in the constitutional proceedings by prioritizing and expediting the hearing and determination of the constitutional petition. Article 137(7) states that the Court of Appeal should proceed to determine the petition as soon as possible and may suspend other matters before it to prioritize the constitutional case.

25. Precedential value: The decisions and judgments of the constitutional court in these proceedings have significant precedential value. They establish legal principles and interpretations of the constitution that guide future cases and help shape the development of constitutional law in the jurisdiction.

These are some of the key legal issues and considerations involved in proceedings before a court of law, specifically in constitutional matters. Each case is unique and may involve additional complexities depending on the specific constitutional provisions, facts, and arguments put forth by the parties involved.

**Discuss the legal issues in the jurisdiction in civil matters and procedure in special tribunals dealing with civil matters, where advocates have locus:**

1. Jurisdiction: One of the key legal issues in civil matters is jurisdiction. Jurisdiction refers to the authority of a court or tribunal to hear and determine a particular case. The applicants in the mentioned case, *Wadri & 4 Ors v Dranilla*, raised the issue of jurisdiction, alleging that the trial court lacked jurisdiction or exercised jurisdiction with material illegality. Jurisdictional issues can arise when a court exceeds its authority or when there are disputes regarding the proper court or tribunal to hear a specific case.



Legal Authority: The Constitution of Uganda and relevant legislation, such as the Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules, provide the framework for determining jurisdiction in civil matters.

2. Exercise of jurisdiction with material illegality: In the mentioned case, the applicants claimed that the trial court exercised jurisdiction with material illegality. This issue refers to situations where a court makes errors or acts unlawfully in the exercise of its jurisdiction. It may involve errors in the application of the law, procedural irregularities, or violation of the principles of natural justice.

Legal Authority: The Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules govern the conduct and procedures of courts and tribunals in civil matters, and legal precedents established by higher courts provide guidance on what constitutes material illegality.

3. Jurisdiction not vested in the court: The applicants also alleged that the trial court exercised jurisdiction not vested in it. This issue arises when a court or tribunal exceeds the authority granted to it by law and deals with matters beyond its jurisdictional boundaries.

Legal Authority: The Constitution, statutes, and relevant laws define the jurisdiction of different courts and tribunals. The interpretation and application of these provisions by higher courts play a crucial role in determining whether a court has exercised jurisdiction not vested in it.

4. Revision proceedings: In the mentioned case, the applicants sought the court's order of revision. Revision is a legal procedure that allows a higher court to review and correct an erroneous decision of a lower court. It is a mechanism to rectify errors or illegalities committed by the lower court that may have affected the rights of the parties involved.

Legal Authority: The Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules provide for revision proceedings, outlining the conditions, procedures, and remedies available in cases where revision is sought. Legal precedents and court decisions further define the scope and application of revision in civil matters.

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5. Costs of the application: The applicants in the case also sought costs for the application. Costs refer to the expenses and fees incurred during legal proceedings, including court fees, advocate fees, and other expenses. The issue of costs involves determining who should bear the financial burden of the litigation.

Legal Authority: The Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules provide guidelines for awarding costs in civil matters. The court exercises its discretion in determining the amount and allocation of costs based on the circumstances of the case and applicable legal principles.

Legal authority plays a vital role in addressing these legal issues. The Constitution of Uganda, the Civil Procedure Act, the Civil Procedure Rules, and relevant legal precedents guide the interpretation and application of the law in determining jurisdiction, assessing the exercise of jurisdiction, and understanding the procedures involved in special tribunals dealing with civil matters. The specific facts and arguments presented in the case of *Wadri & 4 Ors v Dranilla* would further shape the legal issues and their resolution.

6. Special tribunals dealing with civil matters: The mention of special tribunals dealing with civil matters in which advocates have locus raises another legal issue. Special tribunals are specialized bodies established to adjudicate specific types of civil cases. These tribunals often have their own procedural rules and jurisdictional limits. The presence of advocates with locus, meaning the authority to appear and represent parties in the proceedings, indicates that legal representation is allowed and regulated within these special tribunals.

Legal Authority: The legislation or statutes creating these special tribunals would define their jurisdiction, procedures, and the role of advocates within them. Understanding the specific legislation governing these tribunals and any relevant rules or regulations is crucial in determining the legal issues that may arise and the applicable legal principles.

7. Civil Procedure Act and Civil Procedure Rules: The Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules, as mentioned earlier, provide the procedural framework for civil matters in Uganda. These laws govern the conduct of proceedings, including the drafting of petitions and affidavits, filing procedures, service of documents, timelines for responses, and other important aspects of civil litigation. Adhering to these procedural requirements is essential for a fair and efficient resolution of civil disputes.

Legal Authority: The Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules themselves serve as legal authority for understanding the procedural steps involved in civil matters. Court decisions and precedents interpreting and applying these provisions also play a significant role in determining the legal issues and guiding the conduct of proceedings.

It is important to note that the specific legal issues and their resolution may vary depending on the facts and circumstances of each case. The legal authority cited here provides a general framework for understanding the legal issues involved in jurisdiction in civil matters and the procedures in special tribunals where advocates have locus. However, a comprehensive analysis of the specific laws, regulations, and precedents applicable to a particular case is necessary to fully address the legal issues at hand.

8. Jurisdictional limitations: The issue of jurisdictional limitations may arise in the context of special tribunals dealing with civil matters. Jurisdiction refers to the power or authority of a court or tribunal to hear and decide a particular case. Special tribunals may have specific jurisdictional limits, which define the types of

cases they can hear and the extent of their authority. If a special tribunal exceeds its jurisdictional limits, it may raise a legal issue regarding the validity of its decisions.

**Legal Authority:** The legislation establishing the special tribunals would provide the jurisdictional framework and limitations for those tribunals. Analyzing the relevant statutes and any judicial interpretations can help determine the jurisdictional issues involved.

9. Material illegality and jurisdictional errors: The application in the case of *Wadri & 4 Ors v Dranilla* raises the issues of the trial court lacking jurisdiction, exercising jurisdiction with material illegality, and exercising jurisdiction not vested in it. These issues suggest that there may have been errors in the trial court's application and interpretation of the law, which can impact the validity of its orders.

**Legal Authority:** The Civil Procedure Act, other relevant legislation, and case law provide guidance on the jurisdictional requirements and the consequences of material illegality or errors in exercising jurisdiction. Court decisions interpreting and applying these legal provisions can serve as legal authority in assessing the legality of the trial court's actions.

10. Costs of the application: The request for costs in the application brings up the issue of awarding costs in civil proceedings. Costs refer to the expenses incurred during the litigation process, including legal fees, court fees, and other related expenses. The determination of costs involves assessing which party should bear the financial burden of the litigation.

**Legal Authority:** The Civil Procedure Act and the Civil Procedure Rules contain provisions regarding costs in civil proceedings. These provisions outline the factors to consider when awarding costs and the principles guiding the court's discretion in making cost orders. Precedents and case law on costs can also provide guidance on the legal issues involved.

13. Jurisdictional limitations of the trial court: One of the grounds raised in the application is that the trial court lacked jurisdiction or exceeded its jurisdiction in making the orders under challenge. Jurisdiction refers to the authority of a court to hear and determine a particular matter. If a court acts beyond its jurisdiction or lacks jurisdiction altogether, its decisions may be considered invalid.

**Legal Authority:** The Constitution, statutes, and case law define the jurisdiction of different courts and tribunals. In Uganda, the Magistrates' Courts Act and other relevant laws determine the jurisdictional limits of magistrates' courts. The application may involve analyzing these provisions and determining whether the trial court had the authority to make the orders in question.

14. Exercise of jurisdiction with material illegality: Another ground raised in the application is that the trial court exercised its jurisdiction with material illegality. This refers to situations where the court made errors or committed irregularities in the application of the law or the conduct of the proceedings, which affected the fairness and legality of the decisions.

Legal Authority: The Civil Procedure Act and case law provide guidance on what constitutes material illegality and how it may affect the exercise of jurisdiction by a court. Court decisions that have addressed similar issues can be relied upon to support arguments regarding the alleged material illegality committed by the trial court.

15. Jurisdiction not vested in the trial court: The application also asserts that the trial court exercised jurisdiction not vested in it. This means that the court may have assumed powers or decided on matters that it did not have the legal authority to handle.

Legal Authority: The applicable laws governing the jurisdiction of the trial court, such as the Magistrates' Courts Act, will be relevant in determining whether the court exceeded its jurisdiction. The interpretation of these laws and any relevant precedents can help establish whether the trial court acted beyond its authority.

The case of *Ericson v Uganda Revenue Authority* (Application TAT 67 of 2021) [2021] UGTAT 11 raises several legal issues related to the jurisdiction and procedure of the Tax Appeals Tribunal (TAT). Let's discuss these legal issues with the aid of relevant legal authorities:

#### 1. Jurisdiction of the Tax Appeals Tribunal:

The Tax Appeals Tribunal Act, Cap 345 of the Laws of Uganda establishes the jurisdiction of the TAT. Section 14(1) of the Act provides that any person aggrieved by a decision made under a taxing act by the Uganda Revenue Authority (URA) can apply to the relevant tribunal for review. The right of appeal from the TAT's decisions to the High Court is sanctioned by Section 27 of the Act. This right of appeal to the High Court is limited to questions of law only, as stated in Section 27(2) of the Act.

Legal authority: Section 14(1) and Section 27 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act, Cap 345.

#### 2. Preconditions for lodging an application with the TAT:

Before lodging an application with the TAT, certain preconditions must be fulfilled. These include:

a. Obtaining an assessment by the URA: Section 15 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act requires the taxpayer to have received an assessment from the URA.



b. Lodging a notice of objection to URA: Under Section 15(1) of the Act, the taxpayer must lodge a notice of objection to the URA within 30 days from the receipt of the decision.

c. Applying to the TAT for review: The taxpayer can apply to the TAT for a review of the URA's decision within 30 days after receiving the decision, as provided in Section 16(1)(c) of the Act. However, a taxpayer cannot challenge the URA's decision after the expiry of six months, as stated in Section 16(7) of the Act.

Legal authority: Section 15, Section 16(1)(c), and Section 16(7) of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act, Cap 345.

### 3. Procedure before the TAT:

The procedure before the TAT involves the following steps:

a. Filing the application: The taxpayer must file a written application in the prescribed form, including the statement of reasons, within three days from the receipt of the URA's decision, as per Section 16(1) of the Act.

b. Payment of a non-refundable fee: The taxpayer is required to pay a non-refundable fee of 20,000 Uganda Shillings, as provided in Section 16(5) of the Act.

c. Service of the application: A copy of the application should be served on the URA within five days from the date of lodgment, as per Section 16(3) of the Act.

d. Submission of documents by URA: Within 30 days after service of the application, the URA is required to lodge with the TAT two copies of the notice of the decision, a statement giving reasons for the decision, and any other relevant documents, as stated in Section 17(1)(a-c) of the Act.

e. Burden of proof: The burden of proof rests on the applicant to establish that the assessment is excessive or that the taxation decision should not have been made or should have been made differently, as provided in Section 18 of the Act.

f. Decision of the TAT: After the hearing and submission of evidence, the TAT shall make a decision in the presence of the parties or their advocates, as per Rule 24 of the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules.

Legal authority: Section 16, Section 17

Section 18 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act, Cap 345.

It's important to note that the legal authorities provided are based on the information given in the case citation and general legal principles. For a comprehensive analysis of the legal issues and specific legal authorities, it is advisable to consult the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act and related legislation or seek professional legal advice.

#### 4. Forum and documents before the TAT:

The application to the TAT is filed using Form T.A.T.1, as prescribed in the Tax Appeals (Tribunal Rules) SI 345-1. The application is filed in the Registry at the Tax Appeals Tribunal, as per Rule 7(1) of the Rules.

Upon receipt of the application, the registrar of the TAT dates, stamps, and signs the application. One copy is retained by the registrar, while the second and third copies are retained by the applicant for serving a copy on the decision maker (URA), as per Rule 13 of the Rules.

The decision maker (URA) is required to lodge a reply within three days after service of the application. The reply is submitted in Form T.A.T.2, along with two copies of the notice of the decision, a statement giving reasons for the decision, and any other necessary documents in the decision maker's possession, as stated in Section 17(1)(a-c) of the Act.

Hearing notices are served on the parties in the format of Form Tax Appeal Tribunal.4, as per Rule 6 of the Rules. The registrar may also issue summons, in the format of Form Tax Appeal Tribunal.5, requiring the attendance of witnesses.

If the respondent fails to appear without sufficient reason, the tribunal may issue a warrant of arrest in the format of Form Tax Appeal Tribunal.6, as per Rule 17 of the Rules.

After the hearing and submission of evidence, the TAT will make a decision in the presence of the parties or their advocates. The decision will include the nature of the application, a summary of the evidence, the reasons for the decision, the relief or remedy to which the applicant is entitled, and orders as to costs, as provided in Rule 25 of the Rules.

#### 5. Application of rules of practice:

If the Tax Appeals Tribunal Rules do not provide for a specific matter, Rule 30 of the Rules states that the rules of practice will apply. This means that in the absence of a specific provision, general principles of legal practice and procedure will guide the proceedings.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals (Tribunal Rules) SI 345-1, Rule 30.

It's important to note that the provided information is a summary and should not be considered as legal advice. For a comprehensive understanding of the legal issues and specific legal authorities, it is advisable to consult the relevant legislation and seek professional legal assistance.

#### 6. Right of appeal:

Section 27 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345 provides a right of appeal from the decisions of the Tax Appeals Tribunal to the High Court. However, this right of appeal is limited to questions of law only, as specified in Section 27(2) of the Act. This means that the High Court will review the legal aspects of the case rather than re-evaluating the factual findings made by the Tax Appeals Tribunal.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345, Section 27.

#### 7. Preconditions for lodging an application:

Before lodging an application with the Tax Appeals Tribunal, certain preconditions must be fulfilled. Firstly, the taxpayer should have received an assessment by the Uganda Revenue Authority (URA), as stated in Section 15 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

Secondly, the taxpayer is required to lodge a notice of objection to the URA within 30 days of receiving the decision, as outlined in Section 15(1) of the Act. Failure to comply with this time limit may result in the application being deemed void.

Thirdly, within 30 days of receiving the decision from the URA, the taxpayer can apply to the Tax Appeals Tribunal for a review of the decision, as provided in Section 16(1)(c) of the Act. However, it is important to note that a taxpayer cannot challenge the URA's decision after the expiry of six months, as stipulated in Section 16(7) of the Act.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345, Sections 15, 16.

#### 8. Burden of proof:

According to Section 18 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345, the burden of proof lies with the applicant. If the objection is in relation to an assessment, the applicant must prove that the assessment is excessive. In any other case, the applicant must demonstrate that the taxation decision should not have been made or should have been made differently.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345, Section 18.

#### 9. Procedure:

The procedure for lodging an application with the Tax Appeals Tribunal is outlined in the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules and the Civil Procedure Rules. The taxpayer is required to file a written application in the prescribed form, including a statement of reasons for the application, within three days from the date of receipt of the URA's decision, as stated in Section 16(1) of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

The taxpayer must pay a non-refundable fee of 20,000 Ugandan shillings in respect of the application, as provided in Section 16(5) of the Act. The application should be served on the URA within five days from the date of lodgment, as specified in Section 16(3) of the Act.

Upon receiving the application, the registrar of the Tax Appeals Tribunal dates, stamps, and signs it. Copies of the application are retained by the registrar, the applicant, and the URA. The URA is then required to lodge a reply within three days after service of the application, including the notice of the decision, statement of reasons, and other relevant documents, as stated in Section 17(1)(a-c) of the Act.

Once the application and reply have been filed, the registrar issues hearing notices to the parties, summoning them to attend the tribunal. Witnesses may be summoned to testify, and the tribunal has the power to issue a warrant of arrest for witnesses who fail to appear without sufficient reason, as provided in the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules.

After the hearing and submission of evidence, the tribunal makes a decision in the presence of the parties or their advocates. The decision includes a summary of the evidence, reasons for the decision, relief or remedy granted, and orders as to costs, as outlined in the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345, Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules, Civil Procedure Rules SI 71-1.

#### 10. Forum and documents:



The application is filed in the prescribed format, Form T.A.T.1, at the Tax Appeals Tribunal Registry, as per Rule 7(1) of the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules. The registrar dates, stamps, and retains a copy of the application, while the applicant serves a copy on the URA within the specified time frame, as required by Rule 13 of the rules.

The Tax Appeals Tribunal follows specific forms for various documents, such as the notice of decision (Form Tax Appeals Tribunal 3) and the hearing notice (Form Tax Appeals Tribunal 4), as provided in the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules. The registrar issues summons to witnesses in the format of Form Tax Appeals Tribunal 5, and in case of non-compliance, a warrant of arrest may be issued using Form Tax Appeals Tribunal 6.

In case the respondent fails to appear, the tribunal proceeds to hear the application and adjourns the hearing upon completion. Once the decision is made, copies are served on each party, including the reasons for the decision, relief or remedy granted, and orders as to costs, as stipulated in Rule 24 of the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules.

#### 11. Right of Appeal:

Section 27 of the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345 provides for a right of appeal from the decisions of the Tax Appeals Tribunal to the High Court. However, this right of appeal is limited to questions of law only, as stated in Section 27(2) of the Act. Therefore, a party aggrieved by a decision of the Tax Appeals Tribunal can seek recourse through the appellate process by appealing to the High Court on questions of law arising from the tribunal's decision.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

#### 12. Compliance and Enforcement:

Once the Tax Appeals Tribunal has made a decision, it is binding on the parties involved. The URA is required to comply with the tribunal's decision and take appropriate actions in accordance with the decision. Failure to comply with the tribunal's decision can lead to enforcement measures, including penalties and legal consequences.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

#### 13. Specialized Arbitration:

The establishment of the Tax Appeals Tribunal serves as a specialized court to provide taxpayers with easily accessible, efficient, and independent arbitration in tax disputes with the URA. The tribunal's objective is to enhance taxpayer compliance and smoothen revenue collection by offering a fair and impartial resolution mechanism for tax-related matters.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

It is important to note that the specific legal issues and authorities discussed in the case of Ericson v Uganda Revenue Authority (Application TAT 67 of 2021) may differ based on the facts and circumstances of the case. Therefore, for a comprehensive understanding and accurate analysis of the legal issues involved, it is advisable to refer to the complete judgment and consult with legal professionals familiar with Ugandan tax laws and the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act.

#### 14. Dispute Resolution Process:

The Tax Appeals Tribunal provides a structured dispute resolution process for taxpayers to challenge decisions made by the Uganda Revenue Authority (URA) in tax matters. This process includes filing an application within a specified time frame, paying the required fee, and serving the application on the URA. Both the taxpayer and the URA are given an opportunity to present their case, provide evidence, and make submissions before the Tribunal. The Tribunal then reviews the evidence, considers the arguments, and issues a decision based on the merits of the case.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

#### 15. Burden of Proof:

In tax disputes brought before the Tax Appeals Tribunal, the burden of proof rests on the applicant (taxpayer). It is the responsibility of the applicant to provide evidence and demonstrate that the assessment made by the URA is excessive or that the taxation decision should not have been made or should have been made differently. The applicant must present a compelling case and support it with relevant documents and testimonies.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

#### 16. Application Procedure:

The procedure for lodging an application with the Tax Appeals Tribunal is governed by the Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules, as provided for in the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345. The rules outline the format of the application, the timelines for filing and serving the application, the requirement to pay a non-refundable fee, and the exchange of documents between the parties. The rules also address matters such as the issuance of hearing notices, summoning witnesses, and the issuance of the Tribunal's decision.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals (Procedure) Rules SI 345-1.

#### 17. Remedies and Orders:

Upon reviewing the evidence and considering the arguments presented by both parties, the Tax Appeals Tribunal has the power to make various decisions, including affirming, varying, or setting aside the decision of the URA. The Tribunal may also grant appropriate remedies or relief to the applicant, such as adjusting the tax assessment, ordering a refund, or imposing penalties or interest. Additionally, the Tribunal has the authority to make orders regarding costs associated with the proceedings.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

#### 18. Right of Appeal:

In the event that a party is dissatisfied with the decision of the Tax Appeals Tribunal, the Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345 provides for a right of appeal. Section 27 of the Act allows for an appeal to the High Court on questions of law only. This means that parties can challenge the Tribunal's decision based on legal interpretations or errors in the application of the law. The appeal must be filed within the specified time frame and follow the procedural requirements set out by the High Court.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

#### 19. Precedent and Case Law:

The decisions made by the Tax Appeals Tribunal, as well as any subsequent appeals to the High Court, can establish precedents and case law that guide future tax disputes. These precedents help to ensure consistency, predictability, and fairness in the application of tax laws. Parties involved in tax appeals should be mindful of relevant precedents and case law when presenting their arguments and advocating for their position.

Legal authority: Case law and precedents established by the Tax Appeals Tribunal and the High Court.

#### 20. Role of Legal Representation:

Taxpayers appearing before the Tax Appeals Tribunal have the right to be represented by advocates, legal practitioners, or tax consultants who have locus (standing) to appear on their behalf. Legal representation can provide valuable expertise and guidance throughout the proceedings, ensuring that the taxpayer's case is presented effectively and in accordance with the relevant laws and procedures.

Legal authority: Tax Appeals Tribunal Act cap 345.

It is important to note that the information provided here is a general overview and may not cover all the intricacies and specific details of tax appeals before the Tax Appeals Tribunal in Uganda. The applicable laws, regulations, and procedures may evolve or change over time, so it is crucial to consult the current legislation and seek professional legal advice for accurate and up-to-date information in your specific case.

Discuss issues can be identified in relation to the Uganda Human Rights Commission:

1. **Composition and Appointment:** The issue of the composition and appointment of the members of the Uganda Human Rights Commission arises. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, the President appoints the chairperson and other members of the commission with the approval of Parliament. The requirement for the chairperson to be a Judge of the High Court or a qualified person raises the question of the independence and impartiality of the commission members.

2. **Terms of Office:** The issue of the term of office for the members of the Uganda Human Rights Commission arises. The Constitution specifies that the term is six years, and members can be eligible for reappointment. This raises concerns about the stability and continuity of the commission's work if there is a frequent turnover of members.

3. **Functions and Powers:** The issue of the functions and powers of the Uganda Human Rights Commission arises. The commission is granted various functions, such as investigating human rights violations, visiting places of detention, conducting research and education programs, recommending measures to promote human rights, and monitoring the government's compliance with international obligations. However, the effectiveness and enforcement of these functions and powers may be subject to limitations and constraints.

4. **Redress Mechanisms:** The issue of redress mechanisms for human rights violations arises. Article 50 of the Constitution provides individuals with the right to apply to a court of competent jurisdiction for redress if their rights have been infringed. Additionally, Article 53(2)(c) empowers the Human Rights Commission to order compensation or other legal remedies or redress. The effectiveness and accessibility of these mechanisms may be a concern, including issues related to the availability of competent tribunals and the enforcement of decisions.



5. Operational Guidelines and Rules of Procedure: The issue of establishing operational guidelines and rules of procedure for the Uganda Human Rights Commission arises. The commission is required to establish its operational guidelines and rules of procedure to govern its activities. The transparency, fairness, and adherence to the principles of natural justice in formulating and implementing these guidelines and rules are crucial for the effective functioning of the commission.

6. Compliance with International Obligations: The issue of monitoring the government's compliance with international treaty and convention obligations on human rights arises. The Uganda Human Rights Commission is tasked with monitoring the government's compliance with international human rights obligations. Ensuring that the commission has the necessary resources, authority, and independence to effectively carry out this function is essential for upholding human rights standards in the country.

7. Publication of Reports: The issue of the publication of reports by the Uganda Human Rights Commission arises. The Constitution imposes a duty on the commission to publish periodic reports on its findings and submit annual reports to Parliament regarding the state of human rights and freedoms in the country. The accessibility and dissemination of these reports to the public are crucial for promoting transparency and accountability.

8. Relationship with Government: The issue of the relationship between the Uganda Human Rights Commission and the government arises. The commission may face challenges in maintaining independence and autonomy while fulfilling its mandate, especially when investigating human rights violations involving government entities. Ensuring that the commission can operate without interference and with sufficient resources is essential for its effectiveness.

It is important to note that a comprehensive analysis of the legal issues in the Uganda Human Rights Commission would require a detailed examination of the relevant legislation, case law, and the specific context of human rights protection in Uganda. Consulting legal experts and examining the current state of affairs would provide a more accurate and up-to-date assessment of the legal issues at hand.

9. Protection of Inherent Rights: Article 2 of the Constitution emphasizes that all rights are inherent in individuals and not granted by the state. This provision highlights the fundamental nature of human rights and their protection as a core principle. The Uganda Human Rights Commission plays a crucial role in safeguarding and promoting these inherent rights by investigating violations and providing redress.

10. International Human Rights Instruments: The Constitution recognizes that international instruments ratified by Uganda form the cornerstone of protecting individuals' rights. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) is specifically mentioned as a relevant international instrument. This implies that the commission should consider the provisions of the UDHR and other ratified treaties when assessing human rights violations.

11. Lodging Complaints and Seeking Redress: The Constitution and the Uganda Human Rights Commission Act provide avenues for individuals to lodge complaints regarding human rights violations. Article 50 of the Constitution guarantees the right to seek redress through the courts, while the commission itself can receive complaints and initiate investigations. The effectiveness and accessibility of these complaint mechanisms are crucial for ensuring justice and accountability.

12. Vicarious Liability and Government Proceedings: When lodging a complaint against a government organ, the principle of vicarious liability comes into play. Section 10 of the Government Proceedings Act establishes the legal principle that the government can be held accountable for the actions of its officials. This principle provides a basis for seeking redress from the government for human rights violations committed by its organs or representatives.

13. Civil Procedure Rules: The Civil Procedure Rules, specifically referred to as SI 71-1, may be relevant to the legal process when seeking redress for human rights violations. These rules govern the conduct of civil proceedings, including matters related to evidence, procedure, and remedies. Understanding and applying these rules correctly is essential for ensuring a fair and effective legal process.

14. Compliance with the Constitution: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a vital role in ensuring compliance with the Constitution. This includes not only investigating human rights violations but also educating the public about their constitutional rights and encouraging their defense against all forms of abuse. By promoting awareness and understanding of constitutional provisions, the commission contributes to the protection and promotion of human rights in Uganda.

15. Rule of Natural Justice: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is required to observe the rules of natural justice in the performance of its functions. The principles of natural justice, such as the right to a fair hearing and impartial decision-making, ensure procedural fairness and protect individuals' rights. Adhering to these principles is essential for maintaining the credibility and integrity of the commission's investigations and decisions.

16. Cooperation and Assistance: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is empowered to request the assistance of any department, bureau, office, agency, or person in the performance of its functions. This provision underscores the importance of cooperation and collaboration among various stakeholders in upholding and protecting human rights. The commission's ability to seek assistance from relevant entities contributes to the effectiveness and efficiency of its work.

17. Annual Reports and Findings: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is obligated to submit annual reports to Parliament on the state of human rights and freedoms in the country. Additionally, the commission is required to publish periodic reports on its findings. These reports serve as a means of transparency and

accountability, providing insight into the human rights situation in Uganda and informing necessary actions for improvement.

18. Resources and Independence: The effective functioning of the Uganda Human Rights Commission relies on adequate resources and independence. Sufficient resources, both financial and human, are necessary to carry out investigations, research, education programs, and other mandated activities. Additionally, the commission must be independent from undue influence to ensure impartiality and integrity in its operations.

19. Relationship with Parliament: The Uganda Human Rights Commission's relationship with Parliament is significant as it requires the approval of Parliament for the appointment of its members. The commission's obligation to submit reports to Parliament enhances parliamentary oversight and engagement with human rights issues. A constructive relationship with Parliament strengthens the commission's mandate and facilitates the implementation of its recommendations.

20. Human Rights Education and Awareness: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a role in formulating and implementing programs to create awareness among citizens about their civic duties and human rights. Through education and awareness initiatives, the commission contributes to empowering individuals to understand and exercise their rights, fostering a culture of respect for human rights within society.

It is important to consult the specific provisions of the mentioned legal authorities, including the Constitution of Uganda, the Uganda Human Rights Commission Act, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, for a comprehensive understanding of the legal issues and implications related to the Uganda Human Rights Commission.

21. Coordination with International Obligations: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is tasked with monitoring the government's compliance with international treaty and convention obligations on human rights. This includes ensuring that Uganda upholds its commitments under ratified international human rights instruments. The commission plays a crucial role in coordinating with international bodies and mechanisms to promote and protect human rights at the national level.

22. Public Awareness and Engagement: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a responsibility to create and sustain awareness within society regarding the provisions of the constitution and human rights. Through public education and engagement initiatives, the commission strives to empower individuals to be vigilant in defending their rights and understanding their obligations. Public awareness campaigns contribute to a more informed and rights-conscious society.



23. **Non-Discrimination and Equality:** The protection of human rights requires addressing issues of discrimination and promoting equality. The Uganda Human Rights Commission should actively work to combat discrimination based on various grounds, such as race, ethnicity, gender, religion, or disability. By addressing discriminatory practices and promoting equality, the commission contributes to the realization of human rights for all individuals.

24. **Cooperation with Civil Society Organizations:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission can benefit from collaborating with civil society organizations (CSOs) in its work. CSOs often play a crucial role in promoting and protecting human rights at the grassroots level. The commission can engage with CSOs in areas such as investigations, advocacy, and public awareness campaigns to enhance the effectiveness and impact of its activities.

25. **Monitoring and Accountability:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission's role in monitoring the government's compliance with human rights obligations includes holding public officials accountable for human rights violations. This can involve investigating allegations of misconduct, abuse, or violations of rights by state actors. The commission's findings and recommendations contribute to fostering a culture of accountability and ensuring that human rights are respected and upheld.

26. **Evolving Legal Landscape:** It is important to note that the legal landscape concerning human rights may evolve over time. New laws, court decisions, or changes in international human rights standards can impact the work of the Uganda Human Rights Commission. Staying up to date with legal developments and adapting to emerging challenges is crucial for the commission to effectively address contemporary human rights issues.

27. **Public Trust and Independence:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission must strive to maintain public trust and confidence in its independence, impartiality, and integrity. Upholding high moral character and proven integrity among its members, as required by the Constitution, is essential for ensuring that the commission carries out its functions effectively and with credibility.

28. **International Cooperation and Reporting:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a role in international cooperation and reporting on human rights issues. This may involve engaging with international human rights bodies, participating in relevant conferences and forums, and contributing to the reporting obligations of Uganda under international human rights treaties. Collaboration with international partners and sharing best practices can enhance the effectiveness of the commission's work.

29. **Capacity Building:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission may engage in capacity building efforts to strengthen human rights protection within the country. This can include providing training and support to government officials, law enforcement agencies, civil society organizations, and other stakeholders involved



in promoting and protecting human rights. By enhancing the capacity of relevant actors, the commission contributes to the overall advancement of human rights in Uganda.

30. **Ensuring Non-Retaliation:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission should take measures to ensure the protection of individuals who file complaints or cooperate with the commission's investigations. Safeguarding against any form of retaliation or intimidation is crucial to foster an environment where individuals feel safe to come forward and report human rights violations. The commission can establish mechanisms to provide confidentiality and protect the rights of complainants and witnesses.

31. **Follow-up and Implementation of Recommendations:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission's effectiveness relies on the follow-up and implementation of its recommendations. The commission should actively monitor the implementation of its recommendations by relevant authorities and hold them accountable for taking necessary actions. Regular communication and engagement with government entities, civil society, and other stakeholders are important for ensuring the implementation of human rights reforms.

32. **Gender Equality and Women's Rights:** The promotion of gender equality and the protection of women's rights should be a priority for the Uganda Human Rights Commission. Addressing gender-based discrimination, violence against women, and ensuring equal opportunities for women in all spheres of life are essential for achieving a just and inclusive society. The commission can undertake specific initiatives to advance gender equality and women's rights in line with international standards.

33. **Access to Justice:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission can contribute to improving access to justice for all individuals, particularly marginalized and vulnerable groups. This includes ensuring that legal remedies and redress mechanisms are accessible, affordable, and effective. The commission can work towards removing barriers to justice, such as providing legal aid services, raising awareness about available remedies, and promoting alternative dispute resolution methods.

34. **Protection of Children's Rights:** Protecting and promoting the rights of children should be a key focus for the Uganda Human Rights Commission. This involves addressing child labor, child abuse, access to education, and other issues affecting children's well-being. The commission can collaborate with relevant government agencies, civil society organizations, and international partners to advocate for and safeguard children's rights.

35. **Monitoring Emergency Situations and Conflict:** During times of emergency or conflict, the Uganda Human Rights Commission should closely monitor the human rights situation and take appropriate action. This includes investigating human rights abuses, advocating for the protection of civilians, and working towards the restoration of peace and stability. The commission's role becomes crucial in ensuring the respect for human rights in challenging circumstances.

It is essential to consider that the legal issues and priorities for the Uganda Human Rights Commission may evolve over time. Staying informed about emerging human rights challenges, engaging with stakeholders, and adapting strategies accordingly are vital for the commission's ongoing effectiveness in protecting and promoting human rights in Uganda.

36. Collaboration with National Institutions: The Uganda Human Rights Commission can collaborate with other national institutions, such as the judiciary, law enforcement agencies, and the National Human Rights Institution (NHRI), to strengthen human rights protection. Cooperation and information sharing between these institutions can contribute to a more coordinated and comprehensive approach in addressing human rights issues and ensuring effective remedies for violations.

37. Protection of Freedom of Expression: Safeguarding freedom of expression is crucial for the protection of human rights. The Uganda Human Rights Commission can actively advocate for and monitor the respect for freedom of speech, media freedom, and access to information. Addressing restrictions on freedom of expression, including harassment or attacks on journalists or media outlets, is essential for maintaining an open and inclusive democratic society.

38. Protection of Minority Rights: The Uganda Human Rights Commission should pay particular attention to the rights of minority groups, including ethnic, religious, linguistic, and sexual minorities. Protecting and promoting the rights of these marginalized communities contributes to the overall respect for human rights and diversity within society. The commission can work to address discrimination, promote inclusivity, and advocate for the equal enjoyment of rights by all individuals, irrespective of their minority status.

39. Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights: In addition to civil and political rights, the Uganda Human Rights Commission should also address economic, social, and cultural rights. These rights include access to education, healthcare, housing, and a decent standard of living. Monitoring and advocating for the fulfillment of these rights can contribute to the overall well-being and dignity of individuals and communities in Uganda.

40. Intersectionality and Multiple Forms of Discrimination: The Uganda Human Rights Commission should recognize and address the intersecting forms of discrimination that individuals may face based on various grounds, such as gender, ethnicity, disability, or socioeconomic status. Understanding the interconnected nature of different forms of discrimination and adopting an intersectional approach is crucial for promoting inclusive and comprehensive human rights protection.

41. Public Participation and Consultations: The Uganda Human Rights Commission can engage in public consultations and actively seek the participation of civil society organizations, communities, and individuals in its work. Involving diverse voices and perspectives enhances the commission's understanding of human rights issues on the ground and strengthens the legitimacy of its findings and recommendations.

42. **Accountability for Human Rights Violations:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission plays a crucial role in promoting accountability for human rights violations. This includes advocating for the prosecution of perpetrators, supporting victims in accessing justice and reparations, and monitoring the implementation of court decisions related to human rights. Holding individuals and institutions accountable for human rights abuses contributes to the prevention of future violations.

43. **Review of Legislation and Policy:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission can conduct reviews of existing legislation and policies to assess their compatibility with human rights standards. This involves analyzing laws and policies for any provisions that may be discriminatory, inconsistent with international obligations, or infringing on human rights. Recommending necessary reforms and advocating for the adoption of human rights-compliant legislation can contribute to a more rights-respecting legal framework.

44. **Monitoring Elections and Political Processes:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a role in monitoring and promoting human rights in the context of elections and political processes. This includes ensuring the right to participate in free and fair elections, addressing electoral violence and intimidation, and safeguarding political freedoms, such as the right to peaceful assembly and association. Active engagement in election monitoring helps protect democratic processes and the enjoyment of civil and political rights.

45. **International Humanitarian Law and Human Rights:** In situations of armed conflict or humanitarian crises, the Uganda Human Rights Commission can promote compliance with both international human rights law and international humanitarian law. This includes monitoring and investigating violations, advocating for the protection of civilians, and working towards the accountability of parties involved in the conflict. Upholding the principles of humanitarian law and human rights in such contexts is essential for mitigating human suffering and promoting peace.

It is important to note that the Uganda Human Rights Commission's role and responsibilities are defined by the applicable laws and regulations in force, including the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda and the Uganda Human Rights Commission Act. The commission's work should also be guided by relevant international human rights standards and obligations that Uganda has ratified. Additionally, the commission should adapt its strategies and priorities to address emerging human rights challenges and the evolving needs of individuals and communities in Uganda.

46. **Protection of Human Rights Defenders:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission should prioritize the protection of human rights defenders who play a vital role in promoting and protecting human rights. This includes monitoring and addressing threats, attacks, and harassment against defenders, as well as advocating for an enabling environment for their work. Supporting and safeguarding human rights defenders contributes to a robust civil society and the overall promotion of human rights in Uganda.



47. Prisons and Detention Monitoring: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a responsibility to regularly visit prisons, detention centers, and other places of deprivation of liberty. Through these visits, the commission can assess and monitor the conditions of detainees, ensuring their rights are respected, and make recommendations for improvements. The commission's role in detention monitoring is essential for preventing torture, inhuman treatment, and ensuring the fair treatment of individuals in custody.

48. Indigenous Rights: The Uganda Human Rights Commission should address the specific human rights concerns of indigenous communities. This includes recognizing and respecting their cultural, territorial, and land rights, as well as addressing discrimination and marginalization. Engaging with indigenous communities and incorporating their perspectives in decision-making processes is crucial for the protection and promotion of their rights.

49. Business and Human Rights: The Uganda Human Rights Commission can play a role in promoting responsible business practices that respect human rights. This involves monitoring the impact of business activities on human rights, addressing potential abuses, and encouraging businesses to adopt and implement human rights policies. Collaboration with relevant stakeholders, including the private sector and civil society, can contribute to advancing the business and human rights agenda in Uganda.

50. Education and Human Rights: The Uganda Human Rights Commission should prioritize human rights education as a means to create a rights-conscious society. Promoting human rights education in schools, universities, and other educational institutions can foster a culture of respect for human rights among the younger generation. The commission can develop educational materials, conduct training programs, and collaborate with the Ministry of Education to integrate human rights education into the curriculum.

51. Protection of Refugees and Asylum Seekers: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a role in promoting and protecting the rights of refugees and asylum seekers in Uganda. This includes ensuring their access to asylum procedures, addressing issues of discrimination and xenophobia, and advocating for their socio-economic integration. Collaboration with relevant government agencies, international organizations, and civil society is crucial for effective protection of refugee rights.

52. Transitional Justice and Reconciliation: The Uganda Human Rights Commission can contribute to transitional justice efforts in post-conflict situations. This involves supporting truth-telling processes, reparations for victims, and facilitating dialogue and reconciliation among affected communities. The commission's involvement in transitional justice initiatives is important for healing wounds, promoting accountability, and preventing

### **Summary of Legal Issues in the Uganda Human Rights Commission:**



1. Constitutional Establishment: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is established by the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, with a structure comprising a chairperson and other members appointed by the president with the approval of parliament. The commission members must possess high moral character and proven integrity.

2. Functions of the Commission: The commission is entrusted with various functions, including investigating human rights violations, visiting prisons and detention centers to assess conditions and make recommendations, conducting research and education programs on human rights, recommending measures to promote human rights, raising awareness of constitutional provisions, promoting civic duties, monitoring government compliance with international obligations, and performing other functions as provided by law.

3. Reporting Obligations: The commission has a duty to publish periodic reports on its findings and submit annual reports to Parliament regarding the state of human rights and freedoms in the country.

4. Redress Mechanisms: Article 50 of the constitution grants individuals the right to seek redress in a court of competent jurisdiction if their rights have been infringed. The commission has the power to order compensation or other legal remedies if satisfied with the evidence presented. Individuals can also apply to the commission for redress in case of human rights violations.

5. International Instruments: Uganda recognizes that human rights are inherent in individuals and not granted by the state. Therefore, the commission considers the Constitution's Bill of Rights, relevant articles, and international instruments ratified by Uganda as important sources for protection of individual rights.

6. Effective Remedy: Article 8 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights emphasizes the right to an effective remedy by a competent national tribunal for acts violating fundamental rights granted by law. This principle guides the commission in addressing human rights violations.

7. Vicarious Liability: When lodging a complaint against a government organ, individuals can invoke the principle of vicarious liability as outlined in section 10 of the Government Proceedings Act. This principle holds the government responsible for the actions of its organs, providing a legal basis for seeking redress.

Overall, the Uganda Human Rights Commission operates within the legal framework established by the Constitution, relevant legislation, and international human rights standards. Its main responsibilities include investigation, monitoring, education, advocacy, and redress in cases of human rights violations.

8. Independence and Impartiality: The Uganda Human Rights Commission must maintain independence and impartiality in carrying out its functions. This includes avoiding any influence or interference from external parties, such as the government or other entities, to ensure the commission can objectively address human rights violations.

9. Operational Guidelines and Rules of Procedure: The commission is required to establish its operational guidelines and rules of procedure. These guidelines provide a framework for conducting investigations, handling complaints, and ensuring transparency and fairness in the commission's processes.

10. Collaboration and Cooperation: The commission should collaborate and cooperate with other relevant stakeholders, including government departments, civil society organizations, and international bodies, to effectively promote and protect human rights. This includes sharing information, coordinating efforts, and engaging in joint initiatives to address human rights issues.

11. Adequate Resources: To fulfill its mandate effectively, the commission requires adequate resources, including financial, human, and logistical support. Sufficient resources are essential for conducting investigations, monitoring activities, and carrying out educational programs and awareness campaigns.

12. Capacity Building: The commission should prioritize capacity building initiatives to enhance its expertise and capabilities in addressing human rights issues. This includes providing training and development opportunities for its staff members and commissioners, as well as promoting knowledge and understanding of human rights principles and practices.

13. Public Engagement and Awareness: The commission has a responsibility to engage with the public and raise awareness about human rights. This can be achieved through public education campaigns, dissemination of information, and fostering a culture of respect for human rights in society. Public engagement helps empower individuals to understand their rights, identify violations, and seek redress.

14. Non-Discrimination and Equality: The commission should advocate for non-discrimination and equality in all aspects of society. This includes addressing systemic discrimination, promoting inclusive policies and practices, and advocating for the rights of marginalized and vulnerable groups, such as women, children, persons with disabilities, and ethnic minorities.

15. Accountability and Transparency: The commission should operate with accountability and transparency. This includes maintaining accurate records, providing clear information about its activities and decisions, and being responsive to public inquiries. Accountability and transparency help build trust and confidence in the commission's work.

These are some of the important legal issues relevant to the Uganda Human Rights Commission. Adhering to these principles and addressing these issues strengthens the commission's effectiveness in promoting and protecting human rights in Uganda.

16. Follow-up and Implementation: After conducting investigations and making recommendations, the commission should ensure that its findings are effectively followed up and implemented. This may involve monitoring the government's response to its recommendations and advocating for their implementation.

17. Cooperation with International Bodies: The commission should cooperate with international human rights bodies and organizations, such as the United Nations and regional human rights mechanisms, to enhance its effectiveness and exchange best practices in promoting and protecting human rights.

18. Legal Assistance and Representation: The commission may provide or facilitate legal assistance and representation to individuals who have experienced human rights violations. This can help ensure access to justice and equal protection of rights, particularly for those who may face barriers in seeking redress.

19. Protection of Whistleblowers and Human Rights Defenders: The commission should work towards creating a conducive environment for whistleblowers and human rights defenders to operate safely. This includes advocating for laws and policies that protect their rights and provide safeguards against retaliation or persecution.

20. Legislative Reform and Policy Advocacy: The commission may engage in legislative reform initiatives and policy advocacy to strengthen the legal framework for human rights protection. This can involve proposing amendments to existing laws or advocating for the enactment of new legislation that aligns with international human rights standards.

21. Public Inquiries and Hearings: The commission may conduct public inquiries and hearings on specific human rights issues of public concern. These inquiries provide a platform for gathering evidence, hearing testimonies, and generating public discourse on human rights matters.

22. International Human Rights Obligations: The commission should ensure that the government fulfills its international human rights obligations by monitoring compliance with international treaties and conventions. This includes assessing the implementation of human rights standards and making recommendations to address any gaps or deficiencies.

23. Cooperation with National Institutions: The commission should collaborate with other national institutions, such as ombudsman offices, equality commissions, and national human rights institutions, to promote a coordinated and comprehensive approach to human rights protection.

These additional legal issues highlight the diverse responsibilities and challenges faced by the Uganda Human Rights Commission in its efforts to promote and protect human rights in the country. By addressing these issues, the commission can contribute to the realization of a society that upholds and respects human rights for all.

24. Documentation and Reporting: The commission should maintain a comprehensive system for documenting human rights violations and their outcomes. This includes keeping records of investigations, complaints, recommendations, and follow-up actions. Regular reporting on the state of human rights in Uganda is essential to raise awareness, advocate for reforms, and track progress.

25. Redress and Remedies: The commission plays a crucial role in ensuring that victims of human rights violations have access to redress and remedies. This can involve facilitating mediation, conciliation, or other forms of alternative dispute resolution, as well as advocating for legal remedies and compensation for victims.

26. Gender Equality and Women's Rights: The commission should prioritize the promotion and protection of gender equality and women's rights. This includes addressing issues such as gender-based violence, discrimination, and the empowerment of women. Special attention should be given to the rights and needs of marginalized and vulnerable women.

27. Children's Rights: The commission has a responsibility to promote and protect the rights of children. This includes addressing issues such as child labor, child abuse, access to education, and juvenile justice. Cooperation with relevant institutions and stakeholders is important for effective advocacy and intervention.

28. Human Rights Education: The commission should engage in human rights education initiatives to promote a culture of human rights awareness and respect. This can involve developing educational materials, conducting training programs, and collaborating with schools, universities, and community organizations to integrate human rights education into curricula.

29. Media Freedom and Freedom of Expression: The commission should advocate for media freedom and freedom of expression as fundamental rights that enable the public to participate in democratic processes and hold authorities accountable. This includes monitoring and addressing cases of media harassment, censorship, and restrictions on freedom of speech.



30. Protection of Refugees and Asylum Seekers: The commission should work to protect the rights of refugees and asylum seekers in accordance with international standards. This includes monitoring their treatment, advocating for their rights, and raising awareness about their plight within society.

31. Admissibility of Complaints: The Uganda Human Rights Commission Act and its Procedure Rules provide guidelines on the admissibility of complaints. The commission must determine whether a complaint meets the necessary criteria for consideration, such as being filed within the prescribed time limits and exhausting other available remedies. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 3 of 2002) emphasized the importance of adhering to these admissibility requirements.

32. Powers of Investigation: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has the power to conduct investigations into human rights violations. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2006) reaffirmed the commission's authority to investigate and inquire into human rights abuses, including summoning witnesses, compelling the production of documents, and entering premises for inspection.

33. Role as Amicus Curiae: The Uganda Human Rights Commission can act as an amicus curiae (friend of the court) in legal proceedings where human rights issues are involved. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 6 of 2003) highlighted the commission's role in providing expert opinions and submissions to assist the court in determining human rights-related matters.

34. Public Interest Litigation: The commission can initiate or support public interest litigation cases to promote and protect human rights. The case of Foundation for Human Rights Initiative v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 20 of 2005) demonstrated the commission's involvement in strategic litigation to advance human rights causes.

35. Compensation for Human Rights Violations: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has the authority to recommend compensation for victims of human rights violations. In the case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2006), the court upheld the commission's power to award compensation as a form of redress for human rights violations.

36. Independence and Impartiality: The independence and impartiality of the Uganda Human Rights Commission are crucial for its effective functioning. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2006) emphasized the need for the commission to maintain its independence and autonomy in carrying out its mandate.

37. Enforcement of Recommendations: The commission's recommendations, particularly those related to human rights violations, need to be effectively enforced. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 8 of 2008) highlighted the importance of implementing the commission's recommendations to ensure justice and redress for victims.

38. Independence of the Commission: The independence of the Uganda Human Rights Commission is crucial for its effective functioning. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 1 of 2004) emphasized the importance of ensuring the commission's autonomy from external influence or interference in its decision-making processes.

39. Non-Discrimination and Equal Protection: The commission has a responsibility to promote and protect the rights to non-discrimination and equal protection under the law. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 13 of 2010) reaffirmed the commission's duty to address issues of discrimination based on factors such as race, ethnicity, gender, religion, and disability.

40. Torture and Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment: The commission plays a vital role in investigating cases of torture and cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 2 of 2006) highlighted the commission's mandate to address and prevent such human rights violations.

41. Freedom from Arbitrary Arrest and Detention: The commission is responsible for monitoring and addressing violations of the right to freedom from arbitrary arrest and detention. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 16 of 2003) emphasized the commission's duty to investigate complaints of arbitrary arrest and detention and recommend appropriate remedies.

42. Right to Fair Trial: The commission has a role in promoting and protecting the right to a fair trial. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 3 of 2006) highlighted the commission's authority to inquire into cases of denial of fair trial rights, such as the right to legal representation, access to evidence, and impartial adjudication.

43. Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights: The commission has a responsibility to promote and protect economic, social, and cultural rights, including the right to education, health, housing, and adequate standard of living. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 6 of 2004) emphasized the commission's duty to address violations of these rights and advocate for their realization.

44. Public Awareness and Education: The commission has a role in raising public awareness and promoting human rights education. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2004) highlighted the commission's mandate to engage in public education programs, workshops, and campaigns to enhance respect for human rights.

45. Freedom of Expression: The commission has a role in protecting and promoting freedom of expression, including the right to freedom of speech, press, and access to information. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 9 of 2005) emphasized the commission's duty to address violations of these rights and advocate for their protection.

46. Women's Rights: The commission has a responsibility to address issues related to women's rights and gender equality. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 2 of 2014) highlighted the commission's role in investigating and advocating for the protection of women's rights, including issues such as gender-based violence and discrimination.

47. Children's Rights: The commission has a mandate to protect and promote the rights of children, including their right to survival, development, and protection from abuse and exploitation. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2008) emphasized the commission's duty to address violations of children's rights and advocate for their best interests.

48. Right to Privacy: The commission plays a role in safeguarding the right to privacy, including protection against unlawful surveillance, intrusion, and unauthorized disclosure of personal information. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 3 of 2017) highlighted the commission's authority to investigate complaints related to privacy rights violations.

49. Indigenous Peoples' Rights: The commission has a responsibility to address issues concerning the rights of indigenous peoples, including their right to land, cultural heritage, and self-determination. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 5 of 2012) emphasized the commission's duty to protect and promote the rights of indigenous communities.

50. Human Rights in Conflict Situations: The commission has a crucial role in addressing human rights violations in conflict situations, including armed conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 2 of 2016) emphasized the commission's mandate to investigate and report on human rights abuses in conflict-affected areas.

51. Right to Freedom of Association: The commission has a role in safeguarding the right to freedom of association, including the right to form and join trade unions, political parties, and other social groups. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 4 of 2011)



emphasized the commission's duty to protect and promote these rights, ensuring that individuals can freely associate and engage in collective activities.

52. Disability Rights: The commission has a responsibility to address issues related to the rights of persons with disabilities, including their right to equality, accessibility, and participation in society. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 8 of 2013) highlighted the commission's role in advocating for the rights of persons with disabilities and addressing discrimination and barriers they face.

53. Right to Water and Sanitation: The commission has a mandate to promote and protect the right to clean and safe water, as well as adequate sanitation facilities. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 7 of 2009) emphasized the commission's duty to address violations of these rights and advocate for their realization, particularly for marginalized and vulnerable communities.

54. Environmental Rights: The commission has a role in addressing issues related to environmental rights, including the right to a clean and healthy environment. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 2 of 2015) highlighted the commission's authority to investigate and report on environmental degradation and advocate for sustainable development practices.

55. Rights of Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons: The commission has a responsibility to protect and promote the rights of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 6 of 2011) emphasized the commission's duty to address violations of the rights of refugees and IDPs, including issues of displacement, access to basic services, and protection from violence.

56. LGBT+ Rights: The commission plays a role in addressing issues related to the rights of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and intersex (LGBT+) individuals. While Ugandan case law specific to the commission's involvement in LGBT+ rights is limited, the commission has been involved in raising awareness, conducting research, and advocating for the protection of LGBT+ rights within the broader framework of human rights.

These legal issues, supported by Ugandan case law, demonstrate the diverse range of human rights concerns that fall within the mandate of the Uganda Human Rights Commission. By addressing these issues, the commission contributes to the protection and promotion of human rights, ensuring that all individuals in Uganda can enjoy their fundamental rights and freedoms.

57. Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights: The commission has a mandate to address economic, social, and cultural rights, including the right to education, health, housing, and work. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 5 of 2017) emphasized the



commission's role in advocating for the realization of these rights and addressing systemic inequalities and barriers to their enjoyment.

58. Right to a Fair Trial: The commission has a responsibility to ensure that individuals have access to a fair trial, including the right to legal representation, presumption of innocence, and protection against torture and cruel treatment. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2011) highlighted the commission's duty to monitor and report on the protection of fair trial rights and advocate for their enforcement.

59. Minority Rights: The commission has a role in protecting and promoting the rights of minority groups, including ethnic, religious, and linguistic minorities. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 2 of 2015) emphasized the commission's mandate to address discrimination, marginalization, and the violation of minority rights, ensuring their equal treatment and participation in society.

60. Right to Land and Property: The commission has a responsibility to address issues related to the right to land and property, including land disputes, forced evictions, and land tenure rights. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 4 of 2016) highlighted the commission's role in investigating and advocating for the protection of land rights, particularly for vulnerable groups such as women and indigenous communities.

61. Right to Political Participation: The commission plays a role in safeguarding the right to political participation, including the right to vote, run for public office, and engage in political activities. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2009) emphasized the commission's duty to ensure the protection and promotion of political rights, fostering an inclusive and participatory democratic process.

62. Freedom of Expression and Media Rights: The commission has a mandate to protect and promote freedom of expression and media rights, ensuring that individuals have the right to express their opinions and access information. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 9 of 2010) emphasized the commission's role in advocating for press freedom and addressing violations of freedom of expression.

63. Women's Rights and Gender Equality: The commission has a responsibility to address issues related to women's rights and gender equality, including gender-based violence, discrimination, and access to justice. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 3 of 2016) highlighted the commission's duty to promote gender equality, protect women's rights, and address gender-based injustices.

64. Child Rights: The commission plays a role in safeguarding the rights of children, including protection from abuse, access to education, and participation in decision-making processes. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 2 of 2010) emphasized the commission's mandate to advocate for the rights and welfare of children, ensuring their well-being and development.

65. Right to Privacy: The commission has a responsibility to protect the right to privacy of individuals, ensuring that their personal information and communications are respected and protected. While Ugandan case law specific to the commission's involvement in privacy rights is limited, the commission's work involves monitoring and addressing privacy concerns within the broader framework of human rights.

66. Right to Access to Justice: The commission has a mandate to promote and protect the right to access justice for all individuals, including marginalized and vulnerable groups. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 1 of 2013) emphasized the commission's role in advocating for equal access to justice, addressing systemic barriers, and promoting legal empowerment.

These additional legal issues, supported by Ugandan case law, highlight the comprehensive nature of the Uganda Human Rights Commission's responsibilities. By addressing these issues, the commission plays a vital role in upholding human rights, promoting equality, and ensuring justice for all individuals in Uganda.

67. Protection of Persons with Disabilities: The commission has a mandate to protect and promote the rights of persons with disabilities, ensuring their equal participation in society and addressing issues of discrimination and accessibility. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2019) highlighted the commission's duty to advocate for disability rights and ensure their inclusion in all aspects of life.

68. Right to Non-Discrimination: The commission plays a crucial role in addressing discrimination based on various grounds, such as race, ethnicity, religion, and sexual orientation. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Petition No. 5 of 2014) emphasized the commission's mandate to combat discrimination, promote equality, and protect the rights of individuals who face discrimination in various aspects of their lives.

69. Right to Peace and Security: The commission has a responsibility to promote and protect the right to peace and security, including addressing issues of conflict, violence, and human rights abuses. While Ugandan case law specific to the commission's involvement in peace and security is limited, the commission's work involves monitoring and addressing human rights violations in situations of unrest and conflict.

70. Right to Health: The commission plays a role in advocating for the right to health, ensuring access to quality healthcare services, addressing healthcare disparities, and promoting health-related rights. The case of Uganda Human Rights Commission v. Attorney General (Constitutional Appeal No. 2 of 2014) emphasized the commission's duty to protect and promote the right to health for all individuals in Uganda.

71. Land and Property Rights: The commission has a responsibility to address land and property rights issues, particularly in cases of land grabbing, eviction, and dispossession. It works to protect the rights of vulnerable individuals and communities who may face violations of their land and property rights. While specific Ugandan case law related to the commission's involvement in land and property rights may be limited, the commission's mandate includes addressing these issues within the broader framework of human rights.

72. Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights: The commission plays a role in advocating for economic, social, and cultural rights, such as the right to education, adequate housing, food, and water. It works to ensure that individuals have access to these essential rights and that their enjoyment is not compromised. While Ugandan case law specific to the commission's involvement in economic, social, and cultural rights may be limited, the commission's work contributes to the promotion and protection of these rights.

73. Environmental Rights: The commission has a mandate to protect and promote environmental rights, including the right to a clean and healthy environment. It addresses issues of environmental degradation, pollution, and the impacts of development projects on communities and their environment. The commission's work in this area is essential for safeguarding the rights of individuals and communities affected by environmental harm.

74. Indigenous Peoples' Rights: The commission has a responsibility to protect and promote the rights of indigenous peoples, including their cultural heritage, land rights, and self-determination. It works to address issues of marginalization, discrimination, and violation of the rights of indigenous communities. Although specific Ugandan case law related to the commission's involvement in indigenous peoples' rights may be limited, the commission's mandate includes the protection and promotion of these rights.

These additional legal issues highlight the diverse range of responsibilities undertaken by the Uganda Human Rights Commission. By addressing these issues, the commission plays a crucial role in protecting and promoting human rights in Uganda, ensuring equality, justice, and dignity for all individuals and communities.

- **What are the legal issues pertaining to the forum and procedure of the Uganda Human Rights Commission?**



1. Complaint Filing: Under Rule 4 of the Uganda Human Rights Commission [Procedure] Rules SI 24-1, an individual applies to the commission by filling out Form 7, providing the particulars of the complaint, facts of the complaint, and details of the person complained against. The complainant is interviewed, and a statement is recorded. The commission may also request evidence from the police.

2. Service of Complaint: After the complaint is filed, it is served on the respondent in accordance with Rule 13 and Form 3 of the schedule to the rules. It is important to note that no fees are levied on individuals for filing a complaint, as per Rule 30. In cases where the respondent is the Attorney General, a formal letter is sent to them, requesting a response.

3. Statutory Notice: In cases of human rights, statutory notice does not apply, as clarified by the OSOTRACO CASE [2000]. This means that the commission can proceed with the complaint without the need for prior statutory notice.

4. Witness Summons: Witness summons are issued before the hearing date, as per Rule 14(1) and Form 1 of the schedule to the rules. If a person duly served with the summons fails to attend, Rule 16 and Form 2 provide for the possibility of arrest.

5. Hearing: Rule 21 governs the hearing of the case, which follows the procedures similar to normal cases. Rule 32 specifies that the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) SI 71-1 apply to the hearings. After the hearing concludes, a written decision is issued in accordance with Rule 23, which includes the nature of the complaint, evidence, a summary of the evidence, remedies, and orders.

6. Execution of Orders: Rule 24 states that the execution of orders made by the commission follows the rules of procedure, specifically referring to the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) SI 71-1. This means that if the government fails to satisfy a decree, an individual can obtain leave from the court and apply for mandamus to enforce the commission's order.

In summary, the forum and procedure of the Uganda Human Rights Commission involve the filing of complaints, service of complaints, conducting hearings, issuing decisions, and the execution of orders. The relevant rules and forms provide a framework for these processes, ensuring a fair and effective resolution of human rights complaints.

Enforcement of Orders: When an order is made by the Uganda Human Rights Commission, the usual rules of procedure apply for enforcement. This means that if the government fails to satisfy the decree or order, the individual seeking enforcement can extract a decree and serve it on the government. If the government still fails to comply, the individual can seek leave from the court and apply for a writ of mandamus, which is a court order compelling the government to fulfill its obligations.



Role of Major Documents: The major documents involved in the process include the Complaint Form (Form 7), Summons (Form 3), and Witness Summons (Form 1). These forms are essential for filing complaints, notifying respondents, and summoning witnesses. They provide a standardized format and procedure for effective communication and documentation throughout the process.

Application of Civil Procedure Rules: Rule 32 specifies that the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) SI 71-1 apply during the hearings. This means that the general rules and principles of civil procedure, as provided by the CPR, are followed to ensure fairness and adherence to procedural requirements. The CPR sets out rules for various aspects of civil litigation, including pleadings, evidence, submissions, and judgments.

The following legal issues are involved in the forum and procedure of the Uganda Human Rights Commission:

1. Filing a Complaint: Applicants must apply to the commission under Rule 4 and fill out Form 7, providing the particulars of the complaint, facts, and details of the person complained against. The commission may conduct interviews and statements, and even request evidence from the police.

2. Service of Complaint: After filing the complaint, it must be served on the respondent in accordance with Rule 13 and Form 3. Notably, no fees are charged for filing a complaint, as per Rule 30. In cases where the respondent is the Attorney General, a formal letter is written to request their response. Statutory notice does not apply in human rights cases, as supported by the *Osotraco* case of 2000.

3. Witness Summons: Rule 14(1) allows for the issuance of witness summons, using Form 1, before the hearing date. Failure to attend by a duly served person can lead to arrest, as provided by Rule 16 and Form 2.

4. Hearing of the Case: Rule 21 provides for the hearing process, which is similar to regular cases. Rule 32 states that the Civil Procedure Rules apply during the hearings. After the conclusion of the hearing, a decision is passed in accordance with Rule 23, which includes a written record of the nature of the complaint, evidence, a summary of the evidence, remedies, and the order.

5. Enforcement of Orders: Rule 24 dictates that the execution of commission orders follows the rule of procedure, specifically CPR SI 71-1. If the government fails to satisfy the commission's order, the applicant can extract a decree and serve it on the government. If the government still does not comply, the applicant can seek leave from the court and apply for a writ of mandamus.

Major Documents involved in the process include the Complaint Form (Form 7), Summons (Form 3), and Witness Summons (Form 1).

6. **Judicial Review:** If a party is dissatisfied with the decision of the Uganda Human Rights Commission, they may seek judicial review. Judicial review is a legal process through which a court reviews the lawfulness and fairness of a decision made by a public body. This allows for a review of the commission's decision to ensure that it was made within the scope of its authority and in accordance with the principles of natural justice.

7. **Appeals:** If either party disagrees with the decision of the Uganda Human Rights Commission, they have the right to appeal to the appropriate judicial body. The appeals process will involve presenting arguments and evidence to support the appeal and seeking a review of the commission's decision by a higher court.

8. **Compliance with International Obligations:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a responsibility to monitor the government's compliance with international treaties and conventions on human rights. This includes ensuring that the government upholds its obligations under these international instruments and takes appropriate measures to protect and promote human rights within the country.

9. **Reporting and Accountability:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission has a duty to publish periodic reports on its findings and submit annual reports to Parliament on the state of human rights and freedoms in the country. These reports serve as a means of holding the government accountable for its actions or omissions related to human rights and provide recommendations for improvement.

10. **Operational Guidelines and Rules of Procedure:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission is required to establish its operational guidelines and rules of procedure to ensure transparency, fairness, and consistency in its operations. These guidelines and rules provide a framework for the commission's work and guide its decision-making process.

It is important to note that the legal issues discussed here are a general overview and may not cover all possible aspects or nuances of the forum and procedure of the Uganda Human Rights Commission. Legal advice specific to individual cases should be sought for a comprehensive understanding of the applicable laws and procedures.

11. **Protection of Complainants and Witnesses:** The Uganda Human Rights Commission is responsible for ensuring the protection of complainants and witnesses involved in human rights cases. This may include measures to safeguard their identity, prevent intimidation or retaliation, and provide necessary support throughout the process.

12. **Role of Legal Representation:** Parties involved in proceedings before the Uganda Human Rights Commission have the right to legal representation. This allows individuals to seek advice and guidance from legal professionals who can assist them in presenting their case effectively and protecting their rights.

13. Admissibility of Evidence: The admissibility of evidence is an important legal issue in any legal proceeding. The Uganda Human Rights Commission, in accordance with its rules of procedure, determines the admissibility of evidence presented by parties. This ensures that only relevant and reliable evidence is considered in making decisions.

14. Remedies and Orders: The Uganda Human Rights Commission has the power to issue remedies and orders to address human rights violations. This may include compensation for victims, recommendations for policy changes, or specific actions to be taken by the respondent to rectify the violation. The commission's decisions on remedies and orders aim to provide redress and prevent further human rights abuses.

15. Public Interest Litigation: The Uganda Human Rights Commission may engage in public interest litigation, where it initiates legal proceedings on behalf of individuals or groups to address systemic human rights issues. This allows the commission to advocate for broader societal changes and promote the protection of human rights beyond individual complaints.

16. Confidentiality and Privacy: The Uganda Human Rights Commission ensures the confidentiality and privacy of parties involved in human rights cases. This protects the sensitive information shared during the proceedings and helps create a safe environment for complainants, witnesses, and other participants.

17. Mediation and Alternative Dispute Resolution: The Uganda Human Rights Commission may employ mediation or alternative dispute resolution mechanisms to resolve human rights complaints. These approaches aim to facilitate dialogue, reconciliation, and mutual agreement between the parties involved, providing an alternative to formal hearings.

18. Role of NGOs and Civil Society Organizations: Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations play a crucial role in promoting and protecting human rights in Uganda. They often collaborate with the Uganda Human Rights Commission, providing support, advocacy, and expertise in human rights matters.

19. Jurisdiction and Exhaustion of Remedies: The issue of jurisdiction and the requirement to exhaust domestic remedies may arise in human rights cases brought before the Uganda Human Rights Commission. Parties may need to demonstrate that they have pursued available remedies within the domestic legal system before seeking intervention from the commission.

20. Compliance and Implementation: Ensuring compliance with the decisions and recommendations of the Uganda Human Rights Commission is an important legal issue. The commission may monitor the

implementation of its orders and remedies and may take further action if necessary to ensure compliance by the responsible parties.

21. Procedural Fairness: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is responsible for upholding principles of procedural fairness in its proceedings. This includes providing all parties with an opportunity to be heard, ensuring a fair and impartial decision-making process, and respecting the principles of natural justice.

22. Time Limits and Statutes of Limitation: There may be specific time limits or statutes of limitation within which complaints must be filed with the Uganda Human Rights Commission. Parties involved in human rights cases need to be aware of these time limits and comply with them to ensure their complaints are considered.

23. Legal Representation: Parties involved in human rights cases before the Uganda Human Rights Commission have the right to legal representation. They can engage lawyers or advocates to assist them throughout the proceedings and ensure their rights are protected.

24. Appeals and Judicial Review: The Uganda Human Rights Commission's decisions and orders may be subject to appeal or judicial review. Parties dissatisfied with the commission's decision can seek a review of the decision by a higher court to assess its legality, fairness, and adherence to the law.

25. Public Interest Litigation: The Uganda Human Rights Commission may also engage in public interest litigation, where it initiates legal actions on behalf of a broader group or to address systemic human rights violations. This serves to protect and promote human rights on a larger scale beyond individual complaints.

26. International Human Rights Standards: The Uganda Human Rights Commission is guided by international human rights standards, treaties, and conventions ratified by Uganda. These standards provide a framework for interpreting and applying human rights laws and obligations in the country.

#### **Summary of Legal Issues in the Forum and Procedure:**

1. Application Process: Applicants must adhere to Rule 4 and fill out Form 7, providing the complaint particulars and facts. Complainants are interviewed, and the commission may request evidence from the police.



2. Complaint Service: After filing, the complaint is served to the respondent under Rule 13 and Form 3. Notably, no fees are charged for individual complaints (as per Rule 30). If the respondent is the Attorney General, a formal letter is written to solicit a response.

3. Hearing and Summons: A hearing is scheduled after the Attorney General's response. Witness summons are issued (Rule 14[1] and Form 1) before the hearing date. Failure to attend may result in arrest under Rule 16 and Form 2.

4. Hearing Proceedings: Rule 21 governs the hearing process, following general procedures. Rule 32 states that the Civil Procedure Rules apply. After the hearing, a decision is passed (Rule 23) containing the complaint's nature, evidence, a summary, remedies, and the order.

5. Execution of Orders: Rule 24 outlines the execution of commission orders, following the procedure stated in CPR SI 71-1.

6. Major Documents: Important documents include Complaint Form (Form 7), Summons (Form 3), and Witness Summons (Form 1).

7. Enforcement of Orders: To enforce commission orders, the usual rules of procedure apply. A decree is extracted and served on the government for satisfaction. If the government fails to comply, one may seek leave from the court and apply for mandamus.

It's important to consult the specific rules, regulations, and legal authorities applicable to the Uganda Human Rights Commission to fully understand the legal issues and procedures involved in its forum and procedure.

**The summary of the legal issues in the forum and procedure outlined is as follows:**

1. Application and Complaint:

- Applicants fill out Form 7, providing details of the complaint and the person complained against.
- Complainants are interviewed, and statements are obtained. The commission may seek evidence from the police.

2. Filing and Service:

- Complaints are filed under Rule 4, and no fees are charged for individual filings under Rule 30.

- Complaints are served on the respondent in accordance with Rule 13 and Form 3.
- If the respondent is the Attorney General, a formal letter is sent, requesting a response.
- Statutory notice does not apply to human rights cases, as supported by the OSOTRACO Case.

### 3. Witness Summons and Attendance:

- Witness summons are issued using Form 1, and failure to attend can result in arrest under Rule 16 and Form 2.

### 4. Hearing and Decision:

- Rule 21 provides for a hearing of the case, following normal procedures.
- Rule 32 states that the Civil Procedure Rules apply during the hearings.
- After the hearing, a written decision is passed under Rule 23, including details of the complaint, evidence, remedies, and orders.

### 5. Enforcement of Orders:

- Rule 24 governs the execution of orders, following the procedure of CPR SI 71-1.
- If the government fails to satisfy the order, an applicant can seek leave of court and apply for mandamus.

### Major Documents:

- The Complaint Form (Form 7)
- Summons (Form 3)
- Witness Summons (Form 1)

### Enforcement of Orders:

- The usual rules of procedure apply, including obtaining a decree and serving it on the government for satisfaction.
- If the government fails to satisfy the decree, one can seek leave of court and apply for mandamus.

It's important to note that this summary provides a general overview of the legal issues involved in the forum and procedure described. For specific and detailed legal advice, it's recommended to consult with a legal professional familiar with the relevant laws and regulations.

**When considering appeals, it is important to note the following points:**

1. An Appeal is a Creature of Statute: Appeals are governed by specific statutes that outline the scope, procedure, and requirements for filing an appeal.
2. Scope of Appeal: An appeal can be based on a point of law, a point of fact, or a point of mixed law and fact. The grounds for appeal must fall within the specified scope.
3. Time Frame: Appeals must be filed within a specified time frame as prescribed by the relevant statute. Failure to adhere to the time limits may result in the appeal being dismissed as time-barred.
4. Certificate of Importance: In some cases, an appeal may require a certificate of importance, which is a document certifying that the case involves an important question of law or public interest.

These considerations are crucial for a prudent lawyer when dealing with appeals. It is important to carefully analyze whether the appellant has a right to appeal, whether the facts of the case disclose any grounds for appeal within the specified scope, whether there are viable opposing arguments to those grounds, and what other remedies may be available to the parties. Additionally, understanding the specific forum, procedural requirements, and necessary documents for the appeal is essential for effective representation.

In summary, the legal issues in the case of *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited* involved constructive dismissal, the validity of the transfer, and the application of relevant provisions of the Employment Act. The court considered legal authorities to determine the rights of the parties and awarded remedies to the claimant. When considering appeals, a prudent lawyer should carefully assess the grounds, scope, time frame, and requirements under the applicable statute.

In the case of *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited*, the Industrial Court addressed several legal issues, including constructive dismissal, the validity of the transfer, and the application of relevant provisions of the Employment Act. The court relied on case law and legal authorities to make its determinations and award remedies to the claimant.

Constructive dismissal occurs when an employer's conduct makes it impossible or unreasonable for an employee to continue working, resulting in the employee effectively being forced to resign. The court examined Section 65(c) of the Employment Act, which deems termination to have taken place when an employee ends the contract due to the employer's unreasonable conduct. The court cited the case of *Nyakabwa J. Abwooli v Security 2000 Limited*, which established that the employer's conduct must be

illegal, injurious to the employee, and render it impossible for the employee to continue working. The court emphasized that the conduct must constitute a serious breach, rather than a minor or trivial incident.

Regarding the transfer, the court analyzed whether it constituted a demotion or a valid change in position within the organization. The court referred to the case of *Albert O. Tinto v Smart Communication Inc.* and *Muyimbwa Paul v Ndejje University* to distinguish between a transfer and a demotion. It stated that a transfer should involve a movement from one position to another of equivalent rank, level, or salary without a break in service. If a transfer results in a demotion, such as a reduction in salary or a change in job description without consultation, it may be deemed unreasonable and in violation of the employment contract.

Applying these principles, the court found that the claimant in the case of *Tibenkana* had been constructively dismissed. The transfer from Jinja to Kampala was considered a demotion since it resulted in a decrease in earnings, and there was no evidence of a proper job description or reporting mechanism for the new assignment. Additionally, the claimant's attempts to discuss the transfer were frustrated, and she found the office in Kampala locked when she arrived. The court concluded that the employer had used the transfer as a means to rid themselves of an undesirable worker, which constituted a serious breach of responsibility and made it impossible for the employee to continue working.

Regarding remedies, the court awarded the claimant payment in lieu of notice as provided under Section 58(3)(c) of the Employment Act, severance allowance under Section 87(a), and general damages. The amount of severance allowance was determined based on the claimant's length of service.

In summary, the case of *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited* raised legal issues related to constructive dismissal, the validity of the transfer, and the application of relevant provisions of the Employment Act. The court's analysis relied on case law and legal authorities to determine the rights of the parties and award appropriate remedies.

In addition to the specific case of *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited*, there may be other case law and legal authorities that have addressed similar legal issues in the Industrial Court. To obtain a comprehensive understanding of the legal landscape, it would be necessary to conduct further research and review additional relevant cases.

The legal issues arising from the case of *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited* include constructive dismissal, the validity of the transfer, and the remedies available to the claimant. These issues intersect with provisions of the Employment Act and principles established through case law.

Constructive dismissal is an important concept in employment law, as it protects employees from situations where the employer's conduct creates an intolerable work environment, effectively forcing the employee to



resign. It is crucial for employers to be mindful of their actions and ensure they comply with legal requirements to avoid potential claims of constructive dismissal.

The validity of a transfer hinges on whether it constitutes a demotion or a reasonable change in position within the organization. When an employee is transferred, their rights, duties, and remuneration should be adequately considered. If a transfer results in a significant reduction in salary or a change in job responsibilities without consultation or reasonable justification, it may be deemed unreasonable and potentially amount to a breach of the employment contract.

Remedies available to an employee who has been constructively dismissed may include payment in lieu of notice, severance allowance, and general damages. The specific amount awarded will depend on various factors, such as the employee's length of service, earnings, and the circumstances of the dismissal.

To further explore these legal issues and gain a more comprehensive understanding, it is advisable to consult relevant legal authorities, such as the Constitution of Uganda, labor legislation, industrial court judgments, and legal commentary on employment law in Uganda. These resources can provide valuable insights into the legal principles and precedents that govern industrial disputes in Uganda.

It is worth noting that the legal landscape is constantly evolving, and new cases may arise that offer further interpretation and clarification of the law. Therefore, it is important to consult the most up-to-date legal sources and seek professional legal advice when dealing with specific cases or legal matters.

In addition to the legal issues discussed earlier, there are several other considerations that may arise in the context of the Industrial Court and employment disputes in Uganda. Some of these additional legal issues could include:

1. **Burden of Proof:** In labor disputes, the burden of proof generally lies with the party making the allegations. For example, if the claimant asserts that they were constructively dismissed, they would need to provide evidence to support their claim and demonstrate that the employer's actions amounted to constructive dismissal.

2. **Procedural Fairness:** The Industrial Court may also examine whether the employer followed fair procedures in implementing the transfer or any disciplinary actions. Procedural fairness requires that employees be given notice, an opportunity to be heard, and a fair and impartial hearing before any adverse action is taken against them.

3. Compliance with Employment Contracts and Policies: The court may assess whether the employer's actions were consistent with the terms of the employment contract, any applicable policies, or collective bargaining agreements. It will consider whether the employer had the right to transfer the employee, whether the transfer complied with contractual provisions, and whether the employee had reasonable grounds to refuse the transfer.

4. Unfair Labor Practices: The Industrial Court may also consider whether any unfair labor practices were involved, such as interfering with an employee's right to engage in trade union activities, discrimination, or retaliation against employees for exercising their legal rights.

5. Remedies and Damages: In addition to the specific remedies mentioned earlier, the court may award other forms of damages or relief based on the circumstances of the case. This could include compensation for emotional distress, loss of reputation, or reinstatement to the former position.

It is important to note that each case is unique, and the legal issues involved may vary depending on the specific facts and circumstances. Therefore, it is crucial to thoroughly analyze the particular case at hand and consult relevant legal authorities and expert advice to ensure accurate and comprehensive understanding of the legal issues involved.

Remember that legal authorities, including statutes, regulations, and case law, are subject to change and may be updated over time. It is always advisable to refer to the most current legal sources and consult with legal professionals for specific legal advice and guidance.

In the case of *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited*, the Industrial Court examined the issue of constructive dismissal and the remedies available to the claimant. The court analyzed various legal authorities and made its decision based on the specific facts and applicable laws. It found that the claimant had been constructively dismissed due to the demotion and transfer that resulted in a reduction in salary without reasonable justification. The court relied on provisions of the Employment Act, as well as case law from Uganda and other jurisdictions, to support its findings.

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Moving forward, after the court's decision on the constructive dismissal and the available remedies, there may be further legal considerations, such as:

1. Compliance with the Court's Order: Once the court has issued its decision and provided remedies to the claimant, it is crucial for both parties to comply with the court's order. The employer may be required to pay the specified amounts as severance allowance, payment in lieu of notice, and general damages within the specified timeframe. Failure to comply with the court's order could result in additional legal consequences, such as enforcement proceedings.

2. Potential for Appeals: Parties dissatisfied with the court's decision may have the right to appeal to a higher court, such as the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court, depending on the applicable laws and procedures. However, it is important to note that the grounds for appeal, as well as the timeframes for filing an appeal, may be governed by specific legal provisions and rules of procedure.

3. Execution of the Court's Order: If the employer fails to voluntarily comply with the court's order, the claimant may need to initiate enforcement proceedings to ensure the awarded remedies are implemented. This may involve seeking assistance from the court to enforce the judgment, such as through garnishment of wages or seizure of assets, depending on the available legal mechanisms.

4. Future Employment Considerations: After the resolution of the dispute, the claimant may need to consider their future employment prospects. If the claimant wishes to secure alternative employment, they should take steps to update their resume, apply for new positions, and potentially seek references or recommendations to support their job search.

It is important to consult with legal professionals who are familiar with the specific laws and procedures of Uganda's Industrial Court to navigate through these post-decision considerations. The advice and guidance of legal experts will ensure compliance with the court's order and assist in addressing any further legal issues that may arise.

5. Compliance with Employment Regulations: In addition to complying with the court's order, both the claimant and the employer should ensure compliance with relevant employment regulations moving forward. This includes adhering to provisions related to notice periods, termination procedures, severance pay, and other applicable employment rights. It is important for the employer to review its internal policies and practices to avoid similar issues in the future.

6. Precedential Value of the Decision: The court's decision in *Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited* may have precedential value, meaning it can serve as a guiding precedent for future similar cases. Other parties involved in employment disputes or facing similar circumstances may refer to this case as persuasive authority when presenting their arguments and seeking remedies. The decision may influence how similar cases are decided in the future and shape the interpretation and application of relevant employment laws.

7. Impact on Employment Practices: The court's decision may also have broader implications for employment practices within the jurisdiction. Employers may review their transfer policies, promotion procedures, and compliance with employment laws in light of the court's ruling. The decision may prompt organizations to ensure they have proper mechanisms in place to handle employee transfers, demotions, and any resulting salary adjustments, ensuring compliance with legal requirements and contractual obligations.



8. Further Legal Developments: The outcome of this case may also lead to further legal developments or discussions on employment laws and practices. It could prompt legislative amendments or policy changes to provide clearer guidance on issues related to constructive dismissal, demotion, and transfers. Legal practitioners, scholars, and policymakers may analyze the court's decision and its implications, contributing to ongoing debates and reforms in the field of labor and employment law.

13. Constructive Dismissal: The court found that the claimant was constructively dismissed by the respondent. Constructive dismissal occurs when an employer's actions make it impossible or unreasonable for an employee to continue working, effectively forcing the employee to resign. In this case, the claimant's transfer to a new location and the subsequent refusal of the respondent's officials to respond to her inquiries about her new assignment amounted to a serious breach of the employer's responsibility to provide work. It is important for employers to be aware of their obligations and avoid engaging in conduct that may be deemed constructive dismissal.

14. Redesignation and Demotion: The court discussed the issue of the claimant's transfer from Jinja to Kampala and the contention that it constituted a demotion. It referred to the Philippine case of Blue Dairy Corporation v. National Labour Relations Commission, which stated that an employer's prerogative to transfer personnel should not involve a demotion in rank or a diminution of salary, privileges, and other benefits. The court considered the claimant's argument that her transfer resulted in a reduction in net earnings and the lack of evidence regarding her new job description and reporting mechanism. Employers should be cautious when making transfers that may affect an employee's rank, salary, or job status to ensure compliance with employment laws.

15. Remedies for Constructive Dismissal: The court determined the available remedies for the claimant as a result of constructive dismissal. These included payment in lieu of notice, severance allowance, and general damages. Payment in lieu of notice compensates the employee for the notice period they would have been entitled to if properly terminated. Severance allowance provides compensation based on the length of service, and general damages are awarded for the losses suffered as a result of the unfair dismissal. It is important for employees who have been constructively dismissed to understand their rights and the potential remedies available to them under applicable labor laws.

16. Appeals and Appellate Process: The case mentions the possibility of an appeal, raising questions about whether the party may have the right to appeal, the grounds for appeal, and the available remedies or procedures in the appellate process. Appellate procedures can vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific laws governing labor disputes. Parties seeking to appeal a decision should carefully review the applicable laws, consult with legal professionals, and adhere to the prescribed procedures and timelines for filing an appeal.



It is crucial to note that the implications and lessons from this case are based on the specific facts and circumstances presented. Employment laws and legal precedents can vary across jurisdictions, so it is essential to consult with legal professionals who are knowledgeable in the relevant laws and regulations applicable to your situation.

17. Burden of Proof: In the case, the burden of proof rested on the claimant to establish that she was constructively dismissed by the respondent. It is essential for the party claiming constructive dismissal to provide sufficient evidence and arguments to support their case. Similarly, the burden of proof may shift to the respondent to demonstrate that the transfer or employer's actions were justified or reasonable. Understanding the burden of proof and presenting compelling evidence is crucial in labor disputes.

18. Compliance with Employment Laws: The court emphasized the importance of employers complying with employment laws and fulfilling their obligations towards employees. Employers should be aware of their legal responsibilities, including providing reasonable explanations for transfers, adhering to proper procedures, avoiding unreasonable conduct, and not engaging in actions that could be construed as constructive dismissal. Non-compliance with employment laws can lead to legal consequences and potential liability for the employer.

19. Precedent and Case Law: The court referred to various legal authorities and case law, including Nyakabwa J. Abwooli v. Security 2000 Limited and other international cases, to support its reasoning and conclusions. Case law plays a significant role in legal decision-making as it provides guidance and interpretation of the law. Parties involved in labor disputes should research and reference relevant case law to strengthen their arguments and understand how previous decisions may influence their case.

20. Importance of Legal Representation: The case highlights the importance of legal representation for both parties involved in a labor dispute. Counsel for the claimant and respondent presented arguments, cited legal authorities, and advocated for their respective clients. Having legal representation can help ensure that parties are aware of their rights, navigate complex legal procedures, present a strong case, and safeguard their interests.

#### **Legal Issues in the Tibenkana v London Distillers (U) Limited Case:**

1. Constructive Dismissal: The main issue in the case was whether the claimant was constructively dismissed by the respondent. Constructive dismissal occurs when an employer's conduct makes it impossible or unreasonable for an employee to continue working, leading to the employee's resignation being treated as a termination.

2. Transfer and Demotion: The claimant argued that her transfer from Jinja to Kampala constituted a demotion, as it changed her job title and resulted in a reduction in salary. The court examined whether the transfer was reasonable and complied with the requirements for a transfer to be considered a promotion rather than a demotion.

3. Burden of Proof: The burden of proof rested on the claimant to establish that she was constructively dismissed. The claimant had to present evidence and arguments supporting her claim, while the respondent had to justify the transfer and show that the claimant abandoned her duties without valid reasons.

4. Compliance with Employment Laws: The court emphasized the importance of employers complying with employment laws, including providing reasonable explanations for transfers and not engaging in actions that could be considered constructive dismissal. Non-compliance with employment laws can lead to legal consequences for employers.

5. Severance Allowance: The court considered whether the claimant was entitled to a severance allowance due to being unfairly dismissed. It examined the provisions of the Employment Act and determined that the claimant was eligible for severance pay based on the length of her employment.

6. General Damages: The court awarded general damages to the claimant for the unfair dismissal and the loss of monthly earnings necessary for her and her family. The amount of general damages was determined based on the claimant's circumstances and the period of her employment.

7. Appellate Considerations: The court highlighted several points to consider when preparing an appeal, such as determining the right of appeal, identifying grounds for appeal, evaluating the opposition's arguments, exploring other available remedies, and understanding the forum, procedure, and required documents for the appeal.

**SUI GENERIS**

### **Discuss right of appeals**

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1. Right of Appeal: There is no inherent right of appeal. An individual can appeal a decision only if the right of appeal is expressly provided for in a statute. This principle was established in the cases of AG vs. Shah (No.4) (1971) EA 50, Bhogal vs. Khashan [1953] 20 EACA 17, and followed in UNEB vs. Mparo Constructors.

2. Appeals in Civil Suits: Unlike appeals in criminal cases, which are generally from final orders of the court, appeals in civil suits are from rulings and orders. Appellate courts have jurisdiction and power as granted by statutory provisions.

3. Duty of the First Appellate Court: The duty of the first appellate court is to evaluate the evidence on record as a whole, considering that it has neither seen nor heard the witnesses. It should make allowances for this limitation. The court must re-evaluate the evidence, draw inferences, and come to its own conclusion. This duty was emphasized in *Banco Arabe Espanol v. Bank of Uganda* and other cases.

4. Powers of the First Appellate Court: On a first appeal, the court has the authority to decide issues of fact and law. It can re-evaluate the evidence, weigh conflicting evidence, draw its own inferences and conclusions, and make its own decision. The court must reconsider the materials before the trial judge and can admit additional evidence if necessary.

5. Re-evaluation of Evidence: The first appellate court has the duty to re-evaluate, assess, and scrutinize the evidence on record. It can overrule the trial judge if it concludes that the judgment is wrong. The duty to re-evaluate the evidence also applies to the second appellate court, but it will only intervene in the clearest of cases.

6. Interference with Discretion of Lower Court: The appellate court has the power to interfere with the discretionary powers of a trial judge if it believes the judge misdirected themselves or arrived at a wrong decision. However, the appellate court will be reluctant to interfere if the trial court exercised its discretion judiciously.

7. Calling Additional Evidence: The appellate court can call for additional evidence if it finds that evidence was wrongly rejected by the trial court or if it requires additional documents for substantial cause. The party seeking to adduce additional evidence must show that it was not available at the time of the trial or could not have been reasonably produced. The evidence must be credible and have an important influence on the case's result.

➤ **Judicial precedent has been a wide principle in law that has guided many judicial decisions, kindly discuss the dynamics of judicial precedent with relevant examples.**

The principle of judicial precedent is a fundamental aspect of the appellate court's role. The appellate court is bound by and must follow the decisions of higher courts, which have established legal principles and interpretations. This principle was emphasized in the case of *R. VS FLOWERS (1986) LRC (CR) 572*,

where it was held that the Court of Appeal is bound by its previous decisions and decisions of the House of Lords, and can only depart from them in exceptional circumstances.

## ERRORS OF LAW

The appellate court has the power to review and correct errors of law made by the lower court. This includes errors in the interpretation and application of statutes, legal principles, and precedents. The court will examine the legal reasoning and conclusions of the lower court and determine whether they are correct. If the appellate court finds that the lower court made an error of law, it can overturn the decision and provide the correct interpretation or application of the law.

## ERRORS OF FACT

The appellate court has limited powers to review and correct errors of fact made by the lower court. The general rule is that the appellate court will not interfere with the findings of fact made by the lower court unless there is a clear error or the findings are unsupported by the evidence. The appellate court will consider whether the lower court properly evaluated the evidence and whether its findings are reasonable based on the available evidence. If the appellate court finds that the lower court made a clear error of fact, it can overturn the decision and make its own findings of fact.

## PROCEDURAL IRREGULARITIES

The appellate court will also consider procedural irregularities that may have occurred during the proceedings in the lower court. This includes examining whether the lower court followed the correct procedures, allowed all parties a fair opportunity to present their case, and considered all relevant evidence and arguments. If the appellate court finds that there were significant procedural irregularities that affected the fairness or outcome of the proceedings, it can set aside the decision and order a retrial or take other appropriate actions.

## REMEDIES

If the appellate court determines that there were errors of law, errors of fact, or procedural irregularities that warrant intervention, it has the power to provide appropriate remedies. This can include setting aside the decision of the lower court, ordering a retrial, granting a new hearing, or varying the decision in a manner that corrects the errors or irregularities. The appellate court has discretion in determining the appropriate remedy based on the circumstances of the case.

It is important to note that the specific legal issues and procedures related to the right of appeal may vary in different jurisdictions and legal systems. The discussion provided here is a general overview and should not be considered as legal advice. It is always advisable to consult with a qualified legal professional for guidance on specific legal issues and procedures related to the right of appeal.



- **While the right of appeal is an essential component of the justice system, it is not without limitations. These limitations are in place to ensure the efficient administration of justice and prevent frivolous or abusive appeals.**

1. **Finality of Judgments:** Appellate courts generally review final judgments or orders, meaning those that conclusively determine the rights and obligations of the parties involved. Interlocutory or interim orders may not be subject to appeal until the final judgment is rendered.

2. **Time Limits:** Appellate procedures typically impose strict time limits within which an appeal must be filed. Failure to meet these time limits may result in the appeal being dismissed as untimely.

3. **Grounds for Appeal:** Appellate courts usually consider only specific grounds for appeal, such as errors of law, errors of fact, or procedural irregularities. Mere disagreement with the lower court's decision or dissatisfaction with the outcome is generally not sufficient grounds for appeal.

4. **Standard of Review:** Appellate courts apply different standards of review to different issues. For questions of law, they typically exercise a higher level of scrutiny and have more flexibility in overturning the lower court's decision. However, for questions of fact, the appellate court generally defers to the lower court's findings unless there is a clear error.

5. **Discretionary Appeals:** In some cases, the right of appeal may be discretionary rather than automatic. This means that the appellate court has the discretion to decide whether to accept or reject an appeal based on the merits of the case.

6. **Precedent:** The appellate court is generally bound by the precedents set by higher courts. However, in some circumstances, such as when a case involves novel legal issues or conflicting precedents, the appellate court may have more flexibility in departing from established precedents.

7. **Procedural Requirements:** Appellate procedures often have specific requirements regarding the content and format of appeal documents, including the need to provide a concise statement of the grounds for appeal and supporting arguments. Failure to comply with these procedural requirements may result in the dismissal of the appeal.

These limitations are in place to strike a balance between ensuring access to justice and preventing the abuse of appellate processes. They help maintain the integrity and efficiency of the legal system while providing an avenue for the review and correction of errors.

8. Jurisdictional Limits: Appellate courts have jurisdiction over specific types of cases or subject matters. They may be limited to hearing appeals from certain lower courts or have jurisdiction over specific areas of law. Appellate courts generally do not have unlimited jurisdiction and can only hear cases within their prescribed jurisdiction.

9. Preservation of Issues: Parties are generally required to raise and preserve their legal issues or arguments at the trial court level. Failing to raise an issue or present it properly during the trial may result in the issue being deemed waived and unavailable for appeal.

10. Prohibition of New Evidence: In most cases, appellate courts do not consider new evidence that was not presented at the trial court level. The appellate review is typically limited to the evidence and record that was available and presented during the trial.

11. Dismissal for Lack of Merit: If an appeal lacks merit, the appellate court has the authority to dismiss it without further review. This helps filter out appeals that do not raise valid legal issues or do not meet the required standards for a successful appeal.

12. Costs and Sanctions: In some jurisdictions, if an appeal is deemed frivolous or an abuse of process, the appellant may be required to pay costs or face other sanctions. This serves as a deterrent against filing baseless or vexatious appeals.

13. Standard of Review: Appellate courts generally apply a specific standard of review when evaluating the decisions of lower courts. The standard of review determines the level of deference given to the lower court's findings of fact, legal interpretations, and discretionary decisions. Common standards of review include "de novo" (reviewing the issue without deference to the lower court), "abuse of discretion" (reviewing for errors in the lower court's exercise of discretion), and "clearly erroneous" (reviewing factual findings for obvious errors).

14. Timelines and Deadlines: Appellate courts typically have strict timelines and deadlines for filing an appeal. Failure to comply with these timelines can result in the appeal being dismissed as untimely. Parties must be aware of the specific deadlines and ensure that all necessary documents, including the notice of appeal, are filed within the prescribed timeframes.

15. Procedural Requirements: Appellate courts may have specific procedural requirements that must be followed when filing an appeal. These requirements can include formatting guidelines, page limits, citation rules, and specific forms to be used. Parties must adhere to these procedural requirements to ensure their appeal is properly considered.

16. Oral Arguments: In some cases, appellate courts allow parties to present oral arguments to supplement their written briefs. Oral arguments provide an opportunity for parties to clarify their legal positions, respond to questions from the judges, and highlight key aspects of their case. However, not all appeals involve oral arguments, and their availability may depend on the rules of the appellate court and the complexity of the case.

17. Precedent and Stare Decisis: Appellate courts often rely on legal precedent, which refers to previously decided cases that establish legal principles and interpretations. Stare decisis, a Latin term meaning "to stand by things decided," is the principle that courts should generally follow precedent and maintain consistency in their rulings. However, appellate courts also have the power to depart from precedent in certain circumstances, such as when the precedent is no longer valid or conflicts with higher authority.

18. Remedies and Relief: Appellate courts have the authority to provide various remedies and forms of relief if they determine that an error occurred at the trial court level. This can include reversing the lower court's decision, remanding the case back to the trial court for further proceedings, or modifying the judgment. The specific remedy or relief sought will depend on the nature of the error and the desired outcome of the appellant.

19. Preclusion of Issues: Appellate courts generally require parties to raise all relevant issues and arguments at the trial court level. Failure to do so may result in the appellate court precluding the party from raising those issues on appeal. This rule encourages parties to present their case fully and allows the trial court an opportunity to address and resolve any disputes or errors before they are brought to the appellate court.

20. Preservation of the Record: To facilitate the appellate review process, it is essential to preserve a complete and accurate record of the proceedings at the trial court level. This includes ensuring that all relevant documents, evidence, transcripts, and rulings are properly recorded and included in the appellate record. Appellate courts generally rely on the appellate record to assess the issues raised on appeal and make informed decisions.

21. Discretionary Review: In some jurisdictions, appellate review is discretionary rather than a matter of right. This means that appellate courts have the discretion to choose which cases to review and which to decline. Generally, discretionary review is limited to cases that present significant legal issues, involve conflicting interpretations of the law, or have important public policy implications. Parties seeking discretionary review must typically file a petition or application explaining why their case should be considered by the appellate court.

22. Appellate Costs: Appellate proceedings can be costly due to legal fees, court fees, and other expenses associated with the appeal process. Parties considering an appeal should carefully evaluate the potential

costs involved and weigh them against the potential benefits of pursuing the appeal. In some cases, there may be additional avenues for financial assistance, such as pro bono representation or fee waivers, depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case.

23. Alternative Dispute Resolution: In certain situations, parties may explore alternative dispute resolution methods, such as mediation or arbitration, as an alternative to the traditional appellate process. These methods aim to resolve the dispute outside of the court system and can provide a faster and more cost-effective means of reaching a resolution. However, the availability of alternative dispute resolution options may depend on the nature of the case and the agreement of the parties involved.

It's important to note that the specific laws and procedures regarding the right of appeal can vary across jurisdictions. Therefore, it's crucial for individuals involved in a legal matter to consult with an attorney who is knowledgeable about the relevant jurisdiction's laws and appellate process to ensure their rights are properly protected.

#### **Discuss Legal Issues in the Right of Appeal:**

1. No inherent right of appeal: The right of appeal is not inherent and must be expressly provided for in a statute.
2. Statutory requirement: To appeal, an individual must show that the right of appeal is specifically granted by law.
3. Distinction between criminal and civil appeals: In criminal cases, appeals are typically from final court orders, while in civil suits, appeals can be made from rulings and orders.
4. Power and jurisdiction of appellate courts: Appellate courts derive their power and jurisdiction from statutory provisions.
5. Duties of the first appellate court: The first appellate court has the duty to evaluate the evidence on record as a whole and come to its own conclusions, considering that it has not seen or heard the witnesses.
6. Powers of the first appellate court: The first appellate court has the authority to decide both factual and legal issues. It can re-evaluate the evidence, weigh conflicting evidence, draw inferences, and make its own determination.



7. Re-evaluation of evidence: The first appellate court is tasked with re-evaluating, assessing, and scrutinizing the evidence on record. It can overrule the trial judge's decision if it concludes that the judgment is incorrect.

8. Interference with lower court discretion: The appellate court can interfere with the discretionary powers of a trial judge if it finds that the judge misdirected themselves or if there has been a manifest error leading to injustice.

9. Calling additional evidence: The appellate court has the authority to call for additional evidence in cases where evidence was wrongly rejected by the trial court or for substantial reasons. The additional evidence must meet certain criteria, such as not being available during the trial or having a significant influence on the case's outcome.

10. Judicial precedent: The principles discussed in previous cases play a crucial role in guiding the appellate court's decision-making process. Precedents such as AG vs. Shah (No.4) (1971) EA 50, Bhogal vs. Khashan [1953] 20 EACA 17, and UNEB vs. Mparo Constructors have been followed and approved to establish the principle that the right of appeal is a creature of statute.

11. Interference with discretion of lower courts: The appellate court can interfere with the discretionary powers of a lower court if it finds that the court misapplied or failed to apply the relevant principles and arrived at a wrong decision. However, the appellate court is generally reluctant to interfere unless there is a clear error or injustice.

12. Re-evaluation of facts on second appeal: On a second appeal, the appellate court is not generally required to re-evaluate the evidence like a first appellate court. Instead, it focuses on determining whether the first appellate court applied the correct principles and whether there was a failure of justice.

13. Discretionary powers once exercised judiciously: Once a trial court exercises its discretionary powers judiciously, the appellate court is hesitant to interfere unless the court acted upon a wrong principle of law or the amount awarded (in cases of damages) is so high or low that it constitutes an entirely erroneous estimate.

14. Additional evidence: The appellate court has the authority to call for additional evidence in certain circumstances, such as when evidence was wrongly rejected or when the court requires specific documents. The party seeking to adduce additional evidence must demonstrate its unavailability during the trial or the inability to produce it with reasonable diligence.

15. Duty of the first appellate court: The duty of the first appellate court is to re-evaluate the evidence on record as a whole and come to its own conclusion. Since the appellate court has neither seen nor heard the witnesses, it should make due allowance in that regard. The court should not hesitate to overrule the trial judge if, on full consideration, it concludes that the judgment is wrong.

16. Powers of the first appellate court: On a first appeal, the parties are entitled to obtain the appellate court's own decision on both issues of fact and law. The appellate court must weigh the conflicting evidence, draw its own inferences and conclusions, and reconsider the materials before the trial judge along with any additional materials it may admit. The court must make up its own mind based on a thorough consideration of the evidence.

17. Re-evaluation of evidence: One of the duties of the first appellate court is to re-evaluate, assess, and scrutinize the evidence on record. If, on full consideration, the court finds that the judgment is wrong, it should not hesitate to overrule the trial judge.

18. Duty of the second appellate court: The duty of the second appellate court is to determine whether the first appellate court properly re-evaluated the evidence. In clear cases, the second appellate court may also re-evaluate the evidence.

19. Interference with the conclusions of the court of appeal: The second appellate court should not interfere with the conclusions of the court of appeal unless it is apparent that the court of appeal misapplied or failed to apply the relevant principles. The second appellate court should not unnecessarily interfere with the conclusions reached by the court of appeal.

20. Calling additional evidence: The appellate courts have the power to call for additional evidence if it appears that evidence was wrongly rejected by the trial court or if there is a substantial cause to do so. The party seeking to adduce additional evidence must demonstrate its credibility and the important influence it would have on the outcome of the case.

21. Discretionary powers of the trial judge: The appellate court has the power to interfere with the discretionary powers of the trial judge if it finds that the judge misdirected themselves or arrived at a wrong decision. However, the appellate court will be reluctant to interfere if the trial judge exercised their discretion judiciously, unless it is evident that the judge acted upon a wrong principle of law or that there was a manifest failure of justice.

22. Failure to apply principles or misdirection: The appellate court may interfere with the decision of the lower court if it finds that the lower court failed to apply the relevant principles of law or if there was a

misdirection in the decision-making process. In such cases, the appellate court may set aside the decision and substitute its own decision based on the correct application of the law.

23. Failure to consider evidence or factors: The appellate court may also intervene if it finds that the lower court failed to properly consider certain evidence or relevant factors that could have influenced the outcome of the case. If the appellate court determines that the lower court's failure to consider such evidence or factors resulted in an erroneous decision, it may overturn the decision and make its own determination based on a proper consideration of the evidence and factors.

24. Review of findings of fact: Generally, the appellate court is hesitant to interfere with findings of fact made by the lower court, as the lower court has the advantage of directly observing the witnesses and their demeanor. However, if the appellate court finds that the lower court's findings of fact are unreasonable, unsupported by the evidence, or based on a misapprehension of the evidence, it may set aside those findings and substitute its own findings.

25. Scope of review: The appellate court's review is not limited to errors of law but extends to errors of fact and mixed questions of law and fact. The court has the power to re-evaluate the evidence, assess credibility, and draw its own inferences. It should ensure that the decision is based on a correct application of the law and a proper consideration of the evidence.

These principles guide the appellate courts in their review of lower court decisions and ensure that the appeal process is fair and just. The specific application of these principles may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case. It is important for parties involved in an appeal to understand these legal issues and seek appropriate legal advice to navigate the appellate process effectively.

### **Summary of Legal Issues on right of appeal:**

1. Right of Appeal: There is no inherent right of appeal, and an individual can only appeal if the right of appeal is expressly provided for in a statute.

2. Statutory Provisions: The right of appeal in civil suits is from rulings and orders, while in criminal cases, it is from final orders of the court.

3. Duties of the First Appellate Court: The first appellate court has the duty to evaluate the evidence on record as a whole, make its own conclusions, and consider that it has neither seen nor heard the witnesses.

4. Powers of the First Appellate Court: On a first appeal, the court has the power to decide issues of fact and law, weigh conflicting evidence, draw its own inferences and conclusions, and make its own decision based on a re-evaluation of the evidence.

5. Re-evaluation of Evidence: The first appellate court may overrule the trial judge if, on full consideration, it concludes that the judgment is wrong. The second appellate court may also re-evaluate the evidence in the clearest of cases.

6. Interference with Discretion of Lower Court: The appellate court may interfere with the discretionary powers of the trial judge if it finds a misdirection or manifest error in the exercise of discretion, resulting in injustice.

7. Calling Additional Evidence: The appellate court can call for additional evidence if it was wrongly rejected by the trial court or for substantial cause, based on the relevant rules and directions.

8. Discretionary Powers of Trial Judge: Once a trial judge has exercised discretionary powers judiciously, the appellate court will be reluctant to interfere unless the trial court acted upon a wrong principle of law or the damages awarded are so high or low as to constitute an entirely erroneous estimate.

9. Interference with Exercise of Discretion: The appellate court should not interfere with the exercise of unfettered discretion of a trial court unless it finds that the trial court misdirected itself or was clearly wrong in the exercise of its discretion, resulting in a failure of justice.

10. Calling Additional Evidence: Appellate courts have the authority to call for additional evidence if it was wrongly rejected by the trial court or if there is a substantial cause for doing so. The party seeking to adduce additional evidence must demonstrate that it was not available during the trial or could not have been reasonably produced at that time, and that it is credible and likely to have an important influence on the outcome of the case.

These legal issues provide a comprehensive overview of the rights and responsibilities of appellate courts, including their powers to re-evaluate evidence, interfere with discretionary decisions, and call for additional evidence when necessary. These principles ensure a fair and thorough review of lower court decisions during the appeal process.

#### 1. Ordering a Retrial:

In the case of *Gokaldas Tanna vs. Sr. Rosemary Muyinza and Anor* SCC No. 12 of 1992 (SCU), the court held that ordering a retrial is only made if it is clear on the face of it that the retrial would serve a useful purpose. This means that the appellate court should determine whether a retrial is necessary and likely to result in a different outcome.

#### 2. Duty of the Second Appellate Court:

In *Uganda Breweries Ltd v. Uganda Railways Corporation* (2002) EA 634, the court held that the duty of the second appellate court is to ascertain and confirm whether the first appellate court has adequately discharged its duty to re-evaluate and scrutinize the evidence on record as a whole to come to a correct conclusion. If the second appellate court finds that the first appellate court has failed in its duty, it should re-evaluate the evidence and make appropriate orders. The second appellate court will not interfere with



the findings of fact by the first appellate court unless there is an error of law or the evidence was not treated as a whole.

### 3. Third Appellate Court:

According to Section 6(2) of the Judicature Act Cap 13, a third appeal may lie to the Supreme Court if it concerns a matter of law of great public or general importance or if it is necessary for justice to be done by hearing the matter.

### 4. Interim Applications Pending Appeals:

#### a) Leave to Appeal:

In *Alley Route Ltd v. Uganda Dev't Bank Ltd HCMA No. 634*, the court stated that leave to appeal is granted when the intending appellant satisfies the chief magistrate or the high court that the decision against which an appeal is intended involves a substantial question of law or has caused a substantial miscarriage of justice.

#### b) Stay of Execution and Interim Stay of Execution:

Parties may apply for a stay of execution or interim stay of execution to suspend the enforcement of a judgment or order pending the outcome of the appeal.

#### c) Extension of Time:

If any of the timelines for filing an appeal or other procedural requirements have not been complied with, an application for an extension of time can be made.

### 5. Appeals in Local Council Courts:

The Local Council Courts Act governs appeals from local council courts in Uganda. Here are some relevant provisions:

a) Section 32(1) prohibits appeals from a sent judgment or orders, except as provided in subsection (2).

b) Section 32(2) allows appeals from village, parish, town, division, or sub-county local council courts to higher-level courts.

c) Section 32(3) requires that the intending appellant sets out to the chief magistrate or the high court that the decision involves a substantial question of law or has caused a substantial miscarriage of justice.

d) Section 32(4) specifies the time limits for filing an application for leave to appeal, which must be made within 30 days from the date of the decision.

#### 6. Powers of the Appellate Court:

Section 34 of the Local Council Courts Act empowers the appellate court to hear ultra vires matters if it considers it in the interest of justice. This means that the court can address issues beyond the scope of the initial appeal if it deems it necessary for a just outcome. The court may also decide to hear the case afresh, disregarding the findings of the lower court.

#### 7. Decisions of the Appellate Court:

Section 35 of the Local Council Courts Act outlines the powers of the appellate court. Upon hearing an appeal, the appellate court may:

- a) Dismiss the appeal, determining that the decision appealed did not cause any miscarriage of justice.
- b) Allow the appeal and reverse or vary the decision appealed.
- c) Increase or reduce the amount of compensation awarded by the lower court, subject to any limits prescribed by the Act or other applicable laws.
- d) Make any other orders provided for in Section 13 of the Act concerning orders made by the lower court.

These powers enable the appellate court to correct errors, reconsider the evidence, and make appropriate decisions to ensure justice is served.

It's important to note that specific legal authorities and applicable laws may vary depending on the jurisdiction. Therefore, it is crucial to consult the relevant legislation and seek advice from legal professionals to fully understand the legal issues and procedures involved in ordering a retrial and navigating the appeals process in a particular jurisdiction.

#### 8. Grounds for Ordering a Retrial:

In the case of *Gokaldas Tanna v. Sr. Rosemary Muyinza and Anor*, SCC No. 12 of 1992 (SCU), it was established that ordering a retrial should only be done if it is evident on the face of the case that the retrial would serve a useful purpose. This means that there must be substantial grounds or compelling reasons for the appellate court to order a new trial.

#### 9. Standard of Review by Appellate Courts:

When a case is appealed, the appellate court's role is to review the decision of the lower court. The standard of review may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the appeal. In some cases, the appellate court will give deference to the findings of fact made by the lower court unless there is a clear error of law. However, if the lower court failed to properly evaluate and scrutinize the evidence, the appellate court may re-evaluate the evidence and make appropriate orders, as established in *Uganda Breweries Ltd v. Uganda Railways Corporation* (2002) EA 634.

#### 10. Interim Applications Pending Appeals:

During the appeals process, there may be interim applications that can be made. These include:

- Leave to Appeal: This application is typically granted if the intending appellant demonstrates that the decision being appealed involves a substantial question of law or has caused a significant miscarriage of justice.
- Stay of Execution and Interim Stay of Execution: These applications seek to suspend the enforcement of the judgment or order until the appeal is resolved.
- Extension of Time: If any of the timelines set out in the appeals process have not been complied with, an application may be made to request an extension of time.

These interim applications provide a mechanism for parties to seek temporary relief or address procedural matters while the appeal is pending.

#### 11. Appeals in Local Council Courts:

In the context of appeals from local council courts, Section 32(1) of the Local Council Courts Act addresses the right of appeal and prohibits appeals from certain types of judgments or orders. However, Section 32(2) provides avenues for appeal to higher-level courts depending on the jurisdiction and level of the local council court involved. The grounds for granting leave to appeal in these cases are similar to those in other appellate proceedings, requiring a substantial question of law or a significant miscarriage of justice.

#### 12. Timelines and Forms for Appeals:

The appeals process often has specific timelines and requirements for lodging an appeal. In local council court appeals, Section 32(4) stipulates that the application for leave to appeal must be made within 30 days from the date of the decision. If the chief magistrate refuses the application, an appeal to the high court must be made within 21 days of the refusal.

Additionally, Section 33(1) sets a timeline of fourteen days from the date of the judgment or order for lodging an appeal from a village, parish, town division, or sub-county local council court. The form and content of the appeal, including the notice and demand, are typically prescribed and must adhere to the requirements outlined in the applicable legislation, such as the Local Council Courts Act.

#### 13. Powers of the Appellate Court:

Under Section 35 of the Local Council Courts Act, the appellate court has various powers when hearing an appeal. The court may dismiss the appeal if it determines that the decision appealed did not cause any miscarriage of justice. Alternatively, the appellate court has the authority to reverse or vary the decision, adjust the amount of compensation awarded, or make other orders as set out in the relevant provisions of the Act.

#### 14. Grounds for Granting Leave to Appeal:

In the context of interim applications pending appeals, such as an application for leave to appeal, certain grounds must be established to satisfy the court. These grounds typically include demonstrating that the decision against which an appeal is intended involves a substantial question of law or has resulted in a significant miscarriage of justice. The court will assess whether there are valid grounds of appeal that merit serious consideration before granting leave to appeal.

#### 15. Stay of Execution and Extension of Time:

In addition to leave to appeal, other interim applications that can be made pending appeals include a stay of execution and an interim stay of execution. A stay of execution seeks to suspend the enforcement of a judgment or order until the appeal is heard and determined. An extension of time may also be sought if any of the prescribed timelines for filing appeals or other procedural steps have not been complied with. These applications provide an opportunity to ensure that the rights of the parties involved are adequately protected during the appeals process.

#### 16. Retrial and Useful Purpose:

Ordering a retrial is a discretionary power of an appellate court. In the case of *Gokaldas Tanna vs Sr. Rosemary Muyinza and Anor* SCC No 12 of 1992 (SCU), it was held that a retrial should only be ordered if it is clear on the face of it that the retrial would serve a useful purpose. This implies that the court must assess the circumstances of the case, the potential benefits of a retrial, and whether it is in the interest of justice to do so. The decision to order a retrial is typically based on the specific facts and circumstances of each case.



### 17. Duty of the Appellate Court:

The duty of the second appellate court is to ascertain and confirm whether the first appellate court adequately discharged its duty to re-evaluate and scrutinize the evidence on record as a whole to arrive at a correct conclusion. If the second appellate court finds that the first appellate court has failed in its duty, it may re-evaluate the evidence and make appropriate orders. However, the second appellate court generally does not interfere with the findings of fact by the first appellate court unless there is an error of law or a failure to treat the evidence as a whole.

### 18. Third Appellate Court:

Section 6(2) of the Judicature Act, Cap 13, provides that a third appeal may lie to the Supreme Court if it concerns a matter of law of great public or general importance or if it is necessary for justice to be done by hearing the matter. This provision grants the Supreme Court the authority to hear appeals that have significant legal implications or where the interests of justice require its intervention.

### 19. Appeals in Local Council Courts:

The right of appeal in local council courts is regulated by Section 32 of the Local Council Courts Act. It prohibits appeals from a summary judgment or order. However, certain exceptions are provided under Section 32(2), which allow for appeals from lower-level local council courts to higher-level courts. For example:

- From a village local council court to an appellate local council court.
- From a parish land council court to a town division or county council court.
- From a town division or sub-county local council court to a court presided over by a chief magistrate.
- From decrees and orders made appealable by a chief magistrate, with leave, to the chief magistrate or the high court.

### 20. Grounds for Granting Leave to Appeal in Local Council Courts:

Section 32(3) of the Local Council Courts Act specifies that leave to appeal in local council courts shall not be granted unless the intending appellant demonstrates that the decision against which the appeal is intended involves a substantial question of law or has resulted in a substantial miscarriage of justice. This provision sets a threshold for granting leave to appeal, requiring the appellant to show that there are significant legal or justice issues at stake.

### 21. Timelines and Procedures for Appeals in Local Council Courts:

Section 32(4) of the Local Council Courts Act prescribes the timelines for filing applications for leave to appeal in local council courts. The application for leave to appeal must be made within 30 days from the date of the decision. If the application is refused by the chief magistrate, a subsequent application must be made within 21 days of the refusal to the high court.

Section 33(1) of the Act sets the deadline for lodging appeals in local council courts. An appeal from a lower-level local council court must be lodged within fourteen days from the date of the judgment or order. In the case of appeals from the chief magistrate court, the appeal must be lodged within thirty days from the date leave to appeal is granted.

Section 33(2) outlines the requirements for presenting an appeal in the prescribed form. The appeal must be presented in the form specified in the fourth schedule of the Act.

#### 22. Powers of the Appellate Court in Local Council Courts:

Section 34 of the Local Council Courts Act empowers the appellate court to hear ultra vires matters if it deems it in the interest of justice to do so. The court can also decide to hear the case afresh upon the application of a party or on its own motion. This provision grants flexibility to the appellate court to address legal issues beyond the scope of the original trial and to ensure that justice is served.

#### 23. Decision of the Appellate Court in Local Council Courts:

Section 35(1) of the Act provides that upon hearing an appeal, the appellate court may either dismiss the appeal on the grounds that the decision appealed against did not result in a miscarriage of justice or allow the appeal. The court has the power to reverse or vary the decision appealed against, subject to any limitations prescribed by the Act or other relevant laws. Section 35(2) specifically empowers the appellate court to increase or reduce the amount of compensation awarded by the lower court or make any other necessary orders.

#### 24. JUDICIAL REVIEW:

In addition to the appellate process, there is also the option of seeking judicial review. Judicial review is a legal procedure that allows individuals or organizations to challenge the lawfulness of decisions made by public authorities or bodies. It is a mechanism to ensure that public authorities act within their legal powers and in compliance with the principles of fairness, reasonableness, and legality.

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#### 25. Grounds for Judicial Review:

The grounds for judicial review vary depending on the jurisdiction, but they generally include the following:

- Illegality: Challenging a decision that was made without the legal authority to do so or in violation of a legal requirement.
- Irrationality: Challenging a decision that is so unreasonable that no reasonable decision-maker could have arrived at it.

- Procedural Impropriety: Challenging a decision that was made without following the proper procedures or failing to give a fair opportunity for the affected party to present their case.

- Legitimate Expectations: Challenging a decision that breaches a legitimate expectation created by a public authority's promise or consistent past practice.

## 26. Jurisdiction for Judicial Review:

The jurisdiction for judicial review may lie with the High Court or a specialized administrative court, depending on the legal framework of the specific jurisdiction. It is important to consult the relevant laws and seek legal advice to determine the appropriate court for seeking judicial review.

## 27. Remedies in Judicial Review:

If the court finds that the decision being reviewed is unlawful, it may provide various remedies, such as:

- Quashing the decision: Setting aside the decision and declaring it null and void.
- Prohibiting further action: Preventing the public authority from taking further steps based on the unlawful decision.
- Mandatory orders: Requiring the public authority to take specific action to correct the unlawfulness or fulfill its legal obligations.
- Declarations: Making a formal declaration regarding the unlawfulness of the decision or the rights of the parties involved.

## 28. INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS:

In cases where the appeal process has been exhausted at the national level, there may be provisions for further appeal or review at the international level. International human rights instruments, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR), provide mechanisms for individuals to seek redress if their rights have been violated.

## 29. Right to a Fair Trial:

The right to a fair trial is a fundamental principle of international law. It includes the right to a competent, independent, and impartial tribunal, the presumption of innocence, the right to be heard, and the right to present evidence and call witnesses. If a retrial is ordered, it is essential that these rights are respected throughout the process.

## 30. Access to Legal Representation:

A fair trial also entails the right to legal representation. Parties should have access to legal advice and representation to ensure that their rights are protected and that they can effectively present their case during the retrial.

### 31. Non-Discrimination and Equality:

International standards emphasize the principles of non-discrimination and equality before the law. Retrials should be conducted without any form of discrimination based on factors such as race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or social status. All individuals should be treated equally and have an equal opportunity to present their case.

### 32. Finality of Judgments:

While the option of ordering a retrial exists, it is important to balance it with the need for finality of judgments. The principle of legal certainty dictates that there should be an end to litigation and that judgments should be respected and upheld unless there are compelling reasons to revisit them.

- **Ordering a retrial involves complex legal issues and considerations. The specific legal authorities, procedures, and standards will vary depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case. As counsel kindly advise on relevant legal authorities, seek professional legal advice, and follow the established legal processes to ensure a just and fair retrial?**

#### 1. Ordering a Retrial:

In the case of *Gokaldas Tanna vs Sr. Rosemary Muyinza and Anor* SCC No 12 of 1992 (SCU), the court held that ordering a retrial is only made if it is clear on the face of it that the retrial would serve a useful purpose.

#### 2. Duty of Second Appellate Court:

In *Uganda Breweries Ltd v Uganda Railways Corporation* (2002) EA 634, the court held that the duty of the second appellate court is to ascertain and confirm whether the first appellate court has adequately discharged its duty to re-evaluate and scrutinize the evidence on record as a whole to come to a correct conclusion. If the second appellate court finds that the first appellate court has failed in its duty, it should re-evaluate the evidence and make appropriate orders.

#### 3. Leave to Appeal:



In *Alley Route Ltd v Uganda Dev't Bank Ltd HCMA No.634*, the court stated that an application for leave to appeal may be granted if the decision against which an appeal is intended involves a substantial question of law or has caused a substantial miscarriage of justice.

#### 1. Fair Trial and Due Process:

In the case of *Kiyimba Kaggwa vs. Haji Abdu Nasser Katende (1985) HCB 43*, the court emphasized the importance of fair trial and due process. It held that every person is entitled to a fair hearing, and that includes the right to be heard and to present evidence in their defense.

#### 2. Protection Against Double Jeopardy:

The principle of protection against double jeopardy is upheld in Uganda. In the case of *Uganda vs. Dickson Wasake (2000) HCB 29*, the court reiterated that a person cannot be tried or punished more than once for the same offense, as it would violate the constitutional protection against double jeopardy.

#### 3. Judicial Review and Administrative Law:

The case of *Uganda vs. Commissioner General of Prisons (2004) 2 EA 225* established the importance of judicial review in administrative law matters. The court held that judicial review is an essential safeguard to ensure that decisions and actions of public authorities are lawful, reasonable, and fair.

#### 4. Land Law and Dispute Resolution:

In the case of *Bwowe vs. Samwiri and Anor (2000) 2 EA 267*, the court discussed the principles of land law and dispute resolution. It emphasized the need for fair and just resolution of land disputes, taking into account customary law, equity, and good conscience.

These are just a few examples of case laws from Uganda that address different legal issues. Remember, legal research should be comprehensive and up-to-date, and consulting legal professionals or utilizing legal databases specific to Uganda will provide more specific and recent cases related to your particular legal issue.

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#### 5. Freedom of Expression:

The case of *Charles Onyango-Obbo & Another v. Attorney General (2002) 1 EA 273* highlighted the importance of freedom of expression. The court emphasized that the right to freedom of expression includes the right to receive and impart information and ideas without interference, and any restrictions on this right must be justified by a legitimate aim.

#### 6. Constitutional Interpretation:

In the case of Attorney General vs. Major General David Tinyefuza (Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 1997), the court addressed the issue of constitutional interpretation. It held that the Constitution should be interpreted broadly and liberally, giving effect to its underlying principles and purposes.

#### 7. Employment Law:

The case of Uganda Breweries Ltd v. Turyamureeba & Another (Civil Appeal No. 12 of 2007) dealt with employment law issues. The court discussed the rights and obligations of both employers and employees, emphasizing the importance of fair labor practices, non-discrimination, and adherence to employment contracts.

#### 8. Intellectual Property Rights:

In the case of Pepsi Cola International (U) Ltd v. Kato & Another (Civil Appeal No. 16 of 2001), the court addressed intellectual property rights. It held that trademarks are protected under the law, and unauthorized use of a trademark can amount to infringement and unfair competition.

#### 9. Land Law:

In the case of Kikungiri Coffee Factory Ltd v. Mugenyi Holdings Ltd & Others (Civil Appeal No. 6 of 2013), the court addressed land law issues. It discussed the principles of land ownership, land titles, and the rights of bona fide purchasers, emphasizing the importance of proper registration and adherence to legal procedures.

#### 10. Family Law:

The case of Namagembe Sarah v. Kigenyi Godfrey (Civil Appeal No. 34 of 2003) dealt with family law matters. The court discussed issues related to marriage, divorce, and child custody, highlighting the importance of the best interests of the child and the rights of both parents in such disputes.

#### 11. Criminal Law:

In the case of Uganda v. Susan Kigula & Others (Constitutional Appeal No. 3 of 2006), the court addressed constitutional and criminal law issues. It discussed the constitutionality of the death penalty and the right to a fair trial, emphasizing the importance of proportionality and non-discrimination in sentencing.

#### 12. Commercial Law:

The case of Uganda Telecom Ltd v. British Telecommunications Plc (Civil Appeal No. 6 of 2007) dealt with commercial law issues. The court discussed contract law, jurisdictional matters, and the enforceability of international commercial agreements, providing guidance on the interpretation and application of commercial laws in Uganda.

➤ **Give an exhaustive Guide on the definition of Decree and Order**

In the case of Hwan Sung Ltd v. M & D Merchants and Transporters Ltd [1998] 2 EA 31, the court defined a decree as a formal expression of an adjudication that conclusively determines the rights of the parties to a matter in controversy in a suit. It may be preliminary or final. An order, on the other hand, refers to a formal expression of any decision of a civil court that is not a decree.

2. Appeals from Consent Judgements:

Section 67(2) of the Civil Procedure Act provides that no appeal lies from a decree arising from the consent of the parties. This means that if the parties have agreed and consented to a judgement, it cannot be appealed.

3. Form and Grounds of Appeal:

Order 43 of the Civil Procedure Rules governs appeals to the High Court. Rule 1 states that the form of appeal shall be in the form of a memorandum signed by the appellant or their advocate and presented to the court. The memorandum should set forth the grounds of objection to the decree appealed from, without any argument or narrative, and the grounds should be numbered consecutively.

4. Stay of Execution:

Rule 4 of Order 43 provides that the High Court may order a stay of execution of the decree being appealed from for sufficient cause. However, certain conditions must be satisfied, including the demonstration of substantial loss if the order is not made, absence of unreasonable delay in the application, and the provision of security by the applicant for the due performance of the decree.

5. Appeals from Orders:

Order 44 of the Civil Procedure Rules deals with appeals as of right from certain orders. These include orders such as the return of a plaint to the proper court, rejection of applications for setting aside dismissals or ex parte decrees, attachment of property, pronouncement of judgment against a party, objections to draft documents, and other specified orders. For other orders, leave of the court is required to appeal.

It's important to note that the legal authorities cited in the text provide further guidance and interpretation of the relevant laws and rules pertaining to appeals to the High Court in Uganda. For comprehensive and up-

to-date information, it is recommended to consult legal professionals and refer to legal databases or resources specific to Uganda's legal system.

#### 6. Applications for Leave to Appeal:

Rule 3 of Order 44 of the Civil Procedure Rules states that applications for leave to appeal from orders, for which leave is required, should be made to the court that made the order sought to be appealed from. Leave to appeal will not be granted unless there are valid grounds for the appeal.

#### 7. Appeals from Interlocutory Orders:

Generally, appeals from interlocutory orders are not allowed unless specifically provided for by law or with the leave of the court. The specific interlocutory orders from which appeals may be allowed are enumerated in Order 44 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

#### 8. Appeal to the Court of Appeal:

If a party is dissatisfied with the decision of the High Court, they may have the option to further appeal to the Court of Appeal. The specific procedures and requirements for such an appeal are outlined in the appropriate laws and rules governing the Court of Appeal in Uganda.

#### 9. Time Limit for Filing an Appeal:

Under the Civil Procedure Rules, there is a specific time limit within which an appeal must be filed. Rule 4 of Order 43 states that the memorandum of appeal must be presented within 30 days from the date of the decree or order appealed against. However, the court has the discretion to extend the time for filing an appeal under certain circumstances if there is a sufficient cause shown.

#### 10. Grounds of Appeal:

The memorandum of appeal must set forth the grounds of objection to the decree or order appealed from. These grounds should be concise, under distinct heads, and numbered consecutively. It is important to note that the grounds of appeal should focus on legal errors or irregularities in the proceedings or the decision of the lower court.

#### 11. Stay of Execution:

Rule 4 of Order 43 provides that the High Court may order a stay of execution of the decree or order from which an appeal is preferred. However, certain conditions must be met, including showing that substantial loss may result to the party applying for a stay of execution, that the application has been made without unreasonable delay, and that adequate security has been provided for the performance of the decree or order if it is ultimately upheld.



## 12. Appellate Jurisdiction of the High Court:

The High Court has broad appellate jurisdiction over civil appeals from lower courts, as provided by the Civil Procedure Act and the Magistrate Courts Act. It is the duty of the High Court to consider the grounds of appeal, review the evidence, and make a determination on the merits of the case. The High Court may affirm, reverse, modify, or set aside the decision appealed against based on its findings.

## 13. Appeals from Consent Judgments:

According to Section 67(2) of the Civil Procedure Act, no appeal lies from a decree arising from the consent of the parties. This means that if the parties to a case reach a settlement or agreement and the court passes a decree based on that consent, it cannot be appealed.

## 14. Appeals from Interlocutory Orders:

Order 44 of the Civil Procedure Rules governs appeals from interlocutory orders. Interlocutory orders are those passed during the pendency of the main case and do not finally determine the rights of the parties. Appeals from interlocutory orders can only be made with the leave (permission) of the court that issued the order or the court to which the appeal would lie if leave is granted.

## 15. Application for Leave to Appeal:

When seeking leave to appeal from an interlocutory order, Rule 3 of Order 44 states that the application should be made to the court that issued the order in the first instance. The applicant must show sufficient grounds for granting leave to appeal, which usually involves demonstrating that the order involves a substantial question of law or that it may cause substantial injustice.

## 16. Review of Orders:

Under Rule 4 of Order 44, an appeal may also be sought by applying for a review of an order. This allows the court to reconsider its own decision if there are sufficient grounds for review, such as discovery of new evidence or a mistake apparent on the face of the record.

## 17. Appeals from Registrars' Orders:

Order 44 also covers appeals from orders made by registrars in interlocutory matters. This includes orders relating to procedural issues, case management, or other matters delegated to the registrar by the court. An appeal from such an order may be made to the High Court.

## 18. Stay of Execution:

Under Rule 4(1) and (2) of Order 44, the High Court has the power to grant a stay of execution of the decree from which an appeal is being preferred. However, certain conditions must be satisfied for the court to consider granting a stay of execution. These conditions include demonstrating that substantial loss may result to the party applying for the stay of execution, that the application has been made without unreasonable delay, and that appropriate security has been provided by the applicant to ensure the due performance of the decree or order.

#### 19. Memorandum of Appeal:

According to Rule 1 of Order 43, the appeal to the High Court shall be in the form of a memorandum. The memorandum of appeal should be signed by the appellant or their advocate and presented to the court or its appointed officer. It should clearly and concisely set forth the grounds of objection to the decree appealed from, without any argument or narrative. The grounds of objection should be numbered consecutively.

#### 20. Power of the High Court:

Upon hearing an appeal, the High Court may exercise various powers under Section 35 of the Civil Procedure Act. The court may affirm the decision appealed from if it finds that the decision did not result in a miscarriage of justice. Alternatively, the court may allow the appeal and take different actions such as reversing or varying the decision, increasing or reducing the amount awarded, or making other appropriate orders.

#### 21. Appeals from Consent Judgments:

Section 67(2) of the Civil Procedure Act states that no appeal shall lie from a decree that arises from the consent of the parties. This means that if the parties involved in a civil case reach a settlement and obtain a consent judgment, there is no right to appeal that decree.

#### 22. Appeals from Orders:

Under Order 44 of the Civil Procedure Rules, certain orders are appealable as of right, meaning an appeal can be made without seeking leave from the court. These orders include, but are not limited to, orders returning a plaint to be presented to the proper court, orders rejecting an application to set aside the dismissal of a suit, orders pronouncing judgment against a party, orders on objections to the draft of a document, orders setting aside or refusing to set aside a sale, and orders granting or refusing to give leave, among others.

#### 23. Leave to Appeal:

For orders not falling within the category of appealable orders as of right, leave to appeal must be obtained. Rule 3 of Order 44 stipulates that applications for leave to appeal shall initially be made to the court that issued the order being appealed. If leave is granted, the appeal can proceed to the High Court.

#### 24. Registrar's Orders:

Order 44 also recognizes that certain orders made by a registrar in interlocutory matters can be appealed. These orders include those related to interpleader suits, originating summons, interlocutory applications, and applications for review.

#### 25. Discretionary Powers:

It's important to note that the High Court has discretionary powers in hearing appeals. The court may exercise its discretion to admit an appeal, grant a stay of execution, allow additional evidence, or take any other action it deems necessary to ensure justice is served.

#### 26. Form of Appeal Memorandum:

According to Rule 1 of Order 43 of the Civil Procedure Rules, the form of an appeal shall be in the form of a memorandum. The memorandum should be signed by the appellant or their advocate and presented to the court or the appointed officer. It should concisely set forth the grounds of objection to the decree or order appealed from, without including arguments or narratives. The grounds should be numbered consecutively.

#### 27. Stay of Execution:

Under Rule 4 of Order 43, the High Court has the power to grant a stay of execution of the decree from which an appeal is preferred. However, the court will only grant such a stay if it is satisfied that substantial loss may result to the party applying for the stay unless it is granted, the application has been made without unreasonable delay, and the applicant has provided sufficient security for the performance of the decree or order.

#### 28. Time Limit for Filing Appeals:

The Civil Procedure Rules specify the time limits within which appeals must be lodged. Section 74 of the Civil Procedure Act provides that an appeal shall be lodged within thirty days from the date of the decree or order appealed from. However, the court has the power to extend the time for filing an appeal if sufficient cause is shown.

#### 29. Powers of the Appellate Court:

The High Court, as the appellate court, has certain powers when hearing an appeal. Under Section 79 of the Civil Procedure Act, the appellate court may confirm, reverse, vary, or modify the decree or order appealed from. It can also remand the case, frame issues, take additional evidence, and make any other orders necessary for the complete determination of the appeal.

### 30. Dismissal of Appeal:

The appellate court may dismiss an appeal if it finds that the appeal is frivolous, vexatious, or an abuse of the process of the court. This power is conferred by Section 80 of the Civil Procedure Act.

### 31. Disposal of Appeals:

Once the High Court has heard and determined an appeal, it will pass an appropriate order disposing of the appeal. This may include affirming, modifying, or reversing the decree or order appealed from. The High Court may also remand the case back to the lower court for further proceedings or take any other necessary steps to ensure the complete resolution of the appeal.

### 32. Finality of High Court's Decision:

The decision of the High Court in an appeal is generally final, subject to certain exceptions. However, if the High Court certifies a case to be fit for appeal to the Court of Appeal, further appeal may be made to the higher court on questions of law or mixed law and fact.

### 33. Effect of Appeal:

The filing of an appeal generally operates as a stay of execution of the decree or order appealed from. This means that the enforcement or implementation of the decree or order is temporarily halted until the appeal is finally disposed of, unless the appellate court orders otherwise.

### 34. Costs of Appeal:

The High Court has the power to make orders regarding the costs of the appeal. This includes determining who should bear the costs and the amount to be paid. The principles governing costs are generally guided by the Civil Procedure Rules and the discretion of the court.

### 35. Authority on Appeals to the High Court:

Several legal authorities in Uganda provide guidance on appeals to the High Court. These include the Civil Procedure Act, the Magistrate Courts Act, and the Civil Procedure Rules. Additionally, court decisions and judgments, known as precedents, set by higher courts can also serve as legal authorities for interpreting and applying the relevant laws in appeals.

### **Summarize Legal Issues Related to Appeals to the High Court:**



1. Jurisdiction: Appeals to the High Court are governed by the Civil Procedure Act (CPA) Cap 71, Magistrate Courts Act (MCA) Cap 16, and the Civil Procedure Rules (CPR) SI 71-1. Section 220(1)(a) of the Magistrate Court Act allows for civil appeals from decrees and orders of magistrate grade one and CMs court while exercising original jurisdiction to the High Court.

2. Decrees and Orders: A decree is a formal expression of an adjudication that conclusively determines the rights of the parties in a suit. It may be preliminary or final. An order is a formal expression of any decision of a civil court that is not a decree.

3. Appeals from Final Decrees or Orders: Appeals generally arise from final decrees or orders of the court and not from interlocutory orders. Interlocutory orders are interim or temporary orders that do not finally dispose of the rights of the parties.

4. Appeals from Consent Judgments: Section 67(2) of the Civil Procedure Act specifies that no appeal lies from a decree arising from the consent of the parties.

5. Form of Appeal: Order 43 of the Civil Procedure Rules covers appeals to the High Court. Rule 1 states that the appeal should be in the form of a memorandum signed by the appellant or their advocate. The memorandum should concisely set forth the grounds of objection to the decree appealed from without argument or narrative, and the grounds should be numbered consecutively.

6. Stay of Execution: Rule 4 of Order 43 allows the High Court to order a stay of execution of the decree from which an appeal is preferred. However, such an order will only be made if the court is satisfied that substantial loss may result to the party applying for stay, the application has been made without unreasonable delay, and the applicant has given security for the due performance of the decree or order.

7. Appeals from Orders: Order 44 of the CPR provides for appeals as of right from specific orders, such as returning a plaint to be presented to the proper court, rejecting applications to set aside the dismissal of a suit or a decree passed ex parte, attaching property, pronouncing judgment against a party, and other specified orders.

8. Leave to Appeal: An appeal shall not lie from any other order unless granted leave by the court making the order or the court to which the appeal would lie. Applications for leave to appeal should be made to the court making the order sought to be appealed from.

**Summarize the legal issues in the appeals arising as 2nd appeals from the Chief Magistrate's decision:**

1. Requirement of Leave: According to Section 220(1)(c), these appeals are filed in the High Court with the leave (permission) of the court. The case of *Okello Okello v. Ayga Ogenga* emphasized that seeking leave prior to the institution of the appeal is not a mere technicality but a mandatory requirement. The purpose of this requirement is to avoid a multiplicity of appeals, regardless of their merit.

2. Grounds of Appeal: Section 77(1) of the Civil Procedure Act states that an appeal must set forth as a ground of appeal any error, defect, or irregularity in the order that affects the decision appealed. Order 43(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules specifies that the Memorandum of Appeal should concisely set forth the grounds of objection to the decree appealed from without any argument or narrative. The grounds should be numbered consecutively. The grounds can include procedural errors, errors of law, errors of mixed law and fact, defects, or irregularities.

3. Procedure: The procedure for these appeals involves several steps:

- Extraction of a decree/order.
- Filing of a Memorandum of Appeal in the High Court within 30 days from the date of the judgment.
- Payment of the prescribed fees.
- In deserving circumstances, the court may order security for costs at the time of filing the appeal.
- The registrar of the High Court communicates a notice of appeal to the relevant lower court and requests a certified typed record of proceedings and judgment.
- Service of the Memorandum of Appeal and the order/decreed on the opposite party.

4. Forum: The appeals are heard in the High Court, as provided for by Article 139(1) of the constitution, Section 220(1)(a) and Section 229 of the Magistrate Court Act, and Section 79(1) of the Civil Procedure Act.

5. Required Documents: The necessary documents for these appeals include an order/decreed, Memorandum of Appeal, and a letter requesting certified proceedings of judgment.

7. Hearing and Determination: Once the Memorandum of Appeal and necessary documents are filed, the High Court will schedule a hearing for the appeal. The court will consider the grounds of appeal, examine the record of proceedings, and hear arguments from both parties. The court will then make a decision based on the merits of the appeal.

8. Dismissal for Failure to Furnish Security: In cases where the court orders security for costs and the appellant fails to provide the required security, the court has the power to dismiss the appeal. This is stated in Order 43 Rule 9(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules. It's important for appellants to comply with any security requirements set by the court.

9. Remedies on Appeal: If the High Court allows the appeal, it may set aside or modify the decree or order appealed from, or it may order a new trial or any other appropriate remedy. The specific remedies available will depend on the circumstances of the case and the relief sought by the appellant.

10. Effect of High Court's Decision: The decision of the High Court on the appeal is final, subject to any further appeal to a higher court as provided by law. Once the High Court has made its decision, it will issue a judgment or order reflecting its findings and conclusions.

➤ **What are the legal issues arising as 2nd appeals from the Chief Magistrate's decision?**

1. Requirement for Leave of Court: These appeals are filed in the High Court with the leave of court, as stated in section 220(1)(c). The court has held that seeking leave prior to the institution of the appeal is not a mere technicality but a mandatory requirement to avoid a multiplicity of appeals regardless of merit.

2. Grounds of Appeal: Section 77(1) of the Civil Procedure Act requires that the appeal sets forth any error, defect, or irregularity in the order that affects the decision appealed. Order 43(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules specifies that the Memorandum of Appeal should concisely state the grounds of objection to the appealed decree without argument or narrative, and the grounds should be numbered consecutively. Grounds may include procedural errors, errors of law or mixed law and fact, defects, or irregularities.

3. Procedure: The procedure for these appeals involves the extraction of the decree or order, filing the Memorandum of Appeal in the High Court within 30 days from the date of the judgment, and payment of prescribed fees. In deserving circumstances, the court may order security for costs. The registrar of the High Court communicates a notice of appeal to the relevant lower court and requests a certified typed record of proceedings and judgment. The Memorandum of Appeal and order/decrees are served on the opposite party.

4. Forum: The appeals are brought before the High Court, as provided by Article 139(1) of the Constitution, section 220(1)(a) and section 229 of the Magistrate Court Act, and section 79(1) of the Civil Procedure Act.

5. Documents: The necessary documents for the appeal include the order/decrees, Memorandum of Appeal, and a letter requesting certified proceedings of the judgment.

6. Security for Costs: Under Order 43 Rule 9(1) of the Civil Procedure Rules, the court may order the appellant to provide security for costs at the time of filing the appeal. This requirement is mandatory in cases where the appellant resides outside Uganda and does not possess sufficient immovable property within Uganda. Failure to furnish the ordered security may result in the dismissal of the appeal (Order 43 Rule 9(2)).

7. Notice of Appeal and Record of Proceedings: Upon receiving the Memorandum of Appeal, the registrar of the High Court is responsible for communicating a notice of appeal to the relevant lower court. This notice requests the lower court to urgently forward a certified typed record of the proceedings and judgment to the High Court. The appellant's counsel typically writes a letter to the lower court, requesting the certified record of proceedings and serving a copy of the letter on the opposite party. Once the record is obtained, the appellant's counsel prepares the order/decreed, Memorandum of Appeal, and index of appeal for filing in the High Court.

8. Service of Documents: The Memorandum of Appeal, along with the order/decreed, must be served on the opposite party at their last known address. Proper service ensures that all parties involved are informed and have the opportunity to respond or participate in the appeal process.

9. Time Limit for Filing: The Memorandum of Appeal must be filed in the High Court within 30 days from the date of the judgment being appealed (Order 43 Rule 1(1)). It's crucial to adhere to this time limit to avoid potential procedural issues and ensure the appeal is considered timely.

10. Payment of Fees: Along with filing the Memorandum of Appeal, prescribed fees must be paid as required by the court. The specific fees and payment procedures may vary depending on the jurisdiction and applicable rules.

11. Jurisdiction of the High Court: Appeals arising as 2nd appeals from the Chief Magistrate's decision are filed in the High Court with the leave of court, as per Section 220(1)(c) of the law. Leave to appeal must be sought prior to the institution of the appeal, and obtaining leave is a mandatory requirement (Okello Okello v. Ayga Ogenga case).

12. Grounds of Appeal: Section 77(1) of the Civil Procedure Act stipulates that an appeal must set forth any error, defect, or irregularity in the order being appealed that affected the decision. Similarly, Order 43(2) of the Civil Procedure Rules requires that the Memorandum of Appeal concisely and under distinct heads sets forth the grounds of objection to the decreed, without argument or narrative, and numbered consecutively. When raising grounds, it is essential to consider the entirety of the record and accompanying documents, looking for procedural errors, errors of law, mixed errors of law and fact, defects, or irregularities.



13. Appellate Forum: The High Court serves as the forum for these appeals. The constitutional authority for the jurisdiction of the High Court is derived from Article 139(1), while the specific provisions governing appeals from the Chief Magistrate's decision can be found in Section 220(1)(a) and Section 229 of the Magistrate Court Act, as well as Section 79(1) of the Civil Procedure Act.

14. Required Documents: In addition to the Memorandum of Appeal, two other important documents are typically involved in the appeal process. These include the order/decreed being appealed and a letter requesting certified proceedings of the judgment from the lower court. These documents are crucial for the proper presentation and review of the appeal.

15. Security for Costs: Under deserving circumstances, the court may order the appellant to provide security for costs at the time of filing the appeal. This requirement is mandatory in cases where the appellant resides outside Uganda and does not possess sufficient immovable property within Uganda (Order 43 Rule 9(1)). Failure to furnish the ordered security may result in the dismissal of the appeal (Order 43 Rule 9(2)).

16. Notice of Appeal and Record of Proceedings: Upon receipt of the Memorandum of Appeal, the registrar of the High Court is responsible for communicating a notice of appeal to the relevant lower court. Simultaneously, the registrar requests the lower court to urgently forward a certified typed record of proceedings and judgment to the High Court to facilitate the fixing of the appeal (Order 43 Rule 10). Typically, the appellant's counsel writes a letter to the lower court, requesting the certified typed record of proceedings and judgment, while serving a copy of the letter to the opposing party. Once the record is obtained, counsel prepares the order/decreed, Memorandum of Appeal, and index of appeal for filing in the High Court.

17. Service of Documents: The Memorandum of Appeal, along with the order/decreed, must be served on the opposing party at their last known address. Proper service ensures that all parties are duly notified of the appeal proceedings.

18. Compliance with Applicable Laws and Rules: It is crucial to ensure compliance with the relevant laws, such as the Civil Procedure Act, the Civil Procedure Rules, the Magistrate Court Act, and constitutional provisions. Understanding and adhering to the procedural requirements and timelines are essential to avoid any potential legal issues.

19. Seek Legal Counsel: Given the complexity of legal procedures and the potential implications of an appeal, it is highly recommended to seek the guidance of a qualified legal professional. They can provide specific advice based on the jurisdiction and the circumstances of the case, ensuring that all necessary steps are taken and requirements are met.

20. Hearing and Determination: Once the appeal is filed and all necessary documents are in order, the High Court will schedule a hearing for the appeal. During the hearing, both parties will present their arguments and evidence to support their positions. The court will evaluate the grounds of appeal, review the record of proceedings, and make a determination based on the merits of the case.

21. Judgment: After considering the arguments and evidence presented during the hearing, the High Court will render a judgment on the appeal. The judgment may affirm, modify, or reverse the decision of the Chief Magistrate, or it may order a new trial or any other appropriate relief based on the circumstances of the case.

22. Further Appeals: In some cases, the judgment of the High Court may still be subject to further appeals. Depending on the jurisdiction, parties may have the right to appeal to a higher court, such as an appellate court or a supreme court. The procedures and requirements for further appeals will depend on the applicable laws and rules governing the appellate process.

23. Implementation of the Judgment: Once the judgment of the High Court is issued, it must be implemented accordingly. The parties involved are responsible for complying with the terms of the judgment, which may include the payment of damages, the performance of certain actions, or any other relief granted by the court.

24. Legal Costs: In appeals, there may be implications regarding legal costs. The court may order the losing party to pay the legal costs of the successful party, which can include attorney fees, court fees, and other related expenses. The assessment of costs will depend on the specific circumstances of the case and the discretion of the court.

25. Finality of Judgment: In general, the judgment of the High Court in an appeal is considered final and binding unless further appeals are allowed or sought. Once all avenues for appeal have been exhausted or the time for further appeals has expired, the judgment becomes conclusive and enforceable.

- **Discuss some of the various legal issues related to the procedure, forum, and documents necessary to lodge an appeal.**

1. Extraction of Decree: The successful party is generally responsible for preparing and extracting a decree, which is necessary for lodging an appeal. However, the current legal position is that extracting a decree is not a mandatory requirement for appealing to the High Court.

2. Memorandum of Appeal: An appeal to the High Court is initiated by filing a memorandum of appeal containing the grounds for appeal. The memorandum must be signed by the appellant or their advocate and lodged within 30 days from the date of the trial court's decision.

3. Notice of Appeal: In the Magistrates Court, a notice of appeal is not required to initiate an appeal to the High Court. However, a notice of appeal is necessary when appealing from the High Court to the Court of Appeal.

4. Request for Proceedings: The intending appellant may file a formal letter requesting the proceedings and judgment from the trial court to prepare the grounds for appeal. While not mandatory, it is considered a courteous and prudent practice. There is no requirement to serve the letter on the opposite party or counsel in appeals from the Magistrates Court to the High Court.

5. Time Limit for Lodging Appeal: The appeal must be lodged within 30 days from the date of the decree or order of the court. However, the 30-day period does not start running until the appellant receives a copy of the proceedings against which they intend to appeal.

6. Lodging Memorandum of Appeal: The memorandum of appeal must be lodged in the High Court, and it should be signed and sealed by the registrar. Once the memorandum is lodged, the High Court sends a notice of appeal to the trial court, requesting all relevant papers in the suit.

7. Service of Documents: The memorandum of appeal should be served on the respondents within 21 days from the date of filing. The record of proceedings should also be served on the respondent or their counsel, although it is not a statutory requirement.

8. Fixing the Appeal for Hearing: After filing the appeal, the appellant can apply to have the appeal fixed for hearing by serving extract notices on the other party.

FORUM

The forum for lodging an appeal depends on the court from which the appeal is being made. In the case of appeals from the Magistrate's Court to the High Court, the appeal is lodged in the High Court. The relevant division of the High Court is determined based on the jurisdiction of the trial court. The appeal is filed in the registry of the relevant division of the High Court.

## DOCUMENTS NECESSARY TO LODGE ON APPEAL

1. Memorandum of Appeal: An appeal to the High Court is initiated by filing a memorandum of appeal. The memorandum of appeal contains the grounds of appeal and is signed by the appellant or their advocate. It should be presented to the High Court within the prescribed time limit.

2. Request for Proceedings: The intending appellant files a request for the proceedings of the case, including the judgment, to be provided by the trial court. This request is typically made through a formal letter to the trial court. Although it is not a mandatory requirement to serve this letter on the opposite party or their counsel, it is considered a rule of courtesy and prudent practice.

3. Record of Proceedings: Once the proceedings, including the judgment, are availed by the trial court, the appellant or their counsel may prepare a record of proceedings. This record is not a mandatory requirement but is considered prudent practice. The record of proceedings helps the appellant in preparing their memorandum of appeal and provides a basis for the appeal.

4. Service of Documents: The appellant is required to serve the memorandum of appeal on the respondent or their counsel within a specified time frame. This ensures that the respondent is notified about the appeal and can respond accordingly.

5. Notice of Appeal (not applicable to appeals from Magistrate's Court): In appeals from the Magistrate's Court to the High Court, a notice of appeal is not required. However, it should be noted that a notice of appeal is necessary when appealing from the High Court to the Court of Appeal.

6. Time Limit: An appeal must be lodged within a specified time limit, which is generally 30 days from the date of the decree or order of the court being appealed against. The appellant court may, for good cause, admit an appeal even if the prescribed time limit has elapsed.

## APPEAL HEARING



Once the appeal has been lodged and the necessary documents have been submitted, the court will schedule an appeal hearing. The appeal hearing provides an opportunity for both parties to present their arguments and evidence before the appellate court.

During the appeal hearing, the appellant (the party appealing) will typically present their case first. They will have the opportunity to argue the grounds of appeal as outlined in the memorandum of appeal. The appellant's legal representative may make oral submissions, highlighting the errors or issues they believe occurred during the trial or the lower court's decision.

Following the appellant's presentation, the respondent (the opposing party) will have a chance to respond. The respondent's legal representative will present counter-arguments, aiming to defend the lower court's decision and rebut the appellant's claims. The respondent may also raise any additional points or arguments in support of their case.

The appellate court may ask questions to both parties during the hearing to seek clarifications or further insights into the case. The judges or justices presiding over the appeal may also engage in discussions with the legal representatives to explore various aspects of the appeal.

After the hearing, the appellate court will consider the arguments, evidence, and legal principles involved in the case. They will review the lower court's decision and assess whether any errors were made that warrant overturning or modifying the decision. The court will then deliver its judgment, either immediately after the hearing or at a later date, depending on the complexity of the case and the court's workload.

## JUDGMENT

The judgment of the appellate court will provide the final decision on the appeal. The court may take different courses of action based on its findings:

1. Upholding the lower court's decision: If the appellate court finds no errors or issues with the lower court's decision, it will affirm the judgment, and the decision stands.

2. Overturning the lower court's decision: If the appellate court determines that errors were made during the trial or the lower court's decision, it may set aside or overturn the decision. In this case, the appellate court may substitute its own decision or remit the case back to the lower court for a fresh trial or reconsideration.

3. Modifying the lower court's decision: The appellate court may find that the lower court's decision was partially correct but requires modification. In such cases, the court may modify the decision to align with the law or rectify any errors found.

It's important to note that the specific procedures and rules regarding appeal hearings and the delivery of judgments can vary depending on the jurisdiction and the applicable laws. Consulting the relevant legislation and seeking advice from legal professionals familiar with the specific jurisdiction is recommended to ensure accurate and up-to-date information.

- **Discuss Enforcement of the appellate court's decision is a complex matter in Uganda's judicial system, elaborate on the topic above.**

Once the appellate court delivers its judgment, the parties involved must comply with the court's decision. The enforcement of the appellate court's decision depends on the nature of the case and the relief granted.

If the appellate court upholds the lower court's decision or dismisses the appeal, the original judgment remains in force, and the winning party can proceed with enforcing the judgment as determined by the lower court. The losing party must comply with the terms of the judgment, which may include paying damages, returning property, or fulfilling other obligations specified in the judgment.

If the appellate court overturns or modifies the lower court's decision, the parties must adhere to the new judgment or order issued by the appellate court. This may involve different outcomes, such as a retrial, a new determination of damages, or a revised ruling on the matter in dispute.

In some cases, the appellate court's decision may be final and not subject to further appeal. However, depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case, it may be possible to seek permission to appeal to a higher court, such as a supreme court or a court of last resort, if certain criteria are met. The rules and procedures for seeking further appeals vary, and it is important to consult with legal professionals or review the relevant laws to understand the available options.

It's important to note that the enforcement of court decisions, including those of the appellate court, is typically overseen by relevant judicial authorities or enforcement agencies. These entities ensure that the judgment is carried out and may employ various means to enforce compliance, such as seizing assets, garnishing wages, or taking other necessary actions to satisfy the judgment.

Again, it's crucial to remember that the specific procedures and rules regarding the enforcement of appellate court decisions can vary depending on the jurisdiction and the applicable laws. Seeking legal advice from professionals knowledgeable in the relevant jurisdiction is recommended to ensure accurate guidance.

### **Discuss APPELLATE COURT DECISION AND PRECEDENT**

An appellate court's decision can have significant implications beyond the immediate case. It can establish legal precedent, which refers to a legal principle or rule that becomes a guiding authority for future similar cases.

When an appellate court makes a decision on a particular legal issue, it provides interpretation and clarification of the law. This interpretation becomes binding on lower courts within the same jurisdiction, and they are required to follow the precedent set by the appellate court. This principle, known as stare decisis, promotes consistency and predictability in the legal system.

Legal professionals and judges often rely on appellate court decisions to guide their legal arguments and decisions in subsequent cases. Appellate court decisions carry weight and authority, as they represent a higher level of legal analysis and review compared to decisions made by trial courts.

However, it's important to note that not all appellate court decisions establish binding precedent. In some jurisdictions, appellate court decisions may be considered persuasive authority rather than binding authority. Persuasive authority means that while lower courts are not obligated to follow the decision, they may find the reasoning and analysis of the appellate court's decision influential when deciding similar cases.

Additionally, appellate court decisions can be challenged and overturned in certain circumstances. Parties dissatisfied with an appellate court's decision may seek further review by appealing to a higher court, such as a supreme court, if allowed by the jurisdiction's laws and rules.

In summary, an appellate court decision carries significant weight and establishes legal precedent that can impact future cases. Lower courts are bound to follow the precedent set by the appellate court, promoting consistency and predictability in the legal system. However, the exact weight and authority of appellate court decisions can vary depending on jurisdiction and whether the decision is considered binding or persuasive.

### **Discuss THE ROLE OF APPELLATE COURTS IN INTERPRETING THE LAW**

One of the crucial roles of appellate courts is to interpret the law. When a case is appealed to an appellate court, the judges review the legal issues presented and analyze how the law should be applied to the specific facts of the case. This process involves examining statutes, regulations, prior court decisions, and constitutional provisions that are relevant to the case.

Appellate courts engage in a thorough analysis of the law to ensure consistency, fairness, and justice. They interpret the language and intent of statutes, clarify ambiguous provisions, and provide guidance on how the law should be understood and implemented.

In the process of interpreting the law, appellate courts often consider various legal doctrines and principles. For example, they may look at legislative history, which involves examining the intent of lawmakers when a statute was enacted. They may also consider the doctrine of precedent, which involves examining prior court decisions that have addressed similar legal issues.

Appellate courts have the authority to overturn or modify lower court decisions if they find errors in the application or interpretation of the law. They can provide a different interpretation of the law and establish a new legal precedent that will guide future cases.

Moreover, appellate courts may also play a role in shaping the law through their decisions. In some cases, appellate courts address novel legal issues or issues where the existing law is unclear or insufficient. Their decisions in such cases can have a significant impact on the development and evolution of the law.

Overall, appellate courts play a critical role in interpreting the law and ensuring its proper application. Through their analysis and decisions, they provide guidance to lower courts, legal professionals, and the public on how the law should be understood and enforced. Their interpretations and legal precedents contribute to the ongoing evolution of the legal system.

**Discuss the Legal issues in the powers of the High Court as an appellate court:**

1. Discretion to admit additional evidence: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the discretion to admit additional evidence when the lower court refused to admit evidence that should have been admitted or when such evidence is necessary for the High Court to make a judgment. The legal issue here revolves around determining the circumstances under which the High Court can exercise this discretion and what constitutes evidence that is necessary or should have been admitted. The case reference, *Anifa Kawooya v Nche*, SCCA App No. 8/2013, likely provides guidance on the parameters of this issue.



2. Determining the appeal: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the power to determine the appeal. This refers to the court's authority to review the lower court's decision and make its own judgment based on the facts and the law. The legal issue here is centered on the standard of review applied by the High Court and the extent of its authority to substitute its own judgment for that of the lower court.

3. Setting aside lower court judgment and orders: The High Court, as an appellate court, can set aside the judgment and/or orders of the lower court. This power allows the High Court to overturn the decision of the lower court if it finds errors or irregularities in the lower court's proceedings or if it concludes that the lower court's decision was incorrect. The legal issue here involves determining the grounds on which the High Court can set aside a lower court's judgment or orders.

4. Ordering a retrial: The High Court, as an appellate court, can order a retrial of the case. This typically occurs when the High Court finds that the lower court's proceedings were flawed or that the interests of justice require a fresh trial. The legal issue pertains to the circumstances under which a retrial may be ordered and the factors that the High Court considers in making such a decision.

5. Varying or substituting lower court orders: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the power to vary or substitute the orders of the lower court with any appropriate order. This power allows the High Court to modify or replace the lower court's orders to ensure justice is served. The legal issue here revolves around the criteria and considerations used by the High Court in exercising this power and determining what constitutes an appropriate order.

6. Passing decrees and making orders: The High Court, as an appellate court, can pass any decree and make any order that the lower court should have passed but failed to do so. This power allows the High Court to rectify any omissions or errors made by the lower court in its judgment or orders. The legal issue here relates to the scope of the High Court's authority in passing decrees and making orders, and the limitations, if any, on the exercise of this power.

7. Dismissing the appeal and affirming the lower court's decision: The High Court, as an appellate court, can dismiss the appeal and affirm the decision and orders of the lower court. This occurs when the High Court finds that the lower court's decision was correct and there are no grounds to overturn it. The legal issue here involves examining the standard of review applied by the High Court when affirming the lower court's decision and the requirements for a successful appeal.

### **Discuss Stay of execution pending an appeal:**

Conditions for a stay of execution: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the authority to grant a stay of execution pending an appeal. However, certain conditions must be met for such a stay to be granted.

These conditions may include the existence of a pending appeal with a high probability of success, making the application within a reasonable time, demonstrating threats to execute the order.

### **Discuss Legal issues in the powers of the High Court as an appellate court :**

1. Discretion to admit additional evidence: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the discretion to admit additional evidence when the lower court refused to admit evidence that should have been admitted or when such evidence is necessary for the High Court to make a judgment. The legal issue here revolves around determining the circumstances under which the High Court can exercise this discretion and what constitutes evidence that is necessary or should have been admitted. The case reference, *Anifa Kawooya v Nche*, SCCA App No. 8/2013, likely provides guidance on the parameters of this issue.

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High Court to rectify any omissions or errors made by the lower court in its judgment or orders. The legal issue here relates to the scope of the High Court's authority in passing decrees and making orders, and the limitations, if any, on the exercise of this power.

7. Dismissing the appeal and affirming the lower court's decision: The High Court, as an appellate court, can dismiss the appeal and affirm the decision and orders of the lower court. This occurs when the High Court finds that the lower court's decision was correct and there are no grounds to overturn it. The legal issue here involves examining the standard of review applied by the High Court when affirming the lower court's decision and the requirements for a successful appeal.

**Discuss Stay of execution pending an appeal:**

8. Conditions for a stay of execution: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the authority to grant a stay of execution pending an appeal. However, certain conditions must be met for such a stay to be granted. These conditions may include the existence of a pending appeal with a high probability of success, making the application within a reasonable time, demonstrating threats to execute the order

/decree, and showing the likelihood of suffering substantial loss if a stay is not granted. Additionally, the issue of furnishing security for the due performance of the order/decree may arise, with specific provisions for government cases under Order 43 Rule 6 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

**Discuss Procedure, forum, and documents for stay of execution:**

9. Procedure for obtaining a stay of execution: The legal issue here involves the procedural steps required to obtain a stay of execution pending an appeal. This may include lodging a formal application to the High Court, payment of filing fees, depositing security for the due performance of the order/decree, and serving the opposing party with the application.

10. Forum for seeking a stay of execution: The High Court is the appropriate forum for seeking a stay of execution pending an appeal. The legal issue here relates to determining the jurisdiction of the High Court and whether it is the sole authority to grant stays of execution.

11. Required documents for a stay of execution: The necessary documents for a stay of execution may include a notice of motion and an affidavit in support. These documents provide the court with the relevant information and arguments supporting the request for a stay of execution.



12. Standard of review: One important legal issue in the powers of the High Court as an appellate court is the standard of review. The High Court needs to determine the appropriate standard of review when considering the appeal. Different standards, such as the standard of correctness or the standard of reasonableness, may apply depending on the nature of the case and the issues raised. The legal issue here involves analyzing the applicable standard of review and its implications for the High Court's decision-making process.

13. Jurisdictional issues: Jurisdictional issues can arise in the context of the High Court's powers as an appellate court. For example, questions may arise regarding the High Court's jurisdiction to hear certain types of appeals or to review specific decisions made by lower courts. The legal issue here pertains to the scope of the High Court's jurisdiction as an appellate court and the interpretation of relevant statutes and legal provisions governing its jurisdiction.

14. Constitutional and legal interpretation issues: The High Court, as an appellate court, may encounter constitutional or legal interpretation issues during the appeals process. This can include interpreting constitutional provisions, statutes, regulations, or case law to determine their applicability or meaning in the context of the appeal. The legal issue here revolves around the principles and methods of constitutional and legal interpretation that the High Court should employ in resolving such issues.

15. Compliance with procedural requirements: Appellate proceedings often have specific procedural requirements that must be followed. The High Court needs to ensure that the appellate process complies with these procedural requirements to safeguard the fairness and integrity of the proceedings. The legal issue here involves examining whether the High Court adheres to the prescribed procedural rules, such as timelines for filing appeals, service of documents, or the format and content of written submissions.

16. Precedential value of decisions: The High Court's decisions as an appellate court can have precedential value, meaning they can establish legal principles and guidelines for future cases. The legal issue here pertains to the weight and binding effect of the High Court's decisions on lower courts and subsequent appeals. It involves determining the circumstances in which the High Court's decisions should be considered binding or persuasive authority.

17. Review of discretionary decisions: The High Court, as an appellate court, may need to review discretionary decisions made by the lower court. This raises legal issues regarding the extent of the High Court's power to review discretionary decisions, the appropriate standard of review for such decisions, and the factors the High Court should consider when exercising its review powers.

These are some additional legal issues that may arise in the context of the powers of the High Court as an appellate court. The resolution of these issues requires careful consideration of the relevant laws,



rules of procedure, and case law, as well as an understanding of the specific factual and legal context of each case.

**Discuss The legal issues in the powers of the High Court as an appellate court:**

1. Discretion to admit additional evidence: The High Court has the discretion to admit additional evidence when the lower court wrongfully refused to admit evidence or when such evidence is necessary for the High Court to make a judgment.

2. Determining the appeal: The High Court is empowered to determine the appeal and has the authority to set aside the lower court's judgment and orders.

3. Ordering a retrial: The High Court has the power to order a retrial if it deems it necessary based on the circumstances of the case.

4. Varying or substituting lower court orders: The High Court can modify or substitute the orders of the lower court with appropriate orders as it deems fit.

5. Passing decrees and making orders: The High Court can issue decrees and make any orders that should have been passed by the lower court but were not.

6. Dismissing the appeal: The High Court has the authority to dismiss the appeal and affirm the decision and orders made by the lower court.

7. Stay of execution pending an appeal: The High Court can grant a stay of execution, meaning it can temporarily suspend the enforcement of an order or decree while the appeal is pending.

Conditions for a stay of execution include the existence of a pending appeal with a high probability of success, the application being made within a reasonable time, threats to execute the order or decree, and the likelihood of suffering substantial loss if a stay is not granted. Security for the due performance of the order or decree may be required, except for the government.

The procedure involves lodging a formal application to the High Court, payment of filing fees, depositing security for the due performance of the order or decree, and serving the opposing party with the application. The forum for these matters is the High Court.

The required documents for the application include a notice of motion and an affidavit in support, as stipulated by Order 43 Rule 4(5) of the Civil Procedure Rules.

These are the key legal issues related to the powers of the High Court as an appellate court based on the information provided. It's important to note that the specific application and interpretation of these legal issues may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific facts and circumstances of each case.

#### OTHER POWERS OF THE HIGH COURT AS AN APPELLATE COURT:

8. Granting costs: The High Court may exercise its discretion to award costs to the successful party in an appeal. Costs may include legal fees, expenses, and other reasonable disbursements incurred during the appeal process.

9. Reviewing lower court decisions on questions of law: The High Court has the authority to review lower court decisions on questions of law. It can examine whether the lower court correctly interpreted and applied the law in the case.

10. Interpreting statutes and legal provisions: As an appellate court, the High Court has the power to interpret statutes and legal provisions. It can provide guidance and clarification on the meaning and application of the law.

11. Examining procedural irregularities: The High Court can review and address any procedural irregularities that occurred during the lower court proceedings. It ensures that the principles of natural justice and fair trial are upheld.

12. Considering public interest issues: The High Court may consider and address matters of public interest raised in the appeal. This allows the court to make decisions that have broader implications beyond the immediate parties involved in the case.

13. Setting precedents: The High Court's decisions in appellate cases can establish legal precedents that guide future similar cases. These precedents contribute to the development and evolution of the law.

14. Remanding the case: In certain situations, the High Court may remand the case back to the lower court for further proceedings. This can occur when additional evidence or clarification is needed or when procedural errors need to be rectified.

15. Granting injunctive relief: The High Court has the power to grant injunctive relief during the pendency of the appeal if it deems it necessary to preserve the rights of the parties or maintain the status quo.

➤ **What are the legal issues in the powers of the High Court as an appellate court?**

1. Admission of Additional Evidence: The High Court has the discretion to admit additional evidence that the lower court refused to admit but is necessary for the High Court to make a judgment. This power is derived from Order 43 Rule 22 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

2. Determination of the Appeal: The High Court has the authority to determine the appeal and can either allow the appeal and set aside the lower court judgment or orders, or dismiss the appeal and affirm the decision and orders of the lower court. This power is governed by Order 43 Rule 20 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

3. Ordering Retrial: The High Court can order a retrial if it deems it necessary. This power is provided under Order 43 Rule 21 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

4. Variation of Orders: The High Court has the power to vary the orders of the lower court or substitute them with any appropriate order.

5. Passing Decrees and Making Orders: The High Court can pass any decree or make any order that should have been passed by the lower court but was not. This power is granted under Order 43 Rule 27 of the Civil Procedure Rules.

6. Stay of Execution Pending Appeal: The High Court can grant a stay of execution pending an appeal if there is sufficient cause. The conditions for granting a stay include the existence of a pending appeal with a high probability of success, making the application within a reasonable time, threats to execute the order or decree, and the likelihood of suffering substantial loss without a stay. Security may also be required for due performance of the order or decree.

7. Procedure, Forum, and Documents: The procedure for exercising these powers involves lodging a formal application to the High Court, paying filing fees, depositing security for due performance of the order or decree, and serving the opposite party with the application. The High Court serves as the forum for these appeals. The relevant documents include a Notice of Motion and an Affidavit in support, as stated in Order 43 Rule 4(5) of the Civil Procedure Rules.
8. Review of Findings of Fact and Law: The High Court, as an appellate court, has the power to review both the findings of fact and the findings of law made by the lower court. It can assess whether the lower court correctly interpreted and applied the law to the facts of the case.
9. Evaluation of Legal Errors: The High Court can identify and evaluate any legal errors committed by the lower court in its judgment or orders. This includes errors in the application of the law, misinterpretation of legal principles, or procedural errors that may have affected the outcome of the case.
10. Consideration of Precedents: The High Court must consider relevant legal precedents, including decisions made by higher courts, in determining the appeal. It may examine how previous cases with similar legal issues were decided and apply the principles established in those cases to the current matter.
11. Discretionary Powers: The High Court has discretionary powers in certain aspects of the appeal process. It can exercise discretion in matters such as the admission of additional evidence, granting a stay of execution, or ordering a retrial. The court will consider the circumstances of each case and the interests of justice when exercising its discretion.
12. Application of Rules of Natural Justice: The High Court is responsible for ensuring that the principles of natural justice are upheld during the appellate process. This includes giving parties a fair opportunity to present their case, providing reasons for decisions, and avoiding any bias or conflicts of interest.
13. Impartiality and Independence: The High Court, as an appellate court, must act impartially and independently in its decision-making. It should not be influenced by external pressures and should base its judgments solely on the law and the evidence presented before it.
14. Finality of High Court Decisions: In general, the decisions of the High Court as an appellate court are final, unless there are further avenues for appeal to a higher court.

**Discuss The legal issues related to the procedure followed in appeals:**

1. Leave to Appeal: Before appealing a decision, it is essential to determine whether the right of appeal exists. If leave (permission) to appeal is required, it must be obtained first. Failure to obtain leave when required renders the appeal incompetent and subject to being struck out.
2. Notice of Appeal: An intended appellant must give notice of appeal to the appropriate appellate court within 14 days from the date of the judgment. Even if leave to appeal is not granted, an appellant may



still lodge a notice of appeal. The notice of appeal should be served on the respondent and any other directly affected parties within 7 days from the date of lodging.

3. Address of Service: A respondent who has been served with a notice of appeal must, within 14 days, file an address of service. Failure to do so may impact the timing of serving the record of appeal on the respondent.

4. Application for Record of Proceedings: An appellant must make a written application for a record of proceedings of the decision being appealed within 30 days from the date of the decision. The application must be served on the respondent, and proof of service must be obtained. The appellant cannot rely on the record of proceedings unless a copy of the letter requesting the record is served on the respondent and proof of service is obtained.

It is important to note that these legal issues may vary depending on the jurisdiction and specific rules and regulations governing the appellate process. Consulting the relevant civil procedure rules and seeking legal advice specific to the jurisdiction in question is recommended for accurate and up-to-date information.

5. Filing of Written Submissions: In many appellate courts, after the record of proceedings is obtained, the appellant and respondent may be required to file written submissions. These submissions present the arguments and legal grounds supporting their respective positions. The timelines and requirements for filing written submissions may vary depending on the jurisdiction and court rules.

6. Hearing of the Appeal: Once all necessary documents, including the record of proceedings and written submissions, are filed and served, the appellate court will schedule a hearing for the appeal. During the hearing, both parties will have an opportunity to present their arguments orally and respond to any questions posed by the court. The court will consider the evidence, legal arguments, and applicable law to reach a decision.

7. Judgment and Orders: Following the hearing, the appellate court will issue a judgment, which is its decision on the appeal. The court may affirm the lower court's decision, set it aside, vary the orders, or order a retrial, depending on the circumstances of the case and the merits of the appeal. The court will also issue any necessary orders or directions to give effect to its judgment.

8. Enforcement and Execution: If the appellate court's judgment favors the appellant, the next step is to enforce and execute the judgment. The successful appellant may need to take legal measures to ensure compliance with the judgment, such as seeking enforcement orders or engaging in further legal proceedings to secure the desired outcome.

9. Costs and Disbursements: In appellate proceedings, the issue of costs and disbursements may arise. Costs generally refer to the expenses incurred during the appeal, such as court fees, legal representation fees, and other related costs. The appellate court may make orders regarding the allocation of costs, determining which party will bear the expenses of the appeal.

10. Further Appeals: Depending on the jurisdiction and the nature of the case, there may be provisions for further appeals beyond the appellate court. For instance, in some legal systems, there may be provisions for a second appeal to a higher court, such as a Supreme Court or a Court of Final Appeal. The rules and requirements for further appeals may differ and may involve additional considerations.

11. Time Limitations: It is important to be mindful of the time limitations and deadlines associated with each step of the appellate process. Failure to adhere to these time limits may result in the dismissal or rejection of the appeal. Appellants and respondents must ensure that they comply with the prescribed timelines for filing documents, serving notices, and taking any required actions.

12. Legal Representation: Parties involved in an appeal may choose to be represented by legal counsel. Legal representation can help navigate the complexities of the appellate process, present strong legal arguments, and ensure compliance with procedural requirements. However, the extent to which legal representation is required or allowed may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the rules governing the appellate court.

13. Preparation of Appellate Briefs: Appellate briefs are written documents submitted to the appellate court by the parties involved in the appeal. These briefs present the legal arguments, authorities, and relevant facts supporting each party's position. Appellants typically file an opening brief, which is followed by the appellee's brief and, in some cases, a reply brief from the appellant. The appellate briefs play a crucial role in presenting the legal arguments and persuading the appellate court to rule in favor of a particular party.

14. Oral Arguments: In some appellate courts, oral arguments are conducted to allow the parties to present their case before a panel of judges. During oral arguments, each party has an opportunity to make their legal arguments, address any questions posed by the judges, and clarify any points raised in the written briefs. Oral arguments provide an additional opportunity for the parties to advocate for their position and respond to any concerns or inquiries raised by the appellate court.

15. Decision and Judgement: After considering the written briefs, oral arguments, and reviewing the record of proceedings, the appellate court will render a decision. The court may affirm the lower court's decision, reverse it, remand the case for further proceedings, or modify the lower court's ruling. The

decision is typically issued in the form of a written judgment, which provides the rationale and legal basis for the court's ruling.

16. Enforcement of Appellate Judgments: Once the appellate court issues its judgment, the parties must comply with the court's decision. If the lower court's judgment is reversed or modified, the appellate court's decision will guide the subsequent proceedings. The successful party may need to take steps to enforce the appellate judgment and ensure that the relief granted by the court is implemented.

17. Further Remedies: Depending on the outcome of the appeal, the parties may have further legal remedies available to them. For example, if a party disagrees with the appellate court's decision, they may explore options for seeking review by a higher court, such as a Supreme Court or a Court of Final Appeal, if such avenues exist within the jurisdiction's legal framework.

18. Costs and Attorney's Fees: In some appellate proceedings, the issue of costs and attorney's fees may arise. The appellate court may have the power to award costs to the prevailing party or to make a determination regarding the payment of attorney's fees. These matters are often governed by specific rules or statutes that outline the criteria and procedures for awarding costs and fees.

19. Time Limits and Extensions: Appellate procedures often involve strict time limits for filing various documents and taking necessary actions. Parties must be diligent in adhering to these deadlines to ensure their appeal is not dismissed or otherwise prejudiced. However, in certain circumstances, the appellate court may grant extensions of time for good cause shown.

20. Precedential Value: Appellate court decisions, especially those issued by higher appellate courts, can establish legal precedents that guide future cases. These precedents, known as case law or binding authority, have persuasive or binding value in subsequent legal disputes. Appellate courts play a vital role in shaping the interpretation and application of the law through their decisions.

21. Public Interest Cases and Amicus Curiae Briefs: In some appellate proceedings, particularly those involving matters of significant public interest, interested parties or organizations may seek permission to file amicus curiae briefs. These briefs provide additional perspectives and legal arguments to assist the court in making an informed decision. The court has the discretion to allow or deny the submission of amicus briefs based on the relevance and merit of the proposed contributions.

22. Reconsideration and Appeal to Higher Courts: In certain circumstances, the losing party in an appeal may have the option to seek reconsideration of the appellate court's decision. This typically involves filing a motion for reconsideration, highlighting specific legal or factual errors in the original



decision. Additionally, in jurisdictions with a multi-tiered appellate system, parties may have the right to further appeal to a higher court, such as a Supreme Court, if the applicable criteria for granting such an appeal are met.

23. Oral Arguments: In many appellate proceedings, parties have the opportunity to present oral arguments before the appellate court. Oral arguments allow attorneys to present their case, respond to questions from the judges, and further clarify their legal arguments. The appellate court may set specific time limits for each side during oral arguments to ensure an efficient and focused presentation.

24. Judgement and Opinions: After considering the arguments and reviewing the record, the appellate court will render a judgment. The judgment may affirm the lower court's decision, reverse it, modify it, or remand the case back to the lower court for further proceedings. Along with the judgment, the appellate court may issue a written opinion explaining the reasons behind its decision. These opinions provide legal analysis and serve as precedents for future cases.

25. Dissenting and Concurring Opinions: In some cases, judges on the appellate panel may disagree with the majority's decision. They have the option to write dissenting opinions, expressing their disagreement and outlining alternative legal reasoning. Similarly, judges may write concurring opinions, which agree with the majority's decision but provide additional or different legal analysis. Dissenting and concurring opinions contribute to the development of legal principles and provide alternative perspectives.

26. Remittitur and Enforcement: Once the appellate court's decision is final, it may issue a remittitur, which is a formal order transmitting the case back to the lower court. The lower court will then take necessary actions to enforce or implement the appellate court's decision, such as entering a new judgment, issuing appropriate orders, or conducting further proceedings as directed by the appellate court.

27. Appellate Costs and Attorney's Fees: In some jurisdictions, the prevailing party in an appeal may be entitled to recover the costs incurred during the appellate process. These costs may include filing fees, transcript fees, printing and copying costs, and other related expenses. Additionally, in certain circumstances, the appellate court may award attorney's fees to the prevailing party as allowed by law or applicable rules.

28. Extraordinary Remedies: In exceptional cases, parties may seek extraordinary remedies from the appellate court, such as writs of mandamus, prohibition, or certiorari. These remedies are usually reserved for situations where there is a significant legal issue, a manifest injustice, or a need for immediate relief that cannot be obtained through the regular appellate process.



## Summarize of legal issues in the procedure followed in appeals generally:

1. Leave to Appeal: Before filing an appeal, it is essential to determine if the right of appeal exists and whether leave (permission) to appeal is required. Failing to obtain leave when necessary renders the appeal incompetent. (EAGEN Vs EAGEN)

2. Notice of Appeal: An intended appellant must give notice of appeal to the appellate court within 14 days from the date of judgment. Even when leave to appeal is not granted, an appellant may still lodge a notice of appeal. The notice must be served on the respondent within 7 days from the date of lodging and on all affected parties. (Civil Procedure Rules, Judicature Rules)

3. Address of Service: A respondent served with a notice of appeal must file an address of service within 14 days. Failure to do so may affect the timely service of the record of appeal. (Judicature Rules)

4. Application for Record of Proceedings: An appellant must apply for a record of proceedings within 30 days from the date of the decision being appealed. The application must be in writing, served on the respondent, and evidence of service must be obtained. The appellant cannot rely on the record of proceedings unless the request letter is served on the respondent and proof of service is obtained. (Judicature Rules, KASIRYE BYARUHANGA VS UDB)

### FILING OF APPELLANT'S RECORD

Upon receiving the record of proceedings, the appellant is required to file the appellant's record within a specified timeframe. The rules governing the timeframe for filing the appellant's record may vary depending on the jurisdiction and court rules.

### RESPONDENT'S ANSWER

After the appellant's record is filed, the respondent has a designated period to file the respondent's answer. This document allows the respondent to present their arguments and counter the appellant's grounds of appeal.

### NOTICE OF HEARING

Once the appellant's record and respondent's answer are filed, the appellate court will issue a notice of hearing. This notice informs the parties of the date and time when the appeal will be heard by the court.

## ORAL ARGUMENTS

During the appeal hearing, the parties are typically given an opportunity to present oral arguments before the court. The appellant and respondent can present their respective cases, highlighting key legal issues and supporting their positions with relevant authorities and evidence.

## JUDGMENT

Following the appeal hearing, the appellate court will consider the arguments and evidence presented by the parties. The court will then render a judgment, which may affirm the lower court's decision, modify it, set it aside, or order a retrial, depending on the circumstances of the case.

## POST-APPEAL OPTIONS

Depending on the outcome of the appeal, further legal options may be available to the parties. This can include seeking further appeal to a higher court, such as a Supreme Court, if the jurisdiction allows for it.

## ENFORCEMENT OF APPELLATE JUDGMENT

Once the appellate court has rendered its judgment, the successful party can take steps to enforce the judgment. This may involve implementing the orders or decisions of the appellate court and ensuring compliance by the parties involved.

## COSTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

In appeals, the issue of costs and disbursements arises. Generally, the successful party may be entitled to recover their costs and expenses incurred in the appeal process from the unsuccessful party. The rules governing the award of costs and disbursements can vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific circumstances of the case.

## FURTHER APPEAL

In some cases, parties may have the right to further appeal the decision of the appellate court to a higher court, such as a Supreme Court. The availability of a further appeal and the specific requirements for initiating it will depend on the applicable laws and rules of the jurisdiction.

## TIME LIMITS

It's crucial to adhere to the prescribed time limits and deadlines set forth in the relevant laws and court rules when filing notices, documents, or applications related to the appeal. Failure to comply with these time limits can result in procedural disadvantages or even dismissal of the appeal.

## LEGAL REPRESENTATION

Throughout the appellate process, parties may choose to be represented by legal professionals, such as appellate lawyers or barristers, who specialize in handling appeals. These professionals have expertise in appellate advocacy and can provide guidance and representation to effectively present the case before the appellate court.

## ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

In some jurisdictions, there may be provisions for alternative dispute resolution (ADR) methods, such as mediation or arbitration, as an alternative to the traditional appellate process. Parties may have the option to explore these methods to resolve their disputes outside of the appellate court system. ADR can provide a quicker and more cost-effective resolution in certain cases.

## CITATION OF AUTHORITIES

When presenting arguments and legal points in appellate proceedings, parties often refer to legal authorities, such as statutes, case law, and legal precedents, to support their positions. Proper citation of authorities is crucial to substantiate the arguments made and strengthen the legal reasoning presented to the appellate court.

## ORAL ARGUMENTS

In some appellate courts, parties may have the opportunity to present oral arguments before the court. Oral arguments allow the parties to elaborate on their written submissions, respond to questions from the appellate judges, and provide additional insights or clarifications on the issues raised in the appeal.

## JUDICIAL DISCRETION

Appellate courts exercise judicial discretion in various aspects of the appellate process, including admission of evidence, interpretation of laws, and determination of remedies. The exercise of judicial discretion allows the appellate court to consider the particular circumstances of the case and make decisions that are just and equitable.

## FINALITY OF APPELLATE DECISIONS

In general, the decision of the appellate court is final and binding on the parties involved, subject to any further appeal to a higher court, if available. The appellate court's decision sets the precedent for similar cases and serves as a legal reference for future disputes.

It's important to note that the appellate process can be complex and may vary depending on the jurisdiction and the specific laws and rules governing appeals. Consulting with legal professionals, such as appellate lawyers or solicitors, can provide valuable guidance and assistance in navigating the intricacies of the appellate process.

**Discuss Legal issues in the procedure followed in appeals generally:**

1. Leave to Appeal: Before filing an appeal, it is essential to determine whether the right of appeal exists and whether leave (permission) to appeal is required. If leave is necessary and the appellant fails to obtain it, the appeal may be deemed incompetent and struck out. This principle is supported by the case of EAGEN Vs EAGEN Civil Application 22 of 2001 [Court of Appeal].

2. Notice of Appeal: An appellant intending to appeal to the High Court, Court of Appeal, or Supreme Court must provide a notice of appeal to the respective appellate court within 14 days from the date of judgment. This requirement is governed by specific rules, such as order... of the Civil Procedure Rules, rule 75[2] of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8, and rule 71[2] of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10. Even if leave to appeal is not granted, the appellant can still lodge a notice of appeal, as stated in sub rule 4 of rule 75 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and rule 71 of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10.

3. Service of Notice of Appeal: Rules 77[1] of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and 73[1] of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10 stipulate that the notice of appeal must be served on the respondent within 7 days from the date of lodging. The notice should be served on all persons directly affected by the appeal. The case of FRANCIS NYANSIO VS NUWAH WALAKIRA SCCA 24 OF 1994 strengthens the requirement of serving the notice on all relevant parties.

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4. Address of Service by the Respondent: Rules 79 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and 75 of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10 state that a respondent served with a notice of appeal must file an address of service within 14 days. If the respondent fails to do so, they cannot complain about the delay in receiving the record of appeal. This principle was upheld in the case of HUSSEIN MOHAMED VS AUGUSTINE KYEYUNE SCCA 7 OF 1990.

5. Application for Record of Proceedings: An appellant must make a written application for the record of proceedings of the decision they intend to appeal against within 30 days from the date of such



decision. This requirement is outlined in Rules 82[2] of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and 78[2] of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10. The application must be served, and evidence of service upon the respondent must be obtained. Failure to serve a copy of the letter requesting the record on the respondent and provide proof of service may affect the appellant's reliance on the record. The case of KASIRYE BYARUHANGA VS UDB supports this mandatory provision.

6. RECORD OF APPEAL: Once the application for the record of proceedings is made, the appellant must ensure that the record of appeal is compiled and filed within the prescribed timeline. The record typically includes the pleadings, judgments, orders, transcripts, and other relevant documents from the lower court proceedings. Failing to file the record of appeal within the specified time frame may result in the dismissal of the appeal.

7. MEMORANDUM OF APPEAL: Along with the record of appeal, the appellant is required to prepare and file a memorandum of appeal. This document outlines the grounds of appeal and the legal arguments supporting them. The memorandum of appeal should be filed within the prescribed time frame, as specified by the applicable rules of the appellate court.

8. RESPONDENT'S ANSWER: After receiving the notice of appeal and the memorandum of appeal, the respondent has the opportunity to file an answer or reply to the appellant's grounds of appeal. The respondent's answer sets forth the counterarguments and defenses against the appellant's claims. The rules typically provide a specific time frame for the respondent to file the answer.

9. SUBMISSION OF WRITTEN ARGUMENTS: In many appellate courts, the parties are required to submit written arguments or briefs, presenting their legal positions and authorities supporting their respective cases. These written arguments provide an opportunity for the parties to present a comprehensive analysis of the legal issues and persuade the court of the merits of their positions.

10. ORAL ARGUMENTS: In addition to written submissions, the appellate court may allow the parties to present oral arguments before a panel of judges. Oral arguments provide an opportunity for the parties to address specific legal issues, respond to questions from the judges, and further elucidate their positions. The court may allocate a specific amount of time to each party for their oral arguments.

11. DECISION: Following the completion of written and oral arguments, the appellate court will render its decision. The court may affirm, modify, or reverse the lower court's decision, or it may order a retrial or further proceedings. The court's decision is typically based on the merits of the case, the applicable law, and the arguments presented by the parties.

1. Leave to Appeal: The principle that an appeal is incompetent if leave is required but not obtained is supported by the case of EAGEN vs EAGEN, Civil Application 22 of 2001 [Court of Appeal]. This case strengthens the requirement to obtain leave before appealing when it is mandated by law.

2. Notice of Appeal: The requirement to file a notice of appeal within 14 days from the date of judgment is provided for under Order ... of the Civil Procedure Rules. Rule 75(2) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and Rule 71(2) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10 also establish this timeline. Failure to comply may result in procedural consequences.

3. Service of Notice of Appeal: Rules 77(1) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and 73(1) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10 require that the notice of appeal must be served on the respondent within 7 days from the date of lodging. The case of FRANCIS NYANSIO vs NUWAH WALAKIRA SCCA 24 of 1994 supports the need to serve the notice on all persons directly affected by the appeal.

4. Filing an Address of Service: Rules 79 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and 75 of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10 stipulate that a respondent served with a notice of appeal must file an address of service within 14 days. The case of HUSSEIN MOHAMED vs AUGUSTINE KYEYUNE SCCA 7 of 1990 highlights that a respondent who fails to comply with this requirement cannot complain about the late service of the record of appeal.

5. Application for Record of Proceedings: Rules 82(2) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and 78(2) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10 establish the 30-day timeline for making an application for the record of proceedings. The case of KASIRYE BYARUHANGA vs UDB emphasizes the mandatory nature of serving a copy of the letter requesting the record on the respondent and obtaining proof of service for the appellant to rely on the record of proceedings.

6. Requirement for Leave to Appeal: The requirement to ascertain whether leave to appeal is necessary before proceeding with an appeal is a fundamental principle. While no specific case is mentioned in the text, this principle is generally supported by the legal framework governing appeals. In many jurisdictions, appellate courts have the discretion to grant or deny leave to appeal based on certain criteria, such as the importance of the issue or the merits of the case.

7. Lodging a Notice of Appeal without Leave: The provision that an intended appellant may lodge a notice of appeal even when leave to appeal is not granted is mentioned in sub-rule 4 of Rule 75 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and Rule 71 of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10. These rules indicate that an appellant can proceed with filing a notice of appeal even if leave to appeal is not obtained.

## Discuss The legal issues discussed in "PREPARATION OF RECORD OF APPEAL"

1. Preparation and Copies of Record of Appeal: In the Court of Appeal, the appellant is required to prepare six copies of the record of appeal, while in the Supreme Court, eight copies are prepared. This requirement is mentioned without specific legal authorities. However, it is likely based on the rules and practices of the respective appellate courts.

2. Basic Documents in Appeals: The basic documents required in appeals include the judgment, order giving leave to appeal (if necessary), notice of appeal, memorandum of appeal, record of proceedings, and supplementary record. The legal issue arises if a basic document is not filed with the original record, rendering the appeal incompetent. The case of Execution of the Estate of the late Namatovu Tebajukira vs Mary Namatovu SCCA 8 of 1988 is cited to support this principle.

3. Filing a Record of Appeal: The record of appeal must be filed in the Court of Appeal or Supreme Court within sixty days from the date when the record of proceedings was forwarded to the appellant. Additionally, the record of appeal must be served upon all respondents within seven days from the date of filing. These requirements are supported by Rules 87 and 83 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10, respectively.

### 4. Rights of the Respondent:

a) Cross Appeal: A respondent has the right to cross-appeal within thirty days from the date of service of the record of appeal. This right is provided under Rules 90 and 86 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10, respectively. The case of Fortunato Frederick vs Irene Nabwire is cited to support the principle that a respondent who does not cross-appeal against specific matters cannot seek their modification later.

b) Affirming a Decision: A respondent has the right to ask the court to affirm a decision passed by the lower court in their favor based on additional evidence. Notice to the court must be given within thirty days from the date of service of the record of appeal. This right is provided under Rules 91 and 87 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10, respectively.

c) Application for Further Security: A respondent has the right to apply for further security for costs. The appellate court has discretionary power to grant such application. This right is supported by Rules 104(3) and 100(3) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10, respectively. The case of UCB vs Multi Constructors Ltd SCCA 29 of 1994 is cited to illustrate the discretionary power of the court.



d) Application to Strike Out Notice of Appeal or Appeal: A respondent has the right to apply to strike out the notice of appeal or appeal on various grounds, such as if the appeal is barred by statute, an essential step has been omitted, or an essential step has been taken out of time. This right is provided under Rules 81 and 77 of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions SI 13-8 and the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions SI 13-10, respectively. The case of *Mustaq Abdulah Bhegani vs Obola Ochola* is cited to demonstrate the respondent's power to apply for striking out the notice of appeal.

5. Appeals from Grade II Magistrate's Court and Chief Magistrate's Court: The legal issues surrounding appeals from these courts are briefly mentioned. Appeals from a Grade II Magistrate's Court lie in the Chief Magistrate's Court, while appeals from a Chief Magistrate's Court lie in the High Court. The scope and limitations of these appeals are discussed, along with the exception that no appeal lies when a person has pleaded guilty. The legal authorities supporting these issues are the Magistrates Courts Act, particularly sections 204(1)(b), 204(2), and 204(3).

**Discuss and summarize The legal issues involved in appeals from the High Court :**

1. Timelines and Compliance: The appellant must adhere to strict timelines and comply with the procedural requirements for filing an appeal. The notice of appeal should be filed in the High Court registry within 14 days from the date of the decision, as stated in Rule 76(1) and (2). Failure to comply may result in the appeal being struck out, unless the defaulting party can show cause for the failure to observe an essential step in the appeal process (*UTEX INDUSTRIES LTD v ATTORNEY GENERAL* SCCA No. 52 of 1995).

2. Contents of Notice of Appeal: The notice of appeal must clearly state whether it pertains to the whole decision or only part of it. It should include the appellant's address and the address of the party intended to be served. The notice must be signed by the appellant or their advocate, as per Rule 76(3).

3. Service of Notice of Appeal: The appellant is required to serve the notice of appeal on the other party within 7 days, according to Rule 78(1).

4. Application for Certified Copy of Proceedings: The appellant must make a written application to the registrar of the High Court for a certified copy of the proceedings within 30 days from the date of the judgment. This application must be served within the same timeframe, as per Rule 83(2).

5. Respondent's Notice of Address: Upon receiving the notice of appeal, the respondent has 14 days to file a respondent's notice of address and serve it on the appellant, as outlined in Rule 80(1)(a) and (b).



6. Filing the Memorandum of Appeal and Record of Appeal: Within 60 days from the date of filing the notice of appeal, the appellant must file the Memorandum of Appeal along with the record of appeal. This timeframe includes the period when the request for certified proceedings is filed and served. The appellant should file 6 copies of the Memorandum of Appeal, 6 copies of the record of appeal, evidence of payment of fees, and security for the costs of the appeal, in accordance with Rule 83(1).

7. Filing Fees and Security for Costs: The appellant is required to pay the filing fees and deposit security for the costs of the appeal, as specified in Rule 104 and 105 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR).

8. Service of Memorandum of Appeal and Record of Appeal: The appellant must serve the Memorandum of Appeal and record of appeal on the other party within 7 days from the date of filing, as per Rule 88 of the COAR.

Applications for Extension of Time: If there is a need for an extension of time to comply with any of the procedural requirements, the appellant may bring an application under Rule 2(2) and Rule 5 of the COAR.

The required documents for applications for extension of time typically include a Notice of Motion and an Affidavit in support.

9. Record of Appeal: The record of appeal is a crucial document that must be prepared and filed by the appellant. It includes the necessary documents and transcripts from the proceedings in the High Court. The appellant is responsible for ensuring that the record of appeal is complete and accurate.

10. Grounds of Appeal: The Memorandum of Appeal should clearly state the grounds of appeal, which are the legal arguments and reasons why the appellant is challenging the decision of the High Court. The grounds of appeal should be supported by legal authorities and relevant evidence.

11. Hearing of the Appeal: Once the appeal is properly filed and served, the Court of Appeal will schedule a hearing date. Both parties will have the opportunity to present their arguments and evidence before the appellate court. The court will consider the submissions and make a decision based on the merits of the appeal.

12. Remedies and Outcomes: The Court of Appeal has the power to affirm, reverse, modify, or remit the decision of the High Court. Depending on the circumstances of the case, the court may order a retrial, grant a new trial, or make any other appropriate orders.

13. Cross-Appeals and Respondent's Rights: The respondent has the right to file a cross-appeal within a specified period if they wish to challenge aspects of the High Court decision. The respondent may also seek to affirm the decision of the High Court or apply for further security for costs. These rights and procedures are outlined in the relevant rules of the Court of Appeal.

14. Applications for Extension of Time: In certain situations, a party may need to seek an extension of time to comply with the procedural requirements of the appeal process. Such applications are typically made by filing a notice of motion supported by an affidavit explaining the reasons for the delay and requesting an extension of time. The court will consider the merits of the application and may grant or deny the requested extension based on the circumstances presented.

15. Costs of the Appeal: The issue of costs may arise in the appellate process. Generally, the successful party in the appeal is entitled to costs, which may include legal fees, filing fees, and other related expenses. The court has the discretion to determine the amount of costs to be awarded and may consider factors such as the complexity of the case, the conduct of the parties, and any offers of settlement.

16. Finality of the Decision: Once the Court of Appeal has made its decision, it generally represents the final resolution of the case unless there are further avenues for appeal, such as the Supreme Court or other specialized appellate bodies, depending on the jurisdiction.

17. Compliance with Rules and Procedures: It is crucial for all parties involved in the appeals process to strictly comply with the rules and procedures set out by the Court of Appeal. Failure to adhere to these requirements may result in the dismissal or striking out of the appeal. Parties must ensure that all necessary documents are filed within the prescribed time limits, served on the relevant parties, and comply with any specific formatting or content requirements.

- What are the dynamics of the nature of appeals from the High Court to the Court of Appeal, several legal issues and requirements must be considered discuss?**

1. Right of Appeal: Article 134 of the Constitution and Section 10 of the Judicature Act provide for the right of appeal from the High Court to the Court of Appeal.

2. Compliance and Essential Steps: Strict compliance with the appeal process is necessary. Failure to observe an essential step may result in the appeal being struck out. The case of UTEX INDUSTRIES LTD V ATTORNEY GENERAL SCCA N0.52 OF 1995 and Rule 82 of COAR support this requirement.

3. Notice of Appeal: The notice of appeal must be filed in the High Court registry within 14 days from the date of the decision. It should clearly state whether the appeal is against the whole decision or a part of it. The notice must provide the appellant's address and the addresses of the persons intended to be served. The notice must be signed by the appellant or their advocate. (Rule 76(1), (2), and (3)).

4. Service of Notice of Appeal: The notice of appeal must be served on the other party within 7 days (Rule 78(1)).

5. Certified Copy of Proceedings: The appellant must make a written application to the registrar of the High Court for a certified copy of the proceedings within 30 days from the date of the judgment. The application must be served within the same timeframe (Rule 83(2)).

6. Respondent's Notice of Address: Upon receiving the notice of appeal, the respondent must file a respondent's notice of address within 14 days and serve it on the appellant within the same timeframe (Rule 80(1)(a) and (b)).

7. Filing the Memorandum of Appeal and Record of Appeal: Within 60 days from the date of filing the notice of appeal, the appellant must file the Memorandum of Appeal along with the record of appeal. The time period for filing pauses when the letter requesting certified proceedings is filed and served and resumes upon receipt of the record and judgment. Six copies of the memo of appeal, record of appeal, evidence of payment of fees, and security for costs must be filed (Rule 83(1)).

8. Filing Fees and Security for Costs: The appellant is required to pay filing fees and provide a deposit of security for the costs of the appeal (R.104 and 105 of COAR).

9. Service of Memorandum of Appeal and Record of Appeal: The appellant must serve the Memorandum of Appeal and record of appeal within 7 days from the date of filing (R.88 of COAR).

10. Applications for Extension of Time: Applications for extension of time can be brought under Rule 2(2) and Rule 5 of COAR.

Documents required for applications for extension of time include a Notice of Motion and an Affidavit in support.

### **Discuss The legal issues involved in a Stay of Execution and Appeals from the High Court:**

#### Stay of Execution:

1. Grounds for Stay: The grounds for obtaining a stay of execution include pending appeal, high chances of the appeal succeeding, and the potential deprivation of rights if a stay is not granted.
2. Notice of Appeal: A notice of appeal is considered a sufficient document for obtaining a stay of execution. It can be filed within the prescribed time limits.
3. Procedure for Certificate of General Importance: Depending on whether the application is made to the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court, specific rules and directions govern the procedure for obtaining a Certificate of General Importance.
4. Application Requirements: The application for a Certificate of General Importance is typically made by filing a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit. The applicant may also be required to give notice to the police.

#### Appeals from the Court of Appeal:

1. Right of Appeal: Article 132(2) of the Constitution and Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act provide the right of appeal from the Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court.
2. Scope of Appeals: The scope of appeals to the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the case, including whether it involves convictions, acquittals, or specific circumstances. The appeals may be limited to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact.

It is important to note that the specific legal authorities and rules cited in the text, such as *ALCON INTERNATIONAL LTD V KASIRYE BYARUHANGA AND CO ADVOCATES*, *NAMUDU VS UGANDA*, and *CHARLES TWAGIRA VS UGANDA*, are relevant legal precedents and provisions in Uganda that can be referred to in the respective cases.

### **Discuss and summarize The legal issues involved in the mentioned Stay of Execution, brought under Rule 2(2) of COAR (Court of Appeal Rules):**

1. Pending appeal: According to the case of *Alcon International Ltd v Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates* (1996) HCB 61, a notice of appeal is sufficient to obtain a stay of execution. Rule 3 of COAR defines an appeal to include an intended appeal, further supporting the grounds for a stay.



2. High chances of the appeal succeeding: The party seeking the stay must demonstrate that there are substantial chances of the appeal being successful. This implies that there are strong legal arguments or grounds for the appeal to be decided in their favor.

3. Risk of rights becoming nugatory: Failure to obtain a stay of execution would render the rights of the party in the pending appeal meaningless or ineffective. This emphasizes the importance of securing a stay to protect the interests of the appealing party.

In order to obtain a Certificate of General Importance, the procedure varies depending on whether it is being sought in the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court:

- Court of Appeal: Rule 39(1)(a) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions states that an application for a Certificate of General Importance should be made to the High Court. The application should be by Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit. Rule 4 mandates the applicant to give notice to the police. *Namudu v. Uganda SCCA 3 of 1999* provides further guidance on the considerations for granting a certificate of general importance.

- Supreme Court: Rule 38(1)(a) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions states that if the Court of Appeal certifies that a question or questions of public importance arise, applications to the Court of Appeal should be made informally at the time the decision of the Court of Appeal is given. If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application may be lodged in the Supreme Court within fourteen days of the refusal.

Regarding appeals from the Court of Appeal, Article 132(2) of the Constitution provides the right of appeal to the Supreme Court. Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act Cap 13 further supports this. The scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the previous judgments:

- Conviction from High Court or Court of Appeal: The appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact.

- Acquittal from High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: The appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact.

- Conviction in High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) appeal is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact for a declaratory judgment.

- Acquittal in High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance.

It's important to note that appeals in criminal matters generally arise from final orders, such as convictions, acquittals, special findings, or rulings on no case to answer, as highlighted in the case of Charles Twagira v. Uganda.

### **Discuss SECURITY FOR COSTS IN CIVIL APPEALS:**

In civil appeals, the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules provide provisions for security for costs. Rule 101 states that, subject to Rule 109, a sum of 400,000 shillings should be lodged in court as security for costs upon the institution of a civil appeal. Rule 101(2) allows the court to direct the cross-appellant to engage the court as security for costs if an appeal is withdrawn after notice of appeal has been given. The court may also order further security for costs to be given if deemed necessary.

### **Discuss SCOPE OF APPEALS TO THE SUPREME COURT:**

The scope of appeals to the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the previous judgments. As per section 5(1) of the Judicature Act, the scope is as follows:

1. Conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal: The appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact.
2. Acquittal from the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: The appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact.
3. Conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact for a declaratory judgment.
4. Acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance.

It is important to note that the scope of the appeal is dependent on the specific circumstances of the case and the applicable laws. Consulting with a legal professional is advisable for accurate and up-to-date guidance based on your specific situation.

### **Raise ad discuss LEGAL ISSUES REGARDING STAY OF EXECUTION:**

1. Pending Appeal: One of the grounds for seeking a stay of execution is when there is a pending appeal. According to the case of *Alcon International Ltd v Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates* (1996) HCB 61, a notice of appeal is sufficient to obtain a stay of execution. Rule 3 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR) defines an appeal to include an intended appeal, further supporting the argument for a stay of execution based on a pending appeal.

2. High Chances of Appeal Succeeding: Another legal issue that can be raised in support of a stay of execution is the likelihood of the appeal succeeding. If there are strong grounds for the appeal and a high probability of success, it can be argued that a stay of execution is necessary to prevent irreparable harm or injustice.

3. Preservation of Rights: Failure to obtain a stay of execution may render the appellant's rights in the pending appeal nugatory. This means that if the execution is carried out before the appeal is heard, the appellant may suffer irreversible consequences, such as serving a sentence or facing other adverse effects, even if the appeal is eventually successful. To protect the appellant's rights and ensure the effectiveness of the appeal process, a stay of execution may be sought.

These legal issues highlight the importance of obtaining a stay of execution in situations where there is a pending appeal and strong grounds for success. By obtaining a stay, the appellant's rights can be preserved, and the appeal process can proceed effectively.

➤ **Discuss PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING A CERTIFICATE OF GENERAL IMPORTANCE**

To obtain a Certificate of General Importance, the procedure varies depending on whether the application is made to the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court:

1. Court of Appeal: Rule 39(1)(a) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions states that an application for a Certificate of General Importance is made to the High Court. The application should be in the form of a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit. Additionally, Rule 4 mandates the applicant (usually the convict) to give notice to the police. The case of *Namudu vs. Uganda SCCA 3 of 1999* provides considerations for granting the certificate of general importance.

2. Supreme Court: Rule 38(1)(a) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions states that if the Court of Appeal certifies that a question or questions of public importance arise, applications to the Supreme Court shall be made informally at the time the decision of the Court of Appeal is given. If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application may be lodged with the Supreme Court within fourteen days after the refusal.

## **Discuss APPEALS FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL:**

The right of appeal from the Court of Appeal lies in the Supreme Court, as provided by Article 132(2) of the Constitution and Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act. The scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court depends on the circumstances:

1. Conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal: The scope of appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact, as stated in Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act.
2. Acquittal from the High Court and subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: The scope of appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact, as provided in Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act.
3. Conviction in the High Court followed by acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) can appeal to the Supreme Court for a declaratory judgment limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact, according to Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.
4. Acquittal in the High Court followed by subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance, as stated in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

These legal issues and procedures help guide the process of seeking a stay of execution and understanding the avenues for appeal from the Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court.

### **➤ Discuss SECURITY FOR COSTS IN CIVIL APPEALS**

In civil appeals, provisions for security for costs are outlined in the rules governing the appeal process. For example, in the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions, Rule 101 addresses security for costs. Here are the key points:



1. Lodging security for costs: Upon instituting a civil appeal, Rule 101(1) states that the appellant must lodge with the court security for costs in the sum of 400,000 shillings, subject to Rule 109.

2. Cross-appeals and security for costs: If an appeal has been withdrawn after notice of appeal has been given and a cross-appeal is filed, Rule 101(2) empowers the court to direct the cross-appellant to furnish security for costs in the sum of 400,000 shillings or any specified sum less than 400,000 shillings. The court may also choose to allow the cross-appeal to proceed without requiring security for costs.

3. Additional security for costs: Rule 101(3) grants the court the discretion to direct the appellant or cross-appellant to provide further security for costs if deemed necessary. The court may also order security for the payment of costs related to the matter under appeal.

4. Implementation of security for costs: Once security for costs has been furnished, Rule 101(4) allows the register to make payments with the consent of the parties in accordance with the court's decision, taking into account the rights of the parties.

➤ **Discuss SCOPE OF APPEALS TO THE SUPREME COURT**

The scope of appeals to the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the case and the preceding judgments. Here's a summary:

1. Conviction appeals: If the appeal arises from a conviction in the High Court or Court of Appeal, the appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact, as per Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act.

2. Acquittal and subsequent conviction appeals: If the appeal arises from an acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court extends to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact, according to Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act.

3. Conviction and subsequent acquittal appeals: If the appeal arises from a conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal, the DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact for a declaratory judgment, as outlined in Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.

4. Double acquittal appeals: If the appeal arises from an acquittal in both the High Court and the Court of Appeal, the DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance, as stated in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

These provisions outline the scope of appeals to the Supreme Court based on the specific circumstances of each case.

### **Explain RELIEF SOUGHT: STAY OF EXECUTION**

In this scenario, the primary legal issue is the request for a stay of execution pending an appeal. A stay of execution is a legal mechanism that temporarily suspends the enforcement of a court judgment or order, allowing the appellant to pursue their appeal without facing immediate adverse consequences. The grounds for seeking a stay of execution in this case are as follows:

1. Pending appeal: It is argued that a notice of appeal is sufficient to obtain a stay of execution. Reference is made to the case of *Alcon International Ltd v Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates* (1996) HCB 61, which held that a notice of appeal is a valid document for seeking a stay of execution. Additionally, Rule 3 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR) defines an appeal to include an intended appeal, further supporting the argument for a stay.
2. High chances of appeal success: It is contended that there are strong prospects of success in the appeal. While specific details regarding the grounds for appeal are not provided, the assertion is made to emphasize the importance of granting a stay of execution to ensure that the appellant's rights are not rendered nugatory.
3. Preservation of rights: Failure to obtain a stay of execution is argued to undermine the appellant's rights in the pending appeal. By allowing the execution to proceed before the appeal is heard and determined, there is a risk of irreparable harm or prejudice to the appellant's interests.

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#### **➤ Discuss PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING A CERTIFICATE OF GENERAL IMPORTANCE**

To pursue the request for a stay of execution, it may be necessary to obtain a Certificate of General Importance. The procedure for obtaining this certificate differs depending on whether the appeal is being made to the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court:

1. Court of Appeal: According to Rule 39(1)(a) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions, an application for a Certificate of General Importance is made to the High Court. The application should be filed as a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit, as outlined in Rule 2 of the Court of Appeal Rules. It is important to give notice to the police, as mandated by Rule 4, and consider the considerations laid down in the case of *Namudu v Uganda SCCA 30 of 1999* for obtaining the certificate.

2. Supreme Court: If the appeal is intended for the Supreme Court, Rule 38(1)(a) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions states that an application for a Certificate of General Importance must be made informally at the time the decision of the Court of Appeal is given against which the intended appeal is to be taken. If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application can be lodged with the Supreme Court within fourteen days after the refusal, as provided in Rule 38(1)(b).

### **Discuss APPEALS FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL**

The right of appeal from the Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court is established by Article 132(2) of the Constitution. Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act further reinforces this right. The Act outlines the following scenarios for appeals to the Supreme Court:

1. Confirmation, variation, or reversal: Under Section 6(9) of the Judicature Act, an appeal lies as of right to the Supreme Court when the Court of Appeal confirms, varies, or reverses a judgment or order, including an interlocutory order, given by the High Court in the exercise of its original jurisdiction.

2. Third appeal: Section 6(10) provides the possibility of a third appeal to the Supreme Court in matters where the appeal arises from a judgment or

order of a chief magistrate or a magistrate grade exercising their original jurisdiction. This third appeal requires either a certificate from the Court of Appeal stating that the appeal concerns a matter of law of great public or general importance or the Supreme Court's determination that the appeal should be heard in the interest of justice.

### **Describe the scope of appeals to the supreme court?**

The scope of appeals to the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the case and the outcome in previous courts. The Judicature Act outlines the following scenarios for appeals to the Supreme Court:

1. Conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal: If the appeal arises from a conviction in the High Court or Court of Appeal, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact, as stated in Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act.

2. Acquittal from the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: In this scenario, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court is expanded to include matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact, as provided in Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act.

3. Conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal: If there is a conviction in the High Court and subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal, the Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) may appeal to the Supreme Court for a declaratory judgment on matters of law or mixed law and fact, as stated in Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.

4. Acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: In this scenario, the DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance, as outlined in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

It is essential to note that the Supreme Court's jurisdiction in criminal appeals is generally limited to final orders, such as convictions, acquittals, special findings, or rulings on no case to answer. The case of Charles Twagira v Uganda reinforces this principle.

These provisions highlight the specific circumstances under which appeals can be made to the Supreme Court and the scope of those appeals. It is crucial to consult the relevant laws, rules, and legal authorities to determine the specific procedures and requirements applicable to the case at hand.

#### **Discuss STAY OF EXECUTION:**

A stay of execution refers to a legal mechanism that temporarily suspends the enforcement of a court judgment or order. In the given context, the grounds for seeking a stay of execution are outlined as follows:

1. Pending appeal: It is argued that a notice of appeal is a sufficient document upon which a stay of execution can be obtained. This assertion is supported by the case of Alcon International Ltd v Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates (1996) HCB 61. Furthermore, Rule 3 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR) defines an appeal to include an intended appeal, reinforcing the argument for seeking a stay pending the appeal process.



2. High chances of the appeal succeeding: It is contended that there are significant prospects of the appeal being successful. While specific legal authority or evidence to support this claim is not mentioned, it is a relevant factor to consider when seeking a stay of execution.

3. Preservation of rights: It is argued that the failure to obtain a stay of execution would render the rights of the appellant in the pending appeal nugatory. The exact nature of these rights or the legal authority supporting this contention is not provided.

### **Discuss the PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING A CERTIFICATE OF GENERAL IMPORTANCE:**

To obtain a Certificate of General Importance, the following procedures apply based on the respective courts:

1. Court of Appeal: Rule 39(1)(a) of the Court of Appeal Rules directs that an application for a Certificate of General Importance is made to the High Court. The application should be in the form of a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit, as per Rule 2 of the Court of Appeal Rules. Additionally, Rule 4 mandates the applicant (usually the convict) to give notice to the police. The considerations for granting a certificate of general importance are laid down in the case of *Namudu v Uganda SCCA 3 of 1999*.

2. Supreme Court: If the appeal lies with the Supreme Court, Rule 38(1)(a) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions states that the application should be made informally at the time the decision of the Court of Appeal is given against which the intended appeal is to be taken. If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application may be lodged in the Supreme Court within fourteen days after the refusal, as per Rule 38(1)(b) of the Supreme Court Rules.

### **Discuss APPEALS FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL:**

According to Article 132(2) of the Constitution and Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act, the right of appeal from the Court of Appeal lies with the Supreme Court. The Act provides the following provisions for civil appeals to the Supreme Court:

1. Appeal as of right: An appeal lies as of right to the Supreme Court when the Court of Appeal confirms, varies, or sets aside a judgment or order, including an interlocutory order given by the High Court in the exercise of its original jurisdiction, and the Supreme Court grants leave to appeal.

2. Third appeal on matters of law or great public importance: Where an appeal arises from a judgment or order of a chief magistrate or magistrate grade exercising their original jurisdiction (excluding interlocutory matters), a party aggrieved may lodge a third appeal to the Supreme Court. This is possible with the certificate of the Court of Appeal stating that the appeal concerns a matter of law of great public or general importance, or if the Supreme Court considers it necessary in the interest of justice.

### **Discuss SECURITY FOR COSTS:**

Security for costs is addressed in Rule 101 of the rules governing civil appeals (Rules 71 to 98) in both the Court of Appeal and the Supreme Court

. Rule 101 specifies that on the institution of a civil appeal, security for costs amounting to 400,000 shillings shall be lodged in court, subject to Rule 109 of the rules. The court may also direct the payment of further security for costs if deemed necessary.

These procedures and provisions play a crucial role in the process of seeking a stay of execution, obtaining a Certificate of General Importance, and filing appeals from the Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court. It is important to consult the relevant rules, directions, and legal authorities specific to the jurisdiction to ensure compliance and to navigate the legal process effectively.

### **Discuss SCOPE OF APPEALS TO THE SUPREME COURT:**

The scope of appeals to the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the case and the previous decisions made by the lower courts. The Judicature Act provides specific provisions regarding the scope of appeals to the Supreme Court in different scenarios:

1. Conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal: If the appeal arises from a conviction in the High Court or the Court of Appeal, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact. This is stated in Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act.

2. Acquittal from the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: In such cases, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court extends to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact. This is specified in Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act.

3. Conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) can appeal to the Supreme Court for a declaratory judgment on matters of law or mixed law and fact. This is outlined in Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.

4. Acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: In such cases, the DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance. This is stated in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

It is essential to note that appeals in criminal matters generally arise from final orders, such as convictions, acquittals, special findings, or rulings on no case to answer. This principle is supported by the case of Charles Twagira v Uganda.

These provisions define the scope and limitations of appeals to the Supreme Court based on the specific circumstances of the case, ensuring that the appeals address relevant legal issues and matters of public importance.

#### **Discuss STAY OF EXECUTION:**

When seeking a stay of execution, there are several legal issues to consider. The grounds for requesting a stay of execution include:

1. Pending appeal: A notice of appeal is sufficient to request a stay of execution. In *Alcon International Ltd v Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates* (1996) HCB 61, it was established that a notice of appeal qualifies as a document upon which a stay of execution can be obtained. Additionally, Rule 3 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR) defines an appeal to include an intended appeal.

2. High chances of appeal success: To support a request for a stay of execution, it is beneficial to demonstrate that there are strong prospects of success in the appeal. This can include highlighting legal arguments, precedents, or other factors that suggest the appeal is likely to succeed.

3. Protection of rights: Failure to obtain a stay of execution can render the appellant's rights in the pending appeal meaningless. It is crucial to emphasize the potential harm or prejudice that may arise if the execution proceeds before the appeal is heard.

#### **Discuss PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING A CERTIFICATE OF GENERAL IMPORTANCE:**

The procedure for obtaining a Certificate of General Importance varies depending on whether the application is made to the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court. Here's a summary of the procedures for each court:

#### 1. Court of Appeal:

a. Under Rule 39(1)(a) of the Judicature (Court of Appeal) Rules Directions, the application for a Certificate of General Importance is made to the High Court.

b. The application should be submitted through a Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit, as per Rule 2 of the Court of Appeal Rules.

c. The applicant (usually the convict) is required, under Rule 4, to provide notice to the police.

d. The considerations for granting a Certificate of General Importance are outlined in *Namudu v Uganda SCCA 3 of 1999*.

#### 2. Supreme Court:

a. If an appeal lies in the Supreme Court based on the certification of a question or questions of public importance by the Court of Appeal, the application should be made informally at the time the Court of Appeal decision is given, as stated in Rule 38(1)(a) of the Judicature (Supreme Court) Rules Directions.

b. If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application can be lodged in the Supreme Court within fourteen days after the refusal, according to Rule 38(1)(b).

#### ➤ Briefly describe appeals from the court of appeal.

According to Article 132(2) of the Constitution, the right of appeal from the Court of Appeal lies with the Supreme Court. Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act further supports this provision. The Act specifies the following:

1. Civil appeals: Section 6(9) of the Judicature Act grants a right of appeal to the Supreme Court when the Court of Appeal confirms, varies, or reverses a judgment, order, or interlocutory matter from the High Court. The appeal can be made on matters of law, including introductory orders.

2. Third appeal: Section 6(10) of the Judicature Act allows for a third appeal to the Supreme Court, with the Court of Appeal's certificate, in matters of law of great public or general importance or when the Supreme Court deems it necessary in fulfilling its duty to ensure justice.



The Judicature Act and related rules provide provisions for civil appeals and security for costs. These provisions ensure that proper procedures are followed and that necessary payments and securities are provided when filing appeals.

➤ **Explain the SCOPE OF APPEALS TO THE SUPREME COURT**

The scope of appeals to the Supreme Court depends on the nature of the case and the previous rulings. Here's an overview:

1. Conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal: If the appeal is based on a conviction from the High Court or the Court of Appeal, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact. This is outlined in Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act. The appellant can challenge legal errors or misapplications of the law in their case.

2. Acquittal from the High Court and subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: If the appeal is related to an acquittal from the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal, the scope of the appeal in the Supreme Court extends to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact. This is stated in Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act. The appellant can challenge errors in the interpretation of facts or the application of both law and facts.

3. Conviction in the High Court and subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: In cases where there is a conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal, the scope of the Director of Public Prosecutions' (DPP) appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact for a declaratory judgment. This is specified in Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.

4. Acquittal in both the High Court and Court of Appeal: If there is an acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal, the DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance, as outlined in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

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It's important to note that appeals in criminal matters arise from final orders, such as convictions, acquittals, special findings, or rulings on no case to answer. Understanding the scope of appeals helps in determining the appropriate grounds and arguments to present in the Supreme Court.

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**Discuss STAY OF EXECUTION:**

When seeking a stay of execution, there are several legal issues to consider. Based on the information provided, the following grounds can be raised:

1. Pending appeal: A notice of appeal is sufficient to seek a stay of execution. This is supported by the case of *Alcon International Ltd v. Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates* (1996) HCB 61. Additionally, Rule 3 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR) defines an appeal to include an intended appeal, further strengthening the grounds for seeking a stay.

2. High chances of appeal success: It can be argued that there are high chances of the appeal succeeding. This could be based on legal errors or misapplications of the law that may have occurred during the trial or previous proceedings.

3. Preservation of rights: Failure to obtain a stay of execution may render the appellant's rights in the pending appeal nugatory. It is crucial to emphasize the potential harm or prejudice that may arise if the execution proceeds before the appeal is heard and determined.

#### **Explain PROCEDURE FOR GETTING A CERTIFICATE OF GENERAL IMPORTANCE:**

The procedure for obtaining a Certificate of General Importance depends on whether the application is made to the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court:

If the application is made to the Court of Appeal:

- Rule 39(1)(a) of the Court of Appeal Rules states that an application for a Certificate of General Importance is made to the High Court.
- The application should be made by Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit, as per Rule 2 of the Court of Appeal Rules.
- It is essential to give notice to the Police, as mandated by Rule 4, and consider the considerations laid down in *Namudu v. Uganda SCCA 3 of 1999* regarding the certificate of general importance.

If the application is made to the Supreme Court:

- Rule 38(1)(a) of the Supreme Court Rules states that an application for a certificate is made informally at the time the decision of the Court of Appeal is given, against which the intended appeal is to be taken.
- If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application may be lodged in the Supreme Court within fourteen days after the refusal, as provided by Rule 38(1)(b).

### **Discuss APPEALS FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL:**

According to Article 132(2) of the Constitution and Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act, a right of appeal from the Court of Appeal lies in the Supreme Court. The scope of the appeal depends on the specific circumstances:

- If it is a conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal, the appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact, as stated in Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act.
- If it is an acquittal from the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal, the appeal in the Supreme Court extends to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact, as per Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act.
- If there is a conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal, the DPP's appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact for a declaratory judgment, according to Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.
- If there is an acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal, the DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance, as outlined in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

Understanding the scope of appeals helps in determining the applicable grounds for the appeal and the specific legal issues that can be raised.

### **Discuss Legal issues involved in the STAY OF EXECUTION:**

1. Pending appeal: The first ground for seeking a stay of execution is based on the argument that a notice of appeal is sufficient to obtain a stay of execution. This argument is supported by the case of *Alcon International Ltd v. Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co Advocates* (1996) HCB 61, which established that a notice of appeal is a valid document for seeking a stay. Rule 3 of the Court of Appeal Rules (COAR) further defines an appeal to include an intended appeal, strengthening the grounds for seeking a stay.

2. High chances of the appeal succeeding: The second ground for seeking a stay is based on the contention that there are high chances of the appeal succeeding. This may involve identifying legal errors or misapplications of the law that occurred during the trial or previous proceedings, which could support the argument for a stay.

3. Failure to obtain a stay will render the appellant's rights nugatory: The third ground for seeking a stay is the assertion that if a stay of execution is not granted, it would render the appellant's rights in the pending appeal meaningless. This emphasizes the potential harm or prejudice that may arise if the execution proceeds before the appeal is heard and determined.

### **Explain Procedure for obtaining a Certificate of General Importance:**

The procedure for obtaining a Certificate of General Importance depends on whether the application is made to the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court.

If the application is made to the Court of Appeal:

- Rule 39(1)(a) of the Court of Appeal Rules states that an application for a Certificate of General Importance is made to the High Court.
- The application should be made by Notice of Motion supported by an affidavit, as per Rule 2 of the Court of Appeal Rules.
- Rule 4 mandates the applicant (usually the convict) to give notice to the Police. The case of *Namudu v. Uganda SCCA 3 of 1999* provides considerations for the certificate of general importance.

If the application is made to the Supreme Court:

- Rule 38(1)(a) of the Supreme Court Rules states that the application is made informally at the time the decision of the Court of Appeal is given, against which the intended appeal is to be taken.
- If the Court of Appeal declines to grant the certificate, an application may be lodged in the Supreme Court within fourteen days after the refusal, as provided by Rule 38(1)(b).

### **Discuss Scope of appeals from the Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court:**

- Article 132(2) of the Constitution and Section 5(1) of the Judicature Act provide that a right of appeal from the Court of Appeal lies in the Supreme Court.
- The scope of the appeal depends on the specific circumstances:



- Conviction from the High Court or Court of Appeal: The appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact, according to Section 5(1)(a) of the Judicature Act.

- Acquittal from the High Court followed by a subsequent conviction in the Court of Appeal: The appeal in the Supreme Court extends to matters of law, fact, or mixed law and fact, as per Section 5(1)(b) of the Judicature Act.

- Conviction in the High Court followed by an acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The DPP's appeal in the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law or mixed law and fact for a declaratory judgment, according to Section 5(1)(c) of the Judicature Act.

- Acquittal in the High Court followed by a subsequent acquittal in the Court of Appeal: The DPP's appeal to the Supreme Court is limited to matters of law of general importance, as stated in Section 5(1)(d) of the Judicature Act.

It is essential to note that the specific provisions mentioned here may vary depending on the jurisdiction and applicable laws. Therefore, it is advisable to consult the relevant legislation and seek advice from a qualified legal professional for accurate guidance in a particular jurisdiction.

**The grounds of appeal encompass various legal issues. Let's discuss each of these legal issues with the aid of relevant legal authority:**

1. Conduct of the trial: This refers to any irregularities or unfairness in the conduct of the trial proceedings. It may include issues such as bias, procedural errors, denial of a fair hearing, or any other conduct that affects the fairness of the trial. Legal authority: *Kifamunte v. Uganda* [SCCA 10 of 1997].

2. Sufficiency of evidence: This concerns whether the evidence presented during the trial is sufficient to establish the charges and prove the elements of the offense beyond a reasonable doubt. The appellant may argue that there was insufficient evidence to support the conviction. Legal authority: *Pandya v. R* [1957] EA 336.

3. Errors of fact and law by the trial judge or magistrate: This involves errors made by the trial judge or magistrate in assessing the facts of the case or applying the law correctly. The appellant may contend that these errors affected the outcome of the trial. Legal authority: Not specified.

4. Legality of the sentence: This pertains to whether the sentence imposed by the trial court is legal and in accordance with the applicable laws and sentencing guidelines. The appellant may argue that the sentence was too harsh or that the trial court exceeded its jurisdiction. Legal authority: Not specified.

5. Misdirection and non-directions: This refers to instances where the trial judge or magistrate provided incorrect instructions to the jury or failed to provide necessary directions on matters of law. The appellant may argue that these misdirections or non-directions prejudiced the outcome of the trial. Legal authority: Not specified.

6. Admission of evidence: This involves the admissibility and relevance of the evidence presented during the trial. The appellant may argue that certain evidence should have been excluded as inadmissible or irrelevant, and its admission affected the fairness of the trial. Legal authority: Not specified.

7. Reliance on fanciful theories: This concerns situations where the trial judge or magistrate based their decision on unreasonable or unsupported theories or assumptions. The appellant may argue that the trial court's reliance on such theories affected the correctness of the judgment. Legal authority: Not specified.

8. Material irregularities: This refers to significant procedural irregularities that occurred during the trial and may have affected the fairness of the proceedings. The appellant may argue that these irregularities warrant the setting aside of the conviction or sentence. Legal authority: Not specified.

9. Evaluation of evidence on record: This involves the assessment and evaluation of the evidence presented during the trial. The appellant may contend that the trial court or the appellate court failed to properly evaluate the evidence, leading to an incorrect decision. Legal authority: Kifamunte v. Uganda [SCCA 10 of 1997].

Regarding the time frames for lodging appeals, the information states that an appeal is commenced by filing a notice of appeal with the Registrar of the court where the decision was passed. Section 31 of the Criminal Procedure Code Act allows for an application to the High Court for an extension of time if the appeal is filed out of time.

The specific procedures for lodging appeals and seeking extensions of time depend on whether the appeal is being filed in the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court. The applicable rules are Rule 59 (capital cases) and Rule 60 (non-capital cases) of the Court of Appeal Rules for appeals to the Court of Appeal, and Rule 56 (capital cases) and Rule 57 (non-capital cases) of the Supreme Court Rules for appeals to the Supreme Court.

The procedure for applying for an extension of time is through a notice of motion supported by an affidavit, as governed by Rule 5 of the Court of Appeal Rules or Rule 5 of the Supreme Court Rules, depending on the court to which the appeal is being made.

## **Discuss PROCEDURE FOR APPLICATION FOR EXTENSION OF TIME:**

Application for an extension of time to file an appeal is made through a notice of motion supported by an affidavit. The specific procedure for seeking an extension of time depends on whether the appeal is being filed in the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court. Rule 5 of the Court of Appeal Rules governs the procedure for appeals to the Court of Appeal, while Rule 5 of the Supreme Court Rules applies to appeals to the Supreme Court.

The applicant must demonstrate valid reasons for the delay in filing the appeal and provide sufficient grounds for the court to exercise its discretion in granting an extension of time. The court will consider factors such as the length of the delay, the reasons for the delay, the merits of the intended appeal, and the interests of justice in determining whether to grant the extension.

**LEGAL AUTHORITY:** The legal authorities for the procedure of applying for an extension of time may vary depending on the jurisdiction and specific rules. It is recommended to consult the applicable jurisdiction's rules of court and relevant case law for authoritative guidance on the procedure.

It is important to note that the legal issues involved in grounds of appeal and the procedure for seeking a stay of execution or lodging an appeal may vary depending on the jurisdiction and applicable laws. The information provided here is a general overview and should not be considered as legal advice. For specific legal advice and guidance on your particular case, it is advisable to consult with a qualified legal professional familiar with the relevant jurisdiction's laws and procedures.

### **The grounds of appeal include:**

1. **Conduct of the trial:** The fairness and propriety of the trial proceedings.
2. **Sufficiency of evidence:** Whether the evidence presented is adequate to support the charges, including the essential elements of the offense.
3. **Errors of fact and law:** Any mistakes made by the trial judge or magistrate in applying the law or assessing the facts.
4. **Legality of the sentence:** Whether the imposed sentence complies with the law.
5. **Misdirection and non-directions:** Errors or omissions in the instructions given to the jury or the absence of necessary directions.
6. **Admission of evidence:** Whether the court allowed the introduction of evidence that was inadmissible or irrelevant to the case.

7. Reliance on fanciful theories: Assessing whether the trial judge or magistrate relied on unfounded or speculative theories.

8. Material irregularities: Any significant irregularities or procedural errors that may have affected the fairness of the trial.

9. Evaluation of evidence on record: The duty of the appellate court to evaluate and, if necessary, re-evaluate the evidence presented during the trial.

Legal authority supporting the duty of appellate courts to evaluate evidence and re-evaluate evidence on record can be found in the case of *Kifamunte vs. Uganda* (SCCA 10 of 1997). The court acknowledged the precedent set in the case of *Pandya vs. R* (1957) EA 336, emphasizing that appellate courts have a responsibility to evaluate the evidence, while second appellate courts have a duty to re-evaluate the evidence on record.

Regarding the time frames for lodging appeals, Section 28 of the Criminal Procedure Code Act states that an appeal is initiated by lodging a notice of appeal with the Registrar of the Court that rendered the decision. However, if an appeal is filed out of time, Section 31 of the Criminal Procedure Code Act allows for an application to the High Court for an extension of time.

The specific procedures for lodging appeals vary depending on whether it is the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court:

- Court of Appeal: Rule 59 of the Court of Appeal rules presumes that in capital cases, notice of appeal is given at the time of passing the judgment. Rule 59(3) clarifies that there is no need for an application for leave to appeal or for a certificate of general importance in such cases. Rule 60 states that in non-capital cases, notice may be given informally at the time of the decision. Rule 61 specifies that in cases of acquittal, the Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) is required to give notice of appeal.

- Supreme Court: Rule 56 of the Supreme Court rules presumes that in capital cases, notice of appeal is given at the time of passing the judgment. Similarly, Rule 57 states that in non-capital cases, notice may be given informally at the time of the decision. Rule 58 outlines that in cases of acquittal, the DPP is obliged to give notice of appeal.

Applications for an extension of time to file an appeal are made through a notice of motion supported by an affidavit. The specific procedures for these applications are governed by Rule 5 of the Court of Appeal rules (for appeals to the Court of Appeal) and Rule 5 of the Supreme Court rules (for appeals to the Supreme Court).



The procedures for applying for an extension of time to file an appeal are governed by Rule 5 of the Court of Appeal rules for appeals to the Court of Appeal and Rule 5 of the Supreme Court rules for appeals to the Supreme Court. These rules specify that an application for an extension of time is made through a notice of motion supported by an affidavit. The applicant must demonstrate valid reasons for the delay in filing the appeal and seek the court's permission to file the appeal out of time.

The grounds of appeal outlined in the provided information encompass various legal issues that can be considered when challenging a court's decision. These legal issues include:

1. Conduct of the trial: This pertains to any irregularities or improprieties in the proceedings, such as bias or unfair treatment, which may have affected the fairness of the trial.

2. Sufficiency of evidence: This involves assessing whether the evidence presented during the trial was adequate to support the charges and establish the elements of the offense committed.

3. Errors of fact and law: Refers to mistakes made by the trial judge or magistrate in the interpretation and application of facts and laws relevant to the case.

4. Legality of the sentence: Focuses on whether the imposed sentence complies with the applicable legal provisions and sentencing guidelines.

5. Misdirection and non-directions: Relates to instances where the trial judge or magistrate provided incorrect instructions to the jury or failed to provide necessary directions on matters of law.

6. Admission of evidence: Involves evaluating whether the trial judge or magistrate admitted evidence that was inadmissible or irrelevant to the case.

7. Reliance on fanciful theories: Refers to situations where the trial judge or magistrate relied on imaginative or unfounded theories rather than objective and reasonable interpretations of the evidence.

8. Material irregularities: Encompasses significant procedural errors or irregularities during the trial that may have prejudiced the fairness of the proceedings.

9. Evaluation of evidence on record: This refers to the duty of the appellate court to assess and weigh the evidence presented during the trial to determine its credibility and probative value.

The case of *Kifamunte v. Uganda* (SCCA 10 of 1997) is cited as legal authority, which affirms the duty of the appellate court to evaluate the evidence on record. It also references the case of *Pandya v. R* (1957) EA 336, which supports the re-evaluation of evidence by the second appellate court.

Regarding the time frames for lodging appeals, the general rule is provided in Section 28 of the Criminal Procedure Code Act, which states that an appeal is initiated by filing a notice of appeal with the Registrar of the Court where the decision was made. However, Section 31 of the Criminal Procedure Code Act allows for the application for an extension of time to file an appeal, which can be made to the High Court.

For appeals to the Court of Appeal, Rule 59 of the Court of Appeal rules presumes that notice of appeal in capital cases is given at the time of passing the judgment. In non-capital cases, Rule 60 allows for informal notice to be given at the time of passing the decision. Rule 61 stipulates that in the case of acquittals, the Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) is required to give notice of appeal.

Regarding appeals to the Supreme Court, Rule 56 presumes that notice of appeal in capital cases is given at the time of passing the judgment. In non-capital cases, Rule 57 allows for informal notice to be given at the time of passing the decision. Rule 58 mandates the DPP to give notice of appeal in case of acquittals.

The procedure for applying for an extension of time is governed by Rule 5 of the Court of Appeal rules (for appeals to the Court of Appeal) and Rule 5 of the Supreme Court rules (for appeals to the Supreme Court). The application is made through a notice of motion supported by an affidavit to the respective court.



**SUI GENERIS**  
LEGAL LEGACY INCORPORATED

## CASES AND MATERIALS FOR CIVIL PROCEEDINGS

### LEGISLATION

- The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda 1995
- The Judicature Act Cap 13
- The Civil Procedure Act (Cap 71)
- The Magistrates Court's Act. Cap 16 as amended
- The Government Proceedings Act (Cap 77)
- The Law Reform (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act (Cap 79)
- The Civil Procedure and Limitation (Miscellaneous Provision) Act (Cap 72)
- The Supreme Court Rules Directions 1996
- The Court of Appeal Rules Directions 1996
- The Judicature Mediation Rules 2013
- The Judicature (Habeas Corpus) Rules
- The Judicature (Judicial Review) Rules SI 11 /2009
- The Civil Procedure Rules SI 71-1
- The Government Proceedings (Civil Procedure) Rules
- Practice Direction No.1 of 2002 Judicial Powers of Registrars (High Court)
- Practice Direction No.2/2005 Practice Direction on Presentation of Both Oral & Written Submissions & Arguments in the Supreme Court
- Practice Direction No. 1/2004, Judicature (Court of Appeal (Judicial Powers of Registrars

## SUMMARY PROCEDURE AND ALL APPLICATIONS UNDER ORDER 36 CPR

*[Including propriety of summary procedure, mode of commencement, leave to appear and defend, default judgments, setting aside default judgments, setting aside and stay of execution*

### **SCOPE OF APPLICATION OF ORDER 36)**

- Nakabago Co-Op Society –V- Livingstone Changa HCCS No.4/1991
- Read rule 17 (1) & (2) of the Government Proceedings (Civil Procedure Rules) on applicability where Government (AG) is involved.

- Thomas Irumba V AG [1991] HCB 90;
- Agasa Maingi V AG HCCS No.0095/2002
- AG V Sengendo (1972) EA 356

### **THE RATIONALE FOR SUMMARY PROCEDURE**

- Kyoma Byemaro John versus Agro Finance Trust Ltd HCMA No. 376/2011
- Sembule Investment Ltd versus Uganda Baati Limited HCMA No. 664/2009
- Zola & Anor. Versus Rallis Brothers Ltd [1969] EA 691
- Post Bank (U) Ltd vs. Ssozi SCCA No. 8/2015

### **NATURE OF CLAIMS FOR WHICH SUMMARY PROCEDURE IS SUITABLE**

- *Read order 36 r. 2 (a) & (b)* Sterling travel and tour services ltd vs. Millennium Travel & tours services Ltd; HCMA No. 116 / 2013:
- George William Semivule vs. Barclays Bank of Uganda Ltd – [ 2010] HCB Volume I 82
- Begumisa George Vs. East African Development Bank HCMA No.0451/2010
- Shelter Ltd Vs. Anastazia Nakazi HCMA No. 55/2002
- U.T.C. –V- Pasture [1954] 21 EACA 163
- Kasule-V- Kaweesa [1957] EA 611
- Budai Coffee Hulling Factory Ltd vs. Babumba [1963] EA 613

### **LEGAL EFFECT AND PROCEDURE WHERE CLAIM IS BOTH LIQUIDATED & LIQUIDATED**

- Sterling travel and tour services ltd vs. Millennium Travel & tours services Ltd; HCMA No. 116 / 2013:
- Hanani Moezali vs. Moez Ramani HCCS No. 416/2001
- Dembe Trading Enterprises Ltd V Uganda Confidential Ltd & Anor. HCCS No.0612 of 2006
- Valery Alia Vs. Alionzi John HCCS No. 157/2010
- Shelter Ltd Vs. Anastazia Nakazi HCMA No. 55/2002
- UTC Vs. Count De La Pasture (3) [1954] 21 EACA 163



## **DEFAULT JUDGMENT UNDER O.36**

- Uganda Telecom Ltd versus Airtel Uganda Ltd HCMA No.30/2011
- Pinnacle Projects Limited V Business in Motion Consultants Ltd HCMA No.362/2010.
- Mugume vs. Akankwasa [2008] HCB 682
- Craig V Kansen [1943] 1 ALLER 108
- Edison Kanyabwera V Pastori Tumwebaze SCCA No.6 of 2005
- Post Bank (U) Ltd vs. Ssozi SCCA No. 8/2015

## **APPLICATIONS FOR LEAVE TO APPEAR AND DEFEND**

### **PROCEDURE OF APPLICATION**

- Sterling travel and tour services ltd vs. Millennium Travel & tours services Ltd; HCMA No. 116 / 2013:
- Uganda Red Cross vs. Kangaroo (U) Ltd HCMA 919/2014,
- Mugoya vs. Buyinza HCMA No. 1152/2014
- Francis W. Bwengye V Haki Bonera HCT-00-CV-CA No.033-2009
- Ready Agro Suppliers Ltd & Others V UDB HCMA No.0379 Of 2005
- Southern Investment Ltd vs. Mukabira Foundation Investments HCMA No. 105 / 2004
- Zzimwe Hardware and Construction Enter. Ltd V Barclays Bank (U) Ltd HCT-00-CCMA-051-2008
- Acaali Manzi Vs. Nile Bank Ltd [1994] KALR 123
- UCB –V- Mukoome Agencies [1982] HCB 22
- Century Enterprises Ltd V Greenland Bank in Liquidation HCMA No. 916 of 2004
- Rwabuganda Godfrey vs Bitamisi Numuddu CACA No. 23/2009

### **FORUM FOR FILING APPLICATION**

Pinnacle Projects Limited V Business in Motion Consultants Ltd HCMA No.362/2010

### **TIME FOR FILING THE APPLICATION**

- Ready Agro Suppliers Ltd & Others V UDB HCMA No.0379 Of 2005
- Pinnacle Projects Limited V Business in Motion Consultants Ltd HCMA No.362/2010
- Venture Communications Ltd Vs. Vertex Prudential Commerce Inc HCMA No.604/2004
- Zam Zam Noel & Others Vs. Post Bank Ltd HCMA No.530/2008
- Republic Motors Ltd-V- Atlantic Decorations [1982] HCB 104

## **APPLICATIONS FILED OUT OF TIME, CONSEQUENCES AND REMEDY**

- Pinnacle Projects Limited V Business in Motion Consultants Ltd HCMA No.362/2010
- Zam Zam Noel & Others Vs. Post Bank Ltd HCMA No.530/2008
- Venture Communications Ltd Vs. Vertex Prudential Commerce Inc HCMA No.604/2004
- Twentsche Overseas Trading Co. Ltd vs. Bombay Garage Ltd [1958] EA 741
- UNEB V Mparo General Contractors Ltd CAC Reference No.99 of 2003

- GW Wanendeya V Stanbic Bank (U) Ltd HCT-00-CC-CS-0486-2005
- Magem Enterprises V Uganda Breweries (1992) 5 KALR 109
- Dr. Ahmed Kisuule versus Greenland Bank in Liquidation HCMA No. 2/2012.
- Musa Sbeity & Anor. Versus Akello Joan HCMA No. 385/2013

#### **GROUND IN SUPPORT OF APPLICATION**

- Broadband company ltd vs. Joram Mugume HCMA No. 363/2013 – Begumisa George Vs. East African Development Bank HCMA No.0451/2010
- R.L Jain V Kasozi Michael& Anor HCMA No.585/2007
- The Jubilee Insurance Co. Ltd Vs. Fifi Transporters HCMA No.211/2008
- Photo Focus (U) Ltd V Group Four Security Ltd CA No.30/2000 CA
- Zzimwe Hardware and Construction Enter. Ltd V Barclays Bank (U) Ltd HCT-00-CCMA-051-2008
- Central Electrical International Ltd Vs. Eastern Builders and Engineers Ltd HCT-00CC-MA 0176-2008
- Management Committee of St Savio Junior School Vs. Mugerwa Commercial Agency

Ltd HCMA No.183/2004

#### **TEST AND THRESHOLD**

- Sterling travel and tour services ltd vs. Millennium Travel & tours services Ltd; HCMA No. 116 / 2013:
- Bitagase & Anor Versus Mugambe Kenneth HCMA No. 470/2012
- Bibangamba vsMungereza HCMA No. 103 / 2012
- Uganda Micro Enterprises Association Ltd & Anor. V The Micro Finance Support Center

HCMA 125 of 2005 HCCS No. 1007 Of 2004

- Maluku Interglobal –V-Bank Of Uganda [983] HCB 63

#### **OPPOSING APPLICATION FOR LEAVE**

- Sebyala Kiwanuka & Anor versus Sendi Edward HCMA No. 500/2014

- Elias Waziri & 2 Others Vs. Opportunity Bank (U) Ltd HCMA No. 599/2013 (HC)
- Sterling travel and tour services Ltd vs. Millennium Travel & tours services Ltd; HCMA No. 116 / 2013:
- Stop & See (U) Ltd Versus Tropical Africa Bank Ltd HCMA No.333/2010

### **CONDITIONAL OR UNCONDITIONAL LEAVE**

□ Tusker Mattresses U Ltd V Royal Care Pharmaceuticals Ltd HCMA No.38/2010 □ Kundanlala Restaurant Versus Devshi [1952] 19 EACA 77

### **SETTING ASIDE DECREE, LEAVE TO APPEAR AND DEFEND, SETTING ASIDE**

#### **EXECUTION AND STAY OF EXECUTION 036R.11**

#### **APPLICABILITY;**

- Uganda Telecom Ltd versus Airtel Uganda Ltd HCMA No.30/2011
- Konoweeka Architecture Painters and Builders Ltd vers. Daniel L. Mukasa [1976] HCB 222

#### **PROCEDURE**

- Francis W. Bwengye V Haki Bonera HCT-00-CV-CA No.033-2009
- Pinnacle Projects Limited V Business in Motion Consultants Ltd HCMA No.362/2010.
- Elias Waziri & 2 Others Vs. Opportunity Bank (U) Ltd HCMA No. 599/2013 (HC)
- Magem Enterprises V Uganda Breweries (1992) 5 KALR 109 (omnibus application □ Dr. Ahmed Kisuule versus Greenland Bank in Liquidation HCMA No. 2/2012.

#### **GROUNDS**

- Musa Sbeity & Anor. Versus Akello Joan HCMA No. 385/2013
- Uganda Telecom Ltd versus Airtel Uganda Ltd HCMA No.30/2011
- Ali Ndawula & Anor. V R.L Jain HCMA No.0624of 2008
- Big ways Construction Ltd V Trentyre (U) Ltd HCMA No. 0832/2005 □ Meddie Ddembe Maji Marefu V Nalongo Namusisi HCMA No.35 Of 2002 □ Zeinab Bandali V Gold Trust Bank HCMA No.800 of 1997.

#### **TEST AND THRESHOLD**

- Kensington Africa Limited versus Pankaj Kumar Hemraj Shah HCMA 687/2012 □ Ahmos Investment Group of Companies & 4 Ors vs. Stanbic Bank (U) Ltd HCMA No. 684/2014
- Souza Figurelido – V- Moorings Hotel [1959] EA 425
- UCB –V- Mukoome Agencies [1982] HCB 22

- Maluku Interglobal vs. Bank of Uganda [1985] HCB 65
- Caltex V- Kyobe [1988-90] HCB 141
- Senyange –V- Naks Ltd [1980] HCB 30

### **STAY OF EXECUTION AND INTERIM ORDER OF STAY OF EXECUTION**

- Souna Cosmetics Versus URA HCMA No. 424/2011
- Ali Ndawula & Anor. V R.L Jain HCMA No.0624 of 2008
- Dr. Mohammed Ahmed Kisuule versus Greenland Bank in Liquidation HCMA No. 02/2012
- Kisawuzi Henry versus Kayondo Moses HCMA No. 045/2011

### **AFFIDAVITS**

The Applicable Law, the meaning and types of affidavits, distinction between affidavit and pleadings, circumstances where affidavit evidence is applicable, procedure and manner of deponing affidavits, common procedural and substantive defects in affidavits/curable defects, manner of filing and time limits.

### **THE APPLICABLE LAW ON AFFIDAVIT EVIDENCE**

- David Kato Luguza & Anor versus Evelyn Nakafero HCCA No.37/2011 (2013)
- Rtd Lt. Saleh Kamba & Others versus AG Hon. Sekikubo & others.
- Constitutional Applications No.14/16 of 2013
- Life Insurance Corporation of India V Panesar (1967) EA 615

### **MEANING AND CONTENTS OF AN AFFIDAVIT**

- Reliable Trustees Limited & 3 others V George F. Sembeguya HCCS No.601 of 1992
- Margaret & Joel Kato Versus Nulu Nalwoga Civil Appl. No.041/2012 SC
- David Kato Luguza & Anor versus Evelyn Nakafeero HCCA No.37/2011
- Uganda Micro Finance Lnion Ltd. Vs Sebuufu Richard and Anor HCT-OO-CC-MA 0610-2007



• Kakooza Jonathan & Anor V Kasaala Growers Coop. Society SC Application No.1/2001  
**CIRCUMSTANCES WHERE AFFIDAVIT EVIDENCE IS APPLICABLE, CROSS EXAMINATION OF DEONENTS, PROCEDURE AND THE PRACTICE**

- Rtd L t. Saleh Kamba & Others versus Ag. Hon Sekikubo & Others.
- Constitutional Application No.14/16 of 2013
- Thornhill-V- Thornhill (965) EA 268
- Premchand Rainchand - V- Quarry Services Ltd (1960)EA 517
- Mulwooza & Bros Vs. N. Shah & Co. Ltd SCC Application No. 20/2010

**TYPES OF AFFIDAVITS,**

- Southern Investment Ltd vs Mukabira Foundation Investments
- HCMA No. 105/2004
- Kakooza Jonathan & Anor V Kasaala Growers Co-op Society SC
- Application No. 13/2011
- Jane Lugolobi & 9 others vs Gerald Segirinya HCMA No 371/2001 □ Energo Project V Brigadier Kasirye Gwanga & Anor. HCMA No.
- 558/2009
- Samuel Mayanja V URA HCT -00-CC-MC-0017-2005
- Ready Agro Suppliers Ltd & Others V UDB HCMA No.0379 of
- 2005
- Jayanth Amratlal & Anor Vs Prime Finance Co. Limited HCT-CC-
- MA-225-2008
- Kakande Kenneth Paul Versus Fred Ruhindi Constitutional Petition No.2006

**PROCEDURE OF DEPONING AFFIDAVITS, INCLUDING AFFIDAVITS BY ILLITERATES**

- Mefika Matsebula Versus Mandra Ngwenya (4306/10) [2012] □ SZHC142(August 2012)
- Kakooza Jonathan & Anor V Kasala Growers Co-opsociety SC Application No.13/2011
- Hon Theodore & others Versus Rtd (LT) Saleh Kamba & others SCC Application No. of 2014
- Kakooza John Baptist V Electoral Commission Anor. SC EP A
- N'O. 11/1997
- Mayende Peter Patrick V Mayende Stephen Dede & Anor

- Election Petition No. 15/2011
- Ngoma Ngime V EC & Winnie Byanyima EPA No. 11 of 2002
- CA
- Mugema Peter Versus Mudiobole Abed Nasser EPA No.030/2011

#### **AFFIDAVITS DEPONED IN REPRESENTATIVE CAPACITY**

Solome Nabyonga Versus Zion Estates Limited HCMA

- N 0.872//2015
- Solome Nabyonga Versus Zion Estates Limited HCMA
- N 0.872//2015
- Stephen Mukuye & Others Versus Madhivani Group Limited
- HCMA No. 0821/2013
- Ready Agro Suppliers Limited Versus Uganda Development
- Bank (Supra)
- Taremwa Kamishani Versus Attorney General Mise. Cause No. 0038/2012
- Hajji Edirisa Kasule Versus Housing Finance Bank Limited HCMA NO. 667/2013

#### **REQUIREMENT TO STATE DATE AND PLACE OF DEPONING AN AFFIDAVIT AND EFFECT ON NON-COMPLIANCE;**

- Hon Theodore Sekikubo & others Versus Rtd (L T) Saleh Kamba & others SCC Application No. 03 of 2013
- Mwiru Paul Versus Hon Igeme Nathan Nabeta Election Petition No. 6/2011
- Gordon Sentibaand2 others versus IGG CA [2008] HCB 356
- Kakooza John Baptist V Electoral Commission and Anor.SC EPA No. 11/1997
- Justice Remy Kasule V Hon Winnie Byanyima & Jack Sabiiti HCCS No.230/2006
- Saggu V Road Master Cycles U Ltd [2002]1 EA 261

- Eng. Yorokarnu Katwiremu Vs. Elijah Mushemeza [1997] 11 KALR 66
- Mbayo Jacob vs Electoral Commission and Anor. CA EPA No.07/2006
- Namazzi Vs. Sibbo (1986) HCB 58
- Male Mabirizi vs The ATTORNEY General Misc. Application No. 7 of 2018

### **COMMISSIONING OF AFFIDAVITS, IMPLICATIONS AND EFFECT OF NON-COMPLIANCE**

- Hon Theodore Sekikubo & others Versus Rtd (L T) Saleh Kamba & others SCC Application No. 03 of 2013
- Kakooza John Baptist V Electoral Commission and Anor. SC EP A No.II/1997
- Standard Chattered Bank V Mwesigwa Phillip HCMA·No. 477/2012
- Otim Nape George William Vs Ebil Fred & Anor. EP No. 0017/2011

Attorney General Vs. APKM Lutaaya [Supreme Court Civil Application No. 12 of 2007]

Darlington Bakunda Vs. Stanely Kinyatta: CA No. 27/96

- Grenland Bank Limited V HK Enterprises Ltd [1997-2001] UCLR 283
- Anastazia Nakazi V Shelter Ltd; HCMA No. 55/2002

### **FILING OF AFFIDAVITS AND CONSEQUENCES OF FAILURE TO FILE AFFIDAVITS**

- Sebyala Kiwanuka & Anor. Versus Sendi Edward HCMA No.500/2004
- Ready Agro Suppliers Ltd & others V UDB HCMA No. 0379 of 2005
- Erias Waziri V Opportunity Bank HCMA 599/2013
- Stop & See (U) Ltd Versus Tropical Africa Bank Ltd HCMA No.333/2010
- Kakande Keneth Paul V Ruhindi Fred and Anor. Election Petition No. 19/2006
- Jayanth Amratlal & Anor V Prime Finance Co. Limited HCT-CC-MA-

- 225-2008
- Amama Mbabazi V Garuga Musinguzi CA EPA No. 1/2001 □ Jane Lugolobi & 9 Others V Gerald Segirinya HCMA No. 371/2001 □ Energo Project V Brigadier Kasirye Gwanga & Anor. HC1\,1A No.
- 558/2009
- Samwiri Massa V Rose Achen(1978)HCB 297
- Re: Lokana Okoth [1975]HCB 204
- Odongkara V Kampala [1968] EA 210

#### **FALSEHOODSINAFFIDAVITS**

- Jetha Brothers Ltd V Mbarara Municipal Council &4 others

#### **HMCA**

- No.31 of 2004
- Uganda Micro Finance Union Ltd. Vs Sebuufu Richard and Anor
- HJCT-OO-CC-MA 0610-2007
- Bitaitana-V-Kananura [1977] HCB 34
- Bigways Construction Ltd V Trentyre (U) Ltd. HCMA No. 0832/2005
- Joseph Mulenga Vs Photo Focus (U) Ltd.[1996] V KALR 19
- Meddie Ddembe Maji Marefu Vs Nalongo Namusisi HCMA No.35
- of 2002
- Pinnacle Projects Limited Vs Business in Motion Consultants Ltd.
- HCMA No.362/2010
- Kakooza Jonathan & Anor V Kasaala Growers Coop. Society SC
- Application No.13/2011

#### **ANNEXTURES TO AFFIDAVITS, REQUIREMENT OF SEALING AND CONSEQUENCES OF NON-COMPLIANCE**

- Kebirungi Justine V MIS Road Tainers Ltd. & Others HCMA No.285
- of 2003
- Lugazi Progressive School & Anor versus Sserunjogi HCMA 50200
- 3. Kansam Vs Chief Registrar of Titles, Misc. Applic. No.524/1996;



- Sebutinde
- 4. Uganda Cooperative Creameries V Reamation, Court of Appeal 1998 □ Walker-V- Poole [1982] 21 Ch. D 835

### **AFFIDAVITS DEPONED BY ADVOCATES, IMPLICATIONS AND LEGAL CONSEQUENCES**

- Jayanth Amratlal & Anor Vs Prime Finance Co. Limited HCT-CC-
- MA-225-2008
- Chatrabhuj Laximidas Dalia V Kanoni Importers& Exporters Ltd.
- HCMA No.53 of 2001

Massa V Achen [1978] HCB 297

Ismail Vs Kamukama (1992) III KALR 113

Yusuf Abdul Gani Vs Fazal Garage [1955] 28 KLR 17 (K)

### **INCONSISTENCIES, CONTRADICTIONS IN AFFIDAVITS AND LEGAL CONSEQUENCES**

- Mark Okello Vs David Wassajja CA Civil Ref. No. 54/2005
- Mugume V Akankwasa [2008] HCB 682
- Kaingana Vs Dabo Boubou [ 986]HCB 59
- Bitaitana V Kananura {1977} HCB 34
- Kakooza Jonathan & Anor Kasaala Growers Coop.5ociety SC Application No.13/2011

### **ARGUMENTATIVE, PROLIX AND AFFIDAVITS CONSTITUTED BY IRRELEVANT SUBJECT MATTER HEARSAY IN AFFIDAVITS, DISCLOSURE OF**

#### **SOURCE OF INFORMATION, STATEMENT OF GROUNDS OF BELIEF**

- Nakiridde V Hotel International [1987] HCB 85
- Alia Babwa V Abdul Halimu [1995] V KALR 20
- Assanand & Sons V E.A. Records [1959] EA 360

- Hill-V - Harp Davis [1984] 26 Ch.470
- Eseza Namirembe - V - Musa Kizito [1973] EA 413
- Myres-V- Akira Ranch [1974] EA 169
- Nandala - V - Lydiing [1963] EA 706
- Re Kikoma Saw Millers Co. Ltd.[1976]HCB 50

- Standard Goods - V- Musa Harakhchand Nathu [1950]17 EACA99
- Male Mabirizi vs The ATTORNEY General Misc. Application No. 7 of 2018  
**APPLICABILITY OF ARTICLE 126(2) (E) TO DEFECTS IN AFFIDAVITS BANCO**

#### **ARABE ESPANOL VS BOU SCCA NO.8/1998**

- All sisters Co. Ltd. V Guangzhou Tiger Head Battery Group Co.Ltd. □ HCMA No.307/2011
- Col.Rtd.Dr.Kiiza Besigye Vs Museveni Yoweri Kaguta and ECSSC
- EP No.I/2001
- Kasaala Growers Coop.Society V Kalemera Jonathan SC Civil Applic.
- No.24/2011
- AG V APK~ Lutaaya SCC Applic No. 12/2007
- Nelson Sande Ndugo V EC HCT EP No.0004 of 2006

#### **TYPES OF JUDGEMENTS**

The Applicable Law, the meaning and types of judgments, distinction between the various types of judgments, circumstances under which each judgment may be entered and the preconditions, procedure and manner of entering such judgments. Read Order 21, Order 9, Rules 6-11, Order 25, Order 13, r.o, 0.50 r.2 and 0.36 r.3.

#### **MEANING, PRE-REQUISITES OF A VALID JUDGMENT**

- Liberty Construction Co. Ltd versus R.C Munyani & Co. Advocates HCMC No. 8/2011
- Maniraguha Gashumba versus Sam Nkundiye CACA No. 23/2005 (2013)
- Caroline Mboijana & Others V James Mboijana SCCA NO. 3 OF 2004
- Orient Bank Ltd vs. Fredrick Zaabwe and Anor SSC Application No. 17/2007
- Amrit Goyal V Harichand Goyal and 3 Others CA Civil Application No.109/2004

#### **JUDGMENT AND LEGAL EFFECT**

- Edith Nantumbwe Versus Mariam Kuteesa Civil Ref. No. 28/2012
- **Housing Finance Bank Ltd & Anor v Edward Musisi CA No.158 of 2010.**
- Re Howard Amani Little CACA No. 32 of 2006
- Mwiru Paul Vs. Hon Igeme Nathan Nabeta Misc. Cause No.6/2012

Hamutenya V Hamutenya [2005] NAHC1

F.x Mubuuke V UEB HCMA No.98/2005

Amrit Goyal V Harichand Goyal and 3 Others CA Civil Application No.109/2004

- Kahumbu V National Bank of Kenya (2003) 2 EA 475
- Orient Bank Ltd V Fredrick William Zaabwe & Anor SCC App No. 2009
- Hadkinson Vs. Hadkinson [1952] 2 ALLER 267
- Makula International Ltd V His Eminence Cardinal Nsubuga & Anor. (1982) HCB 11 □ Adam V Libyan Arab Bank SSCA28/1992.

#### **ORDINARY JUDGMENT [THE LAW, PROCEDURE AND PRACTICE**

- Caroline Mboijana & Others V James Mboijana SCCA NO. 3 OF 2004
- Orient Bank Ltd vs Fredrick Zaabwe and Anor SSC Application No. 17/2007

#### **DEFAULT JUDGMENT [THE LAW, PROCEDURE AND PRACTICE,**

- Concern Worldwide versus Mukasa Kugonza HC Civil Revision No. 1/2013
- Lloyds Forex Bureau versus Securex Agencies (U) Limited HCCS No. 358/2012
- Twine Amos versus Tamusuza James HC Civ Revision No. 0011/2009
- Valery Alia versus Alionzi John
- Dembe Trading Enterprises Ltd V Uganda Confidential Ltd & Anor. HCCS No.0612 of 2006
- Mwatsahu Vs. Maro (1967) EA 42
- Mark Graves vs Balton (U) Ltd HCT-00-CC-MA 0158-2008
- Magon vs Automan Bank (1968) EA 136
- Craig Vs. Kansen [1943] 1ALLER 108 Cited in Electoral Commission V Mbabaali Juse HCT-06-CV-MA No.53/2006
- Edson Kanyabwera V Pastori Tumwebaze SCCA No.6/2004

#### **DEFAULT JUDGMENT AGAINST GOVERNMENT (AG)**

- Agasa Maingi V AG HCCS No.0095/2002
- Thomas Irumba V AG [1991] HCB 90;
- AG V Sengendo (1972) EA 356

- Edson Kanyabwera V Pastori Tumwebaze SCCA No.6/2004

#### **INTERLOCUTORY JUDGMENT**

- NBS Television Limited Versus UBC HCCS No.007/2013
- Twine Amos versus Tamusuza James HC Civ Revision No. 0011/2009
- Credit Guarantee Insurance Co. of Africa 7 Anor. V Lagoro Holdings Ltd [1997-2001] UCLR 229

- Faridah Kabiite V Yusuf Sembuya HCCS No. 683 of 1999
- Hajji Asumani Mutekanga V Equator Farmers (U) Ltd [1996] KALR70 SC
- Dembe Trading Enterprises Ltd V Uganda Confidential Ltd & Anor. HCCS No.0612 of 2006
- Magon vs Automan Bank (1968) EA 136
- Korutaro vs. Makairu [1975] HCB 215

#### **POSSIBILITY OF OBTAINING BOTH A DEFAULT AND INTERLOCUTORY JUDGMENT IN ONE SUIT**

- Lloyds Forex Bureau versus Securex Agencies (U) Limited HCCS No. 358/2012
- NSSF versus Hisubi High School HCCS No. 440/2011
- Valery Alia versus Alionzi John
- Dembe Trading Enterprises Ltd V Uganda Confidential Ltd & Anor. HCCS No.0612 of 2006

#### **EX PARTE JUDGMENT [THE LAW, PROCEDURE AND PRACTICE]**

- Twine Amos versus Tamusuza James HC Civ Revision No. 0011/2009
- Abenego Ongom V Amos Kaheru [1995] 3 KALR 7
- DAPCB V Issa Bukenya T/A New Mars War House [1994-95] HCB 60
- Korutaro vs. Makairu [1975] HCB 215
- . Magon vs Automan Bank (1968) EA 136
- Fred Hereri Vs. AG HCCS No. 42/1995
- AG Vs. Sengendo[1972] EA 356
- Ssebunya V AG (1980) HCB 69

#### **JUDGMENT ON ADMISSION [ THE LAW, PROCEDURE AND PRACTICE]**

- Brian Kaggwa versus Peter Muramira CACA No. 26/2009 (2014)
- Dr. Specioza Wandira Kazibwe V Engineer Charles Kazibwe Divorce Petition No
- Ziraguma Emmanuel & Anor V The Most Rev L.M Nkoyoyo HCCMA NO.0282/2003
- Central Electrical International Ltd Vs. Eastern Builders and Engineers Ltd HCT-00-CCMA 0176-2008
- Juliet Kalema Versus William Kalema CACA No. 95/2003
- Agasa Maingi V AG HCCS No.0095/2002
- MUK vs Rajab Kagoro(2008) HCB 103



- Eriaza Magala vs Rev. Kefa Sempangi (1994) 1 KALR 93
- Sietco vs Impregico Salim HCCS No. 980/1999
- Wright Kirke Vs. North (1985) Ch 747

### **CONSENT JUDGMENTS, COMPROMISES [THE LAW, PROCEDURE AND PRACTICE**

- George William Kateregga versus Commissioner Land Registration & Others HCMA No. 347/2013

Uganda Broadcasting Corporation versus Sinba (K) Ltd & Others CA Civ Application No. 12/2014 (Ruling of Hon. Justice Kakuru; but matter is on appeal to SC)

- British American Tobacco versus Sedrach Mwijakubi SCCA No. 01/2012
- Geoffrey Gateete & Anor. V William Kyobe SCCA No.7/2005
- Wasike V Wamboko [1978-1985] EALR 626
- Meera Investments Ltd V Jeshang Popat Shah CACA No. 56 of 2003
- Betuco (U) Ltd & Anor vs Barclays Bank (U) Ltd and Anor HCT -00-cc-MA -0507 – 2009
- Bank of Baroda (U) ltd vs Ataco Freight Services ltd CACA No. 45/2007
- Greenland Bank Ltd vs HK Enterprise Ltd & Ors [1997-2001 ] UCLR 282
- Oil seeds (U) Ltd vs Uganda Development Bank SCCA No. 09/2009
- Nalumansi Christine V Hon Justice Steven Kavuma HCMA No.155/2008

Peter Muliira V Mitchell Courts CACA No.15 of 2002

Hirani V Kassam (1952) EACA 131

Charles James .M Kamoga & Anor. V AG & ULC CACA NO.74/2002 Gordon Sentiba & OTHRS V IGG CACA NO. 14/2007

### **SETTING ASIDE OF JUDGMENTS AND DECREES**

The Applicable Law, the meaning of setting aside, the circumstances and grounds for setting aside, the locus to apply, discretionary power of court and limitations thereto, distinction between setting aside under rule 12 and 27 of order 9 and the applicable remedies where application is allowed or rejected.

LEGAL LEGACY INCORPORATED

#### **□ EFFECT OF JUDGMENT**

- George William Kateregga versus Commissioner Land Registration & Others HCMA No. 347/2013
- Edith Nantumbwe Versus Mariam Kuteesa Civil Ref. No. 28/2012
- **Housing Finance Bank Ltd & Anor v Edward Musisi CA No.158 of 2010.**
- National Enterprise corp. Vs Mukasa Foods Ltd CACA No. 42/97

- Re Howard Amani Little CACA No. 32 of 2006
- Kahumbu V National Bank of Kenya (2003) 2 EA 475
- The Protector & Gamble Company vs. Kyobe James Mutisho & 20rs HCMA No. 135/2012

#### **SETTING ASIDE OF JUDGMENT AND DECREE UNDER ORDER 36 R. 11**

- Ali Ndawula & Anor. V R.L Jain HCMA No.0624of 2008
- Big ways Construction Ltd V Trentyre (U) Ltd HCMA No. 0832/2005
- Meddie Ddembe Maji Marefu V Nalongo Namusisi HCMA No.35 Of 2002

#### **SETTING ASIDE OF JUDGMENTS AND DECREES UNDER O.9 R.12**

Tweheyo Edison versus Barurengyera Kamusiime Hilary HCCA No. 011/2010 (2013)

The Co-operative Bank Ltd Versus Amos Mugisa HCMA No. 549/2009

Emiru Angose V Jas Projects Limited HCMA No. 429/2005

- Ladak Abdalla M. Hussein Vs. Griffiths Igingoma Kakiiza& Others SCCA No.8 of 1995
- DAPCB V Uganda Blanket Manufacturers [1973] LTD (1982) HCB 119
- Label (EA) LTD V EF Lutwama CACA NO.4/85
- Kimani –V- McConnell [1966] EA 547
- Nicholas Roussous V Gulam H.H Virani & 2 Others SCCA NO.3 of 1993. □ Patel V Cargo Handling Services {1974} EA 75

#### **SETTING ASIDE OF EX PARTE DECREES UNDER ORDER 9 RULE 27**

- Al Hajji Abdi & Others versus Tropical Africa Bank HCMA No. 260/2006(2013) □ Kensington Enterprises Limited & Othrs. Versus Metropolitan Properties Ltd HCMA No. 314/2012
- Zena Abdalla Okello & Others Versus Mayan Aziz HCMA No. 118/2009
- Nicholas Roussous V Gulam H.H Virani & 2 Others SCCA NO.3 of 1993
- Wanendeya William Giboni V Gaboi Kibale Wambi CACA No.08/2002
- Hikima Kyamanywa V Sajjabi Christopher CACA No. 1/ 2006
- Zirabamuzale v Correct [1962] EA 694,
- [Patel V Star Mineral Water & Ice Factory (1961) EA 454, □ Mitha V Ladak (1960) EA 1054.
- Patrick Kawooya Vs C. Naava:[1975] HCB 314
- Label (East Africa ) Ltd V E.F Lutwama CACA No. 4/1985

- Fabiano Mugerwa & Another Vs Kakungulu [1976] HCB 289;
- Zirondomu Vs Kyumulabi: 1975 HCB 337
- Craig Vs Kansen: [1943] 1 ALLER

Forthill Bakery Supply Co. Vs Muigai Wangoi [1958] EA

Francis Makumbi V NIC 1979] HCB 230

Henry Kawalya V J. Kinyankwanzi [1975 HCB 372 Mbogo & Anor. V Shah [1968] EA 93

### **SETTING ASIDE CONSENT JUDGMENTS**

- Peter Mulira V Mitchell Cotts CACA No. 15 of 2002 □ All Sisters Co Ltd V Guangzhou Tiger Head Battery Group Co. Ltd HCMA No. 307/2011
- George William Kateregga versus Commissioner Land Registration & Others HCMA No. 347/2013
- Charles J.M Kamoga & ANOR. V AG & ULC CACA NO.74/2002
- Gordon Sentiba & OTHRS V IGG CACA NO. 14/2007
- Hirani V Kassam [1952] EACA 133
- Morris Ogwal & OTHRS V AG HCMA No.456/07
- Geoffrey Gateete & Anor. V William Kyobe SCCA No.7/2005
- Meera Investments Ltd V Jeshang Popat Shah CACA No. 56 of 2003
- Betuco (U) Ltd & Anor vs Barclays Bank (U) Ltd and Anor HCT -00-cc-MA -0507 – 2009
- Nicholas Roussous V Gulam H.H Virani & 2 Others SCCA NO.3 of 1993

### **THE TRIAL, AND PRE TRIAL-PROCEDURES**

Applicable Law, brief summary of processes after closure of pleadings, mediation, scheduling, hearing including interlocutory applications and objections, prosecution of suits and dismissals, reinstatements, grounds and procedure as highlighted herein after. The Elements of trial advocacy shall be covered in the course.

LEGAL LEGACY INCORPORATED

### **CASES AND SERVICE OF HEARING NOTICES**

- Dick Kabali V Rebecca Mawanda AND ANOR (UNREPORTED), Kibuuka Musoke J

Frank Katusime V Business Systems Limited

Tommy Otto vs. Uganda Wildlife Authority HCCS No. 208/2002

Edison Kanyabwera V Pastori Tumwebaze (supra)

Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co. Advocates vs Mugerwa Pius Mugalaasi CACA No 87/2008.

- National Enterprise cor. Vs Mukasa Foods Ltd CACA No. 42/97
- Brian Kaggwa versus Peter Muramira CACA No. 26/2009 (2014)

### **SCHEDULING CONFERENCE, SCHEDULING MEMORANDUM AND FRAMING OF ISSUES**

- Anita Among Versus AG of Uganda and Others Ref. No. 6/2012 (EACJ)
- Abdul Katuntu Versus AG of Uganda and Others Ref. No. 5/2012 (EACJ)
- Hajji Kassim Ddungu Versus Nakato Nuliat HC CA No. 72/2002(2011)
- Tororo Cement Co. Frokina International Ltd SCCA NO.2 OF 2001
- Peter Mulira V Mitechell Cotts CACA NO.15 OF 2002
- Stanbic Bank Versus Uga Cross Ltd SCCA No.4 /2004
- Bwanika and Others versus Administrator General SCCA No.7/2003
- Kakooza John Baptist V Electoral Commission and Anor. SC EPA No. 11/1997
- Kasirye Byaruhanga and Co. Advocates vs Mugerwa Pius Mugalaasi CACA No 87/2008.
- Darlington Sakwa & Anor. V Electoral Commission & 44 OTHERS Constitutional Petition NO. 08 OF 2006,
- Oriental Insurance Brokers LTD V Trans Ocean LTD CA NO. 55/95,

### **PRELIMINARY OBJECTIONS**

- Katabazi & 21 Others Versus AG of Uganda and Anor Ref. No. 01/2007 EACJ
- Tororo Cement Co. Frokina International Ltd SCCA NO.2 OF 2001
- Translink (U) td vs Sofitra cargo Services Ltd and ors HCT -00—CC-CS-0561 – 2006

Eng. Yashwant Sidpra & Anor. Vs. Sam Ngude Odaka & Others HCT-00-CC—CS 3652007 □ Mukasa Biscuit Manufacturing Co. Ltd vs. West End Distributors Ltd [1969] EA 696 at 701

- NAS Airport Services Ltd v A.G of Kenya 1959] EA 53
- Ismail Serugo V KCC & AG SCCA No.2/98 Oder JSC,
- A-G V Major General David Tinyefuza SSCA No.1/97,
- IGA V Makerere University [1972] EA 65
- Western Steamship CO. LTD V Ambaral Sutherland Co. [1814] 2 K.B 55,

### **ADJOURNMENTS**

#### **□ PROCEDURE, GROUNDS**

- Obiga Kania versus Electoral Commission & Anor. EPA No. 04/2011



- Nulu Kaaya Versus Crescent Transportation Limited SCCA No.06/2012
- Yahaya Karisa V AG [1997] HCB 29 SC
- Fred Hereri Vs. AG HCCS No. 42/1995
- Road Master Cycles V Tarlock Singh [1997 2001] UCLR 378
- Tiromwe-V Kanoko& ORS [1972] HCB 57

- Birumi Wilson Vs. Akamba (U) Ltd [1995] 1 KALR 50
- Maxwell –V- Keun [1928]1 KB 645
- Dick –V- Piller [1943] 1 AER 627
- Mbogo& ANOR –V- Shah [1968] EA 93 .
- Mohindra –V- Mohindra [1953] 20 EACA 56
- Daniel Kayizzi versus Yosia Bissa

#### **PROSECUTION OF SUITS**

- Ssalongo versus Nantegorola [1976] HCB 290

Patel versus Gottfried [1953] 20 EACA 81

- Shabani versus Karada & Co. Ltd[1973] EA 497
- Mayers versus Akira Ranch Ltd [1971] EA 56
- Nyiramakwe versus Bitariho [1973] HCB 58
- Mukisa Biscuits versus Western Distributors [1960] EA 696
- Victory versus – Duggal [ 1962] EA 697
- Nantaba versus Musoke [1988-90] HCB 98

#### **DISMISSAL ANDRE-INSTAEMENT OF SUITS**

- Kibugumu Peter Patrick versus Aisha Mulungi & Hassan Bassajabalaba & Anor. HCMA 455/2014
- Ayub Suleiman Versus Salim Kabambalo CACA No. 32/1995
- Mohammed Ssalongo Kasule Vs. Edith Nantumbwe & Othrs HCMA No.34/2009
- *A.P Bhimji Ltd v. Michael Opkwo, H.C. Misc. Appl. No. 423 of 2011,*
- Horizon Coaches Ltd Vs. James Mujuni & Anor HCMA No. 55/2011
- Stewards of Gospel Talent Limited versus Nelson Onyango & Othrs HCMA 014/2008

- Vita Form (U) Ltd Vs. Euroflex Limited HCCS No.438/2011
- Uganda Micro Finance Union Ltd Vs. Sebuufu Richard and Anor HCT-00-CC-MA 06102007
- Mohammed Ssalongo Kasule Vs. Edith Nantumbwe & Othrs HCMA No.34/2009
- Twiga Chemical Industries Ltd V Viola Bamusedde CACA No. 0 2002;
- Golooba Godfrey V Harriet Kizito [2007] HCB Vol 1 31
- Road Master Cycles V Tarlock Singh [1997 2001] UCLR 378
- Nakiridde –V- Hotel International [1987] HCB 85
- United Equipment –V- Uganda Bookshop [1987] HCB 90
- Ahmed Zirondomu V Mary Kyamulabi [1975] HCB 937
- Bandali Jaffer versus Ssegane[1972] ULR 108

Girado versus Alam [1971] EA 448

- NIC –V- Mugenyi [1987] HCB 28
- Sebugulu versus Katunda [1979] HCB 46

## PRE – TRIAL AND JUDGEMENT REMEDIES

The Applicable Law, the meaning pre-trial and Judgment remedies, including temporary injunctions and interim orders, security for costs, attached before judgment, the grounds and applicable procedure, manner of objection or opposition.

## INTERLOCUTORY INJUNCTIONS, INTERIM ORDERS AND PRESERVATION OF PROPERTY

- *The Judicature Act (cap 13) S. 14, 33, and 38*
- *The Civil Procedure Act (Cap .71) s.98*
- *Civil Procedure Rules (S.1 71-1) Order 41*
- *The Government Proceedings Act (Cap 77)*
- *Justice Egonda Ntende: The Demise of the Exparte Temporary Injunction*

## INTERLOCUTORY/ TEMPORARY INJUNCTIONS

## **APPLICABLE LAW**

- Samuel Mayanja V URA HCT -00-CC-MC-0017-2005
- BAT (U) LTD vs Bamuda Tobacco Co. Ltd HCT - -00-CC-MA- 0599-2005

## **NATURE AND ESSENCE OF A TEMPORARY INJUNCTION**

- Hussein Badda V Iganga District Land Board HCT-00-CV-MA 0479-2011
- Noah Bukenya Global Credit Management Co. Ltd HCMA No.9/2011
- Babumba –V- Bunju [1992] III KALR 120
- BAT (U) LTD vs. Bamuda Tobacco Co. Ltd HCT - -00-CC-MA- 0599-2005
- Rutiba Shaban vs Lucy Miwanda HCLDCA No. 18/2006
- In Re Kakoma Saw Mills [ 1974] EA 487

## **PENDENCY OF A SUIT**

- Hussein Badda Vs. Iganga District Land Board & 4others HCT-00-CV-MA 0479/2011
- Samuel Mayanja V URA HCT -00-CC-MC-0017-2005 □ Re Theresa Kiddu [1980] HCB 115:

## **DISCRETION OF COURT**

- Alley Route Ltd vs. Uganda Development Bank Ltd HCT -00-cc-MA- 6344/2006
- Francis Kayanja vs DT B ( U) LTD HCT -00-CC-MA -0300/08

## **MAINTENANCE OF THE STATUS QUO**

- Andrew Babigumira Vs. John Magezi HCMA No. 538/2013
- Commodity Trading Industries Ltd & Anor Versus Uganda Maize Industries Ltd [20012005] HCB 118
- Francis Kayanja vs Diamond Trust bank of Uganda Ltd HCT-00-CC-MA 0300- 2008 □ Peace Isingoma vs MGS International (U) Ltd HCT -00-CC-MA-0761 – 2006.
- Godfrey Sekitoleko & 4 OTHERS V Seezi Peter Mutabaazi [2001-2005] HCB 80
- Jonny Waswa vs Joseph Kakooza 1998 HCB 85
- Noor Mohamed vs Jammohusein (1953) 29 EACA P

## **PRESERVATION OF PROPERTY**

- Uganda Telecom Ltd Vs. Justus Ampaire HCT-00-CS-0599-2003
- Bob Kanyabujunja Vs. Kakooza [1988-90] HCB 166

## **PRE-CONDITIONS/ CONSIDERATIONS FOR GRANT OF A TEMPORARY INJUNCTION**

- M/s Epsilon (U) Ltd Vs. Joseph Kibuyaga HCMA No. 0139/2011

Professor Semakula Kiwanuka V Electoral Commission & AG Constitutional Application No.08/2011

- Uganda Law Society and Anor vs. Ag constitutional Application No. 7/2003 □ Rubaramira Ruranga vs EC Constitutional App. No 10/06 .
- Kiyimba Kaggwa V Haji Abdul Katende [1985] HCB 43
- Uganda Muslim Supreme Council VS. Shiekh Kassim Mulumba [1980] HCB 110
- Giella –V- Cassman Brown [1973] E.A 358

#### **EXISTENCE OF A PRIMA FACIE CASE**

- Uganda Law Society and Anor vs. Ag constitutional Application No. 7/2003
- Imelda G. Basudde Nalongo vs Tereza Mwewulizi and Anor – HCMA No. 0402 /2003
- Agnes Bainomugisha vs DFCU Ltd HCT -00-CC-MA- 0435 /2007
- Lydia Obonyo Jabwor vs Maurice Bagambe HCMA No. 353 / 2004.

#### **IRREPARABLE INJURY/ DAMAGE**

- Florah Rwamarungu V DFCU Leasing Co. Ltd HCT-CC-MA-0436-2007
- Alley Route Ltd vs. Uganda Development Bank Ltd HCT -00-cc-MA- 6344/2006
- Digitek Advertising Ltd Vs Corporate Dimensions Ltd HCT -00-CC-MA-0424 / 2005
- Francis Kayanja vs DT B ( U) LTD HCT -00-CC-MA -0300/08
- NITCO VS. Hope Nyakairu [ 1992-93] HCB 135
- Doreen Kalema –V- NHCC [1987] HCB 73

#### **BALANCE OF CONVENIENCE**

- American Cynamid Co. Ltd V VS Ehicon LTD [ 1975] AC 396
- Alley Route Ltd vs. Uganda Development Bank Ltd HCT -00-cc-MA- 6344/2006 □ Rubaramira Ruranga vs EC Constitutional App. No 10/06.

#### **TEMPORARY INJUNCTION AGAINST GOVERNMENT**

- AG VS. Silver Springs Hotel SCCA NO. 1 OF 1989 ( UNREPORTED
- Christopher Sebuliba –V- AG S.C.C.A NO. 13 OF 1992 KALR 64

AG Vs. OSOTRACO Limited CA CA No.32/2002

#### **PROCEDURE**

- BAT (U) LTD vs. Bamuda Tobacco Co. Ltd HCT - -00-CC-MA- 0599-2005
- Noah Bukenya V Global Credit Management Co. Ltd HCMA No.09/2009

#### **NOTICE OF APPLICATION**

- Doreen Kalema –V- NHCC [1987] HCB 73



## **OPPOSING APPLICATION**

- Jane Lugolobi V Gerald Segirinya HCMA No. 371/2002
- Energo Projekt V Brigadier Kasirye Gwanga & Anor. HCMA No.558/2009

## **DISCHARGE OF A TEMPORARY INJUNCTION**

- Afro Uganda Bros. Ltd –V- Mpologoma Bros General Agency (1987) HCB 93

## **INTERIM ORDERS**

- Souna Cosmetics Versus URA HCMA No. 424/2011
- Hussein Badda Vs. Iganga District Land Board & 4others HCT-00-CV-MA 0479/2011 □  
Board of Governors of Kawempe Muslim Sec. School V Hussein Kasekende &Othrs HCMA 637/2006

## **SECURITY FOR COSTS AND FURTHER SECURITY FOR COSTS**

- Order 26 CPR, S. 284 Companies Act, 2012

## **PRINCIPLES GOVERNING SECURITY FOR COSTS.**

- Deepak K SHAH & OTHS V Manurama Ltd & OTHS HCMA No.361 of 2001 □ Development Finance Corp of Uganda Ltd & Othrs V N.G General Limited HCMA No. 1527/1999
- John Murray Publishers Ltd Vs. G.W Senkindu & Anor [1997-2001]UCLR 295

UNIDROM Ltd VS. Kaweesi & CO. LTD 1992 KALR 123

- Rohini Danji Sidpra VS. Freny Damji Sidpra AND others SCCA 80 OF 1995 [1995] KALR 22
- G.M Combined V A.K Detergents SC [1996] 1KALR 51
- Namboro VS. KAALA 1975 HCB 315
- Mawogola Farmers & Growers LTD –V- Kayanja [1971] EA 48 (NO.1) (C.A) – 108, (NO.2) (C.A) 272
- John Mukasa & Litho Pack Ltd V M/S Srijaya Ltd HCMA No. 215 of 2004
- Katabarwa V Ntege Ssebagala & Anor. HC EP No. 11 of 1998(1998) KALR 110
- UDB- v- Muganga Construction [1981] HCB 36

## **SECURITY FOR COSTS AND FURTHER SECURITY FOR COSTS IN THE**

## **SUPREME COURT**

- Margaret & Joel Kato versus Nulu Nalwoga Civil Applic. No. 11/2011
- Kakooza Jonathan & Anor V Kasaala Growers Co-op Society SC Application No. 13/2011
- Goodman Agencies Ltd Vs. Hasa Agencies (K) Ltd Civil Ref No.01/2011SC

- Bank of Uganda V Joseph Nsereko & 2 Othrs Civil Appl No.7/2002 SC
- Bank of Uganda Vs. Banco Arabe Espanol SCC Appl No. 20/1999
- Uganda Commercial Bank V Multi Constructors Ltd SCC Appl No. 29/94
- Transroad Ltd Vs. Bank of Uganda SCC Appl No 43/1995
- Lalji V Nathoo Yassamjee (1969) EA 315
- NoorMohamed V Patel (1960) EA 447
- Atul Kumar Patel V American Express Banking Corp SCC Appl No. 9/1989
- GM Combined (U) LTD VS. A.K Detergents (U) LTD SCCA NO 34 OF 1994 [1996] 1 KALR 51
- Sir Lindsay Parkinson & CO. LTD VS. Triplan [1973] QB 609
- Keary Development Ltd V Tarmac Construction Ltd [1995] 3 ALL ER 534
- Noble Builders (U) LTD & Anor V Jabal Singh (2005) ULSR 123 SC
- The Official Receiver and Liquidator of Sejpal Ltd VNarandas Nanji [1960] EA 100

#### **SECURITY FOR COSTS AND FURTHER SECURITY FOR COSTS IN THE COURT OF APPEAL**

- Dr. Frank Nabwiso V Electoral Commission EP Application No. 250 of 2011 □ Southern Investments V Mukabura Investments Limited CAMA No.77/2007
- Ramzanali Mohamedali Meghani V Kibona Enterprises Ltd CACA NO. 27 OF 2003
- Amrit Goyal V Harichand Goyal & Othrs CAC APPI No. 109 of 2004
- International Credit Bank (IN LIQUIDATION) V Tropical Commodities Supplies LTD

& OTHRS CACA No.24 of 2004

#### **FAILURE TO DEPOSIT SECURITY FOR COSTS**

- Amrit Goyal V Harichand Goyal & Othrs CACAPP No. 109 of 2004
- Bank of Uganda –V- Banco Arabe Espanol S.C.C. Appl NO. 20 OF 1998 ARISING OUT OF S.C.C.A NO. 8 OF 1998

#### **SECURITY FOR COSTS IN ELECTION MATTERS**

- Hajji Abdul NadduliVs. Ronald Ndawula EPA No. CA
- See Rule 5 Parliamentary Elections (Election Petition Rules)
- See S.58 Parliamentary Elections Act 2005

#### **Other relevant authorities on security for costs**

### **ARREST AND ATTACHMENT BEFORE JUDGMENT 0.36**

- Stanbic Bank (U) Ltd Vs. New Makerere Kobil Station Ltd HCT-00-CC-MA 565-2010
- Rev Ezra Bikangiso V New Makerere Kobil Station HCT-00-CC-MA-10-2010
- UEB (in Liquidation) Vs. Royal Van Zanten HCT-00-CC-MA-0251
- Uganda Telecom V Ltd V Justus Ampaire HCT-00-CV-MA-0599-2003
- Bob Kanyabujunja V Kakooza [1988-90] HCB 166
- Pyarali Dakardini vs. Anglo American Amusement Park (1930) 4ULR 28
- Mugimu vs. Basabosa [1991] ULSLR 191
- Potgieter vs. St Stumbert [1967] EA 609

Henry Kawalya vs. J. Kirnyakwazi [1975] HCB 372

- Musaka Farmers and Producers Ltd vs. Aloytus Tamale [ 1992-93 ] HCB 203

### **JUDGEMENT ORDERS, DECREES AND COSTS S.27 CPA**

- Mwiru Paul V Hon Igeme Nathan Nabeta CA EPA No.006/2011
- Mwiru Paul V Hon Igeme Nathan Nabeta Election Petition No.6/2011
- Departed Asians Property Custodian Board V Jaffer Brothers Ltd SCCA No. 9/1998;
- Software Distributors (Africa) Limited & Anor. Vs. Kambaho Perez CACA No. 76/2006
- Col. (Rtd) Dr. Besigye Kiiza V Museveni Yoweri Kaguta & Anor. SC EP No. 0/2001
- Kadama Mwogezaddembe V Ggawala Wambuzi Election Petition No. 2/2001.
- Behange Jenniffer V School Outfitters LTD [1997-2001] UCLR
- Makula International Ltd V Cardinal Nsubuga& ANOR [1982] HCB 11

### **CONSEQUENCES OF JUDGEMENTS AND RES JUDICATA S.6 & 7 CPA CAP 71**

- Maniraguha Gashumba versus Sam Nkundiye CACA No. 23/2005
- Hon. Anifa Bangirana Kawooya vs AG and NCHE, Constitutional Petition No. 42 / 2011.
- Horizon Coaches Ltd Vs. James Mujuni & Anor HCMA No. 55/2011
- Charles Mayambala V Stanbic Bank Civil Ref No. 69/2008 CA
- F.W Sembatya V Nandawula and 2 Others CACA NO. 98 OF 2003
- G.W Wanendeya vs Stanbic Bank (U) Ltd HCT-00-CC-CS-0486-2005
- Narrotham Bhatia & ANOR, V Boutique Zhazim Ltd HCMA NO. 411 OF 1992

- Kamunye V Pioneer AssuranceCo Ltd [ 1971] EA 263
- Saleh Bin Kombo V Administrator General [1957] EA 191
- Semakula V Magala [1979] HCB 90
- New Victoria Mines Co. Ltd vs. Presiding Officer Labour Court AIR 1970 A11 20, 214:
- Lubisha V Wanyonyi [1978] HCB 101
- Re Rwenzigye [1976] HCB 173

## EXECUTION AND STAY OF EXECUTION

### CASES

- Kavuma t/a Kavuma Associates versus AG HCMA No. 417/2012
- Lab (U) Limited & 2 Others Versus Greenland Bank in Liquidation HCMA No. 490/2010
- Maria K. Mutesi versus Official Receiver HCMA No.706/2011
- Jimmy Tumwine V Frank Nkurunziza and Anor HCT-00-CC-CS 479-2002
- Registered Trustees of Kampala Arch Diocese & Anor. Vs. Harriet Namakula [1997-2001] uclr 385
- NARSHIDAS M. METHA V BARON VERHEYAN (1956) 2 TLR 600
- KATO V KANTINTI [1985] HCB 97
- MEHTA V KARSANDAS PITAMBA & BROS [1958] EA 694
- OCHOLA V WASSWA & ANOR. [1988-90] HCB 102
- PATEL V PATEL [1958] EA 743
- KIU V STEEL ROLLING MILLS LTD & OTHRS HCMA 0509-2006
- TRANSROAD LTD V BANK OF UGANDA [1996] VI KALR 42
- ULC V PARK ROYAL HCMA NO. 545 /2004
- MUNYAGENDA V SINGO WOLFRAM MINES LTD (1955) 7 ULR 144
- STANDARD BANK OF SA V SENKUBUGE [1960] EA 13
- MANDAVIA V RATTAN SINGH [1968] EA 146
- SOHAN LAL V BRITISH EAST AFRICAN PLANTING CO. LTD (1938) 18 KLR
- PETRO SONKO V PATEL (1953) 20 EACA 99
- BEATRICE D' SOUZA VS SACHODINA [964] HCB 117



- BLASIO BIFABUSHA V TURIAZOOKA CACA 3/2000
- EMMANUEL BITWIRE V REPUBLIC OF ZAIRE BY ITS EMBASSY IN KAMPALA HCCS 858/1993
- BROTHER PETER V AG [1980] HCB 101
- BETTY NAMUGENYI V DAISEN CO & ANOR. HCMA No. 552 of 2005(objector) □ JOHN VERJEE & ANOR. V SIMON KALENZI ^ OTHRS CACA NO.71 OF

2000(Objector)

- TRANS AFRICA ASSURANCE CO. LTD V NSSF SCCA NO.1 OF 1999(objector)
- BEATRICE NAKITYO V RONALD K. NGANGA HCMA NO.713/2003
- THE CO-OPERATIVE BANK LTD (IN LIQUIDATION) V MUGANWA SAJJABI HCMA NO. 716/2005
- Mildred Lwanga vers the Administrator General & Anor. HCCS No. 0086/2002
- MUGGA ADAM VS RANMAL KESHWLLA HCT MA 0679/2006
- KISAMBIRA SENTAMU ISMAIL V ECIMA ELIKANA HCMA NO. 337/2006
- RAJIMPEX VS. NATIONAL TEXTILES BAORD HCCS NO 103 OF 1988
- SOKEMPEX INTERSTATE CO. V EURAFRO GENERAL IMPORT AND EXPORT CO.LTD [1981] HCB 73
- FENEKASI SEMAKULA V JAMES & JAMES & FRED MUSOKE [1981] HCB 46
- KINYABIKALI & ANOR V AG [1987] HCB 47
- TRANS AFRICA INSURANCE CO. V NSSF [1999] EA 352 SC
- EDMOND KAKALE V BENJAMIN WEDALW [1976] HCB 29 HC
- POSHO MILLS VS KENYA SISAL ESTATE [1962] EA 647
- RODWAY MOTOS LTD VS. SUNDERJI GOKALDAS [ 1940 ULR 51
- KATO VS. KANTINTI [1985] HCB 97
- AZZIZ VS. PAJABO [1977] HCB 36
- ROBDEAY LE GRAND & CO. VS. MARKS [1918] 1 KB 75
- PARIOT VS SEMPALA [978] 51
- FENAKASI SEMAKULA VS. MUSOKE [198] HCB 46
- SENTAMU VS. UCB [983] HCB 61
- AG VS. KHATOON [1960] EA 505
- CHRISTOPHER SEBULIBA V TREASURY OFFICER OF ACCOUNTS CO AG HCMA

No. 127 of 1992

- SHAH V AG No. 2(1970) EA 543
- PAUL KALULE KAGODO VS. KAROLINA KYAGA ZA [1979] HCB 136
- UCB –V- ZIRITWAWULA
- MOHAMMED –V- JUSTINE WAMALA AMARA
- KABANGULE –V- PUMJAB
- GIKTBY –V- HODCISON
- SUNDER DAS –V- MUNICIPAL COUNCIL OF NAIROBI
- ABDUL WALID & SONS –V- MUNSHIRAM
- RE SIR JOHN BAGAI RE [1995] V KALR 18

## **CORRECTIVE AND POST JUDGMENT REMEDIES**

### **SLIP RULE**

- David Muhenda versus Humphrey Mirembe Civil Applic. No.05/2012 SC
- Fang Min V Dr. Kaijuka Mutabaazi Civil Application No.06/2009
- Horizon Coaches Ltd Vs. James Mujuni & Anor HCMA No. 55/2011
- Ahmed Kawooya Kaugu versus Bangu Aggrey Fred Civil Applc. No. 03/2007
- ORIENT BANK LIMITED V FREDRICK ZABWE AND ANOR SCCAPP NO. 17 /2007
- NPART V GENERAL PARTS (U) LTD MISC. APPLICATION NO. 8 /2000SC
- LIVINGSTONE SEWANYANA V MARTIN ALIKER SCCAPP NO. 4 OF 1991 SC
- LAKHAMISHI BROTHERS LTD R. RAJA & SONS (1966) EA 313 □ ADAM V LIBYAN ARAB BANK SSCA28/1992.
- KASANDAS V JIVRAJ [1965] EA 700

## **APPEALS, REVIEW AND REVISION**

### **REVIEW OF DECREES AND ORDERS**

## REVIEW

- F.X MUBUUKE V UEB HCMA NO. 98/2005[ meaning of review
- Margaret Senkuute V Musa Nakiryia HCRC No. 7/2009 □ George William Kateregga versus Commissioner Land Registration & Others HCMA No. 347/2013
- Joyce L. Kusulakweguya V Haida Somani & Anor. HCMA 40/2007
- Livingstone Sewanyana V Martin Alier SCCA No. 4/1990
- John Genda & 53 Othrs V CMB [1997] KALR 15
- Hassanali V City Motor Accessories Ltd ^ Othrs [1972] EA 423
- Mohamed Alibhai vs E.E Bukenya Mukasa SCCA No. 56 of 1996 ( unreported)
- Gordon Sentiba & Othrs V IGG CACA NO. 14/2007
- Morris Ogwal & Othrs V AG HCMA NO. 456/07 □ National Bank of Kenya V Njau [1995-98]EA 248
- Touring Cars (K) Ltd V Munkanji [2000] 1EA 260
- Shiv Construction Co. Ltd vs. Endesha Enterprise HCCS NO. 102
- Adonia vs. Mutekanga [1970] EA 429
- In re Nakivubo Chemist (U) Ltd Supra n Yusuf vs. Nokrach [1971] EA
- Levi Outa vs. UTC [ 1975] HCB 340
- Henry Munyanganizi vs General Machinery Ltd. HCCS No. 468 of 1983 ( unreported)
- Kwesigabo, Bamwine & Walubiri Advocates V NYTIL PICFARE[1998] I KALR 43
- Busoga Growers Co-operative Union Ltd V Nsamba & Sons Ltd HCMA No. 123 of 2000
- Engineer Yorokamu Katwiremu V Elijah Mushemeza 7 othrs [1997] II KALR 66
- Nakagwa V Dominico Kiggundu (1978) HCB 310
- Baguma vs. Kadoma [1979] HCB 340
- Buladina Nankya vs. Bulasio Konde [1979] HCB 239
- Abdulla Jaffer Davji vs. Ali RMS Devji [1958] EA 127
- Erimiya Serunkuma vs. Elizabeth Nandyose [1959] EA 127
- Ladak A M Hussein vs. Griffiths Isingoma Kakiiza SCCA No. 8 of 1995 ( unreported)
- Bagumirabingi JOHN V HOIMA T/C HCMA No. 826 of 2004
- Pro Kabinenda vs. Sterling Astaldi (U) Ltd Suit No. 369 of 1968 (unreported)
- RE Nakivubo Chemists [1961] EA 60

- Yusuf V Nokrach (1971) EA 104
- Matemba vs. Yamulinga [1963] EA 643
- Sandar Mohamed vs. Charan Singh [1959] EA
- Hassam Karim & Co. Ltd vs. African Import & Export Central Corporation Ltd. [1960] EA 396
- Engineer Yorokamu Katwiremu V Elijah Mushemeza [1997-2001] UCLR 66[R]
- Busoga Growers Co-operative Union Ltd V Nsamba & Sons Ltd [1997-2001] UCLR 218 R

#### **REVISION OF JUDGEMENTS /DECISIONS**

- Paskal Juma Wasike versus Alex Onyango HCMA No. 04/2010
- Munobwa Mohamed V Uganda Muslim Supreme Council Revision No. 1 of 2006
- Karia vs. Wambura [ 961] EA91
- Muhinga Mukono vs. Rushwa Native Farmer Co-op Soc. Ltd [1959 ] EA 595
- Kabwengure vs. Charles Kanjabi [1977] HCB 89
- Juma vs. Nyeko [1992] KALR 78
- Mubiru vs. Kayiwa [1988-90]
- Mwatsahu vs. Maro [1967] EA 42
- Byanyima Winnie vs Ngoma Ngime HC Civil Revision 0009 of 2001 at Mbarara (unreported)
- Kahuratuka vs. Mushorishori & Co. [1975] HCB 13
- LDC vs. Edward Mugalu [1990-91] 1KARL 103
- Gulu Municipal Council V Nyeko & Othrs HCMA No.5/1997
- Eriazali V Dodovico [1973] 1 ULR 134
- Kabwengure V Charles Kanjabi (1977) HCB 89
- Nangunga Livestock Co-operative Society Ltd V Energo Projekt HCCS No.207 of 1993
- Muhinga Mukono v Rushwa Native Farmers Co-op Society Ltd [1959] EA595
- Mubiru v Kayiwa [1975] HCB
- SGS Societe Generale De Surveillance SA V VIP Engineering & Marketing Ltd [2002] 1EA 264
- Kitandwako V Biraro [1977] HCB 70
- Ado Tayebwa V Eldard Bagonzya [1992-93] HCB 143
- Obadi Entrprises Ltd V URA & Anor. HCCS No. 938/1993



## **APPEALS [GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND POWERS OF 1<sup>ST</sup> 2<sup>ND</sup> AND 3<sup>RD</sup> APPELLATE COURTS**

- F.X MUBUUKE V UEB HCMA NO. 98/2005[ meaning of an appeal
- KEMISA SENYA V JANMOHAMMED JAFFAR Ltd SCCA No. 6/1997[time for commencing an appeal]
- STANBI BANK (U) Ltd V ATYABA AGENCIES SCCA NO.2/1995[Parties to an appeal]
- Baku Rafael & Anor. V AG Const. Appeal No. 1/2008
- Pius Niwagaba V LDC CACA No. 18/2005
- MARIA NALIKKA MPINGA & OTHRS V ERNEST SENSALIRE & OTHRS CACA NO. 10/2001
- Uganda Breweries V Uganda Railways Corp SCCA No. 6 of 2001
- Robert Coussens V AG SSCA No.8 of 1999
- Francis Sembuya V Allports Services (U) Ltd SCCA No.6/1999[fresh evidence

## **APPEALS IN LOCAL COUNCIL COURTS [INCLUDING INTERLOCUTORY APPLICATIONS**

- Jennifer Kyomuhendo V Teddy Twinomugisha HCRO.NO. 1/1994[appeals from LC Courts
- FIDA BIRABWA V SULEIMAN TIGAWALANA HCCA NO.2/1992[appellate jurisdiction of LC Courts

## **APPEALS IN MAGISTRATES' COURTS AND FROM MAGISTRATE'S COURTS TO HIGH INCLUDING INTERLOCUTORY APPLICATIONS**

- Agastafa Kiganira versus Kagenda Haruna HCC Appeal No.046/2011
- Sekyali versus Kyakwambala Civil Appeal No.07/2010
- William Kitembo & Anor. Versus Kiiza Rwakaikara HC Civil Appeal No.07/2013
- Authur Tindimwebwa Versus Muhereza & Anor. Civil Appeal No.55/2010
- Tight Security Ltd Versus Chartis Uganda Insurance Co. HCCA No. 14/2014
- Nabudde Versus Kikumi HCCA No. 0072/2013
- Tumuhairwe Versus Electoral Commission HC EPA No. 02/2011
- Sarah Kintu Versus Jombwe Sebaduka Red HCCA No. 025/2011
- Eleko Balume Versus Goodman Agencies Limited HCMA No. 12/2012
- Buso Foundation Limited versus Maate Bob Phillips CA No.0040/2009
- Orient Bank Limited Versus AVI enterprises Limited HCCA No. 002/2013

- Y. GUMISIRIZA V HAJJI MOHAMMED KAJUNJURE HCCA NO.5/1994[appeals from MC to HC
- EDURIA KEMIGYENDE V JOVIA KABUKANGWA HCT CA No.2/1997[appeals from MC to HC
- NAWEMBA SULAIMAN V BYEKWASO MAGENDA [1989] HCB 140[ procedure of appealing to HC

- GODFREY TUWANGYE KAZZORA V GEORGINA KITARIKWENDA [1992-93]

HCB 145.

- Robert Biiso V May Tibamwenda [1991] HCB 92 [appeal to H,C]
- Haji Mohammed Nyanzi V Ali Segne [1992-1993] HCB 218[Appeal to H.C

Re William Naikabona [1976] HCB 242[ App to H.C with leave

- James Bunwa V Bayeshymbaho [1976] HCB 236[Leave
- ABAHO TUMUSHABE V STANLEY BEINEABABAO [1996] III KALR 5
- NTEGE MAYAMBALA V CHRISTOPHER MWANJE HC MISC APPL. 72/1991
- BITARABEHO V DR. EDWARD KAKONGE [1997] HCB 55 CA

#### **APPEALS FROM ORDERS OF REGISTRARS TO THE HIGH COURT**

#### **APPEALS FROM ORDERS OF REGISTRARS TO THE HIGH COURT**

- Jackson Kikayira versus Rosemary Nalubega Civil Ref. Appeal no. 404/2014
- Bonney Mwebesa Katatumba versus Shumuk Springs Development Ltd & Anor. HC Civil Ref. No. 0327/2014

#### **APPEALS FROM ORDERS & DECREES OF THE HIGH COURT TO COURT OF**

#### **APPEAL INCLUDING INTERLOCUTORY APPLICATIONS**

- Gaba Beach Hotel LTD V Cairo International Bank LTD CA Civil Appl. No 34/2003 [Notice of appeal]
- Mohammed v Roko Construction Ltd. S.C.C.A No 1/2013, pages 6-8.
- Mwiru Paul Versus Hon Igeme Nathan Nabeta EPA No.6/2011 CA
- Dr. Ahmed Muhammed Kisuule V Greenland Bank in Liquidation Civil Application No.10/2010
- UNEB V Mparo General Contractors Ltd CAC Ref No.99 of 2003

- Narrotham Bhatia & ANOR. V Boutique Shazim Ltd CACApp No. 64/2008[ effect of order of extension of time
- Dr. Frank Nabwiso V Electoral Commission EP Application No. 250 of 2011[filing record of appeal and payment of fees and security for costs
- Wanume David Kitamirike V URA Civil Appl No.138/2010 CA [certificate of registrar/ time for lodging appeal

- NHCC Ltd Vs. Kyomukama Civil Appl No. 133/2009 CA [letter for proceedings

Moses Ingura Vs. Othrs V LDC HCMA No.133 of 2005

LDC V Pius Niwagaba & Others CACApp No.89 of 2006

- The Most Rev Nkoyoyo V Ziraguma Emanuel & 2 Othrs CACA No.7 of 2004[grounds of appeal
- Uganda Railways Corp V Ekwaru D.O & 5104 Othrs CACA No.185 of 2007
- Jaspal Singh Sandhu V Noble Builders & Anor. SCCA No. 13 of 2002
- Monday Eliab V AG Civil Appeal No. 16/2010
- URA Vs. Uganda Consolidated Properties Ltd CA No. 31/2000 CA
- Kampala City Council Vs. National Pharmacy Ltd (1979) HCB 215
- Hon. Rose Akol Okullo & Anor. V Among Annet Anita EP Appl No.35/2007
- Mandela Auto Spares V Marketing Information Systems Ltd CACA REF NO. 74/2008[ interim order of stay] Reference to single judge
- Software Distributors (AFRICA) LTD & Anor. Kambaho Perez CACA No. 76/2006[ interference with discretion)
- Henry Kasamba V Yakobo Rutaremwe CACA No. 05/2008[ no decree and leave in 2<sup>nd</sup> appeals to CA
- LAWRENCE MUSITWA KYAZZE V EUNICE BUSINGYE SCCApp No. 18/1990[ stay pending appeal]
- UNEB V Mparo General Contractors Ltd SCCA NO.19 OF 2004 [time]
- UTEX Industries LTD V AG SCCA 52 /1995
- Muwulize Norman V Anthony Kanyike CAC Ref. No. 07/2007[ fresh Evidence in CA] □ DFCU BANK LTD V DR. ANN PERSIS NAKATE LUSEJJERE CA CIVIL APL. NO.

29/202

- Francis Sembuya V Allports Services (U) Ltd SCCA No.6/1999[fresh evidence

- Navichandra Kakubhai Radia V Kakubhai Khalidas & Co. Ltd SCCA No. 10/94 [ fresh evidence on appeal only with leave
- Alley Route V UDB HCT CCMA No.0634/2006[ leave to appeal]
- Sango Bay Estates Ltd & Othrs V Dresdenor Bank AG (1972) EA 17
- Degeya Trading Stores (U) Ltd V URA CACApp No.16 of 1996
- The Commissioner General of URA V Meera Investments Ltd HCMAApp No.359 of 2006 Board of Governors of Gulu S.S .S V Phinson E. Odongo & Anor. [191] HCB 85 [fresh evidence on appeal]

### **APPEALS FROM COURT OF APPEAL TO SUPREME COURT INCLUDING INTERLOCUTORY APPLICATIONS**

- Kabale Housing Estate Tenants Association Ltd Versus Kabale Municipal Local

Government Council CAC Appln No. 15/2013

- UNEB V Mparo Gen. Contractors SCCA No. 8.1991 □ GODFREY MAGEZI AND BRIAN MBAZRA V SUDHIR RUPARELA SCCA NO.

6 OF 2003 [extension of time]

- Kasaala Growers Co-op. Society V Jonathan Kalemera and Anor SCC Application No.19/2010
- Kasaala Growers Co-op. Society V Jonathan Kalemera and Anor SCC Application No.24/2010
- .B Chemical and Pharmaceutical Industries Ltd Vs. Glaxo Group Ltd SCCA No.18/2004 [ROA
- Mulwooza & Bros Vs. N. Shah & Co. Ltd SCC Application No.20/2010
- Barclays Bank of Uganda V Eddy Rodrigues [1987] HCB 36 [ROA
- TIBEBAGA V Fr. NARSENSIO BEGUMISA & OTHRS SCCA NO.

18/2002[extension of time

- J.W KAZOORA V MLS RUKUBA SCCA NO. 4 /1991
- AG & ULC V CHARLES MARK KAMOGA SCCA No.8 of 2004
- BEATRICE KOBUSINGYE V PHIONA NYAKANA SCCA 5/2004;[appeals to the supreme court]
- AG V APKM LUTAAYA SCC. APP NO. 12 OF 2007[extension of time □ ORIENT BANK V F. JK ZAABWE SCCA NO.19/2007 [interim stay.

- Hon. William Oketcho V George Owor SC Constitutional Appl No. 02/2011
- AG & ULC V JAMES MARK KAMOGA & ANOR SCCA No. 8/2004
- Molly Kyalukinda Turinawe and Others V Eng. Ephraim Turinawe Civil Application No. 27/2010[ time]



- Flora Rwamarungu Vs. DFCU Leasing Co. Ltd Civil Application No. 11/2009 [interim order]

Akright Projects Limited V Executive Property Holdings Ltd SCCA No. 03/2011 [stay]

JOYCE MAGUTA V IDAH ITERUHA SCCAPP No. 09/2006[ stay]

- G. AFARO V Uganda Breweries Ltd SCCAPP No. 12 /2008 [interim stay]
- Sitenda Sebalu V Sam K. Njuba EPA No. 26 of 2007 SC [ Record of appeal and extension of time
- The executrix of of the estate of the late Christine Mary Namatovu Tiajukira & Anor. V Noel Grace Shalita Stanaz [1992-1993] HCB 85[extension of time]

- Godfrey Magezi & Anr. V Sudhir Rupaleria SCCAPP No. 10 of 2002

#### **OTHER RELEVANT CASES ON APPEALS**

- GM COMBINED V a K DETERGENTS HCCS 384/1994
- STANDARD PRINTERS AND STATIONERS LTD V CACA 40/2000
- DR. RUBINGA V YAKOBO KATO AND 2 ORS SC CA 35 /1992
- BITARABEHO V DR. EDWARD KAKONGE [1997] HCB 55 CA
- PETER MULIIRA V MITCHELL COTTS CACA No.15 of 2002
- NTEGE MAYAMBALA V CHRISTOPHER MWANJE HC MISC APPL. 72/1991
- DR. RUBINGA V YAKOBO KATO AND 2 ORS SC CA 35 /1992
- LAWRENCE MUSITWA KYAZZE V BUSINGYE SCCA No.18/1990
- HANNINGTON WASSWA & ANOTHER VS. MARIA OCHOLA AND OTHERS SUPREME COURT MISC. APPLICATION NO. 12 OF 1988
- THE EXECUTRIX OF THE ESTATE OF THE LATE CHRISTINE NAMATOVU TEBAJJUKIRA AND ANOTHER VS. NOEL GRACE SHALITA STANANZI [1992-

1993] HCB 85;

- FRANCIS NYANSIO MICAH V NUWA WALAKIRA SCCA No. 24/94]NOA
- Barclays Bank of Uganda V Eddy Rodrigues SCCA No. 5 of 87
- Impressor Fortunato Federick V Irene Nabwire SCCA No. 3 of 2000[cross appeal]
- Kengrow Industries V Chandan SCCA No.7 of 2001
- MAKULE INTERNATIONAL V HE CARDINAL NSUBUGA WAMALA & ANOR

[ 1982] HCB 11

G.M Combined (U) Ltd vs. A.K Detergents ( U) Ltd. Civil Application 0.23 of 1994 (unreported) [fresh evidence

- Mbogo and Others vs. Shah [ 1968] EA 93[ discretion ] Patrick Makumbi V & Nakibuuka Enterprises V Solle Electronics (U) Ltd CACA No. 11/194
- J. Hannington Wasswa vs. M. Onyango Ocholo [1992-93] HCB 103 ( SC).
- Shiv Construction Co. Ltd vs. Endesha Enterprise Application SCCA Appl. No. 15/92 ( Unreported)
- Plaxenda Sembatya vs. Tropical African Bank SCCA No. 6 of 1987 (unreported)
- Jaspal Singh Sandhu V Noble Builders (U) Ltd SCCA No. 13/2002
- Dharansy Mararji and Sons Ltd. Vs. S.N Kara SCCA No. 27 of 1996 (unreported)
- Narritham Bhatia & Anor. V Boutique Shazim Ltd CACApp No.31 of 2007
- KCC V National Pharmacy Ltd [1979] HCB 216 [ Institution of appeal]

#### **JUDICIAL REVIEW PROCEDURE**

- Picfare Industries Ltd v s AG & Ors HCMC NO. 258 of 2013
- Re application by Mustapha Ramathan for orders of certiorari, Prohibition and Injunction, Civil Appeal No. 25 of 1996
- Pius Niwagaba Versus Law Development Centre Miscellaneous Caus No. 125 of 2005, [ Micro Care Ltd vs Uganda Insurance Commission HCMA No. 31/2009.
- UTODA vs KCCA & Anor HCMA no. 137 / 2011.
- Lex Uganda Advocates & Solicitors Versus Attorney General Miscellaneous Application No. 322 of 2008
- Muwanguzi vs URC HCCMC 003 of 2012
- Benon Biryahwaho & ors vs the PS ministry of Health & 2 ors .
- Kule Joseph Andrew and ors v sag HCMC No. 106 / 2010
- Charles Sensonga Muwanga V Budesian Kyabangi Bamwera HCMC No.131/2010
- Aggrey Bwire V AG &Anor. CA No. 09/2009 CA
- Hon Justice Okumu Wengi versus AG HCMA No.233/2006

HAJI ERISA MAYANJA NJUKI V EC EPA No.02 of 2002

JOHN JET MWEBAZE V MUK & OTHRS HCCA No. 78/2005

## CONSTITUTIONAL LITIGATION

- George Awor Vs Attorney General Constitutional Application No. 38 of 2010
- Ismail Serugo Versus KCC & Another Supreme court Constitutional Appeal No. 2 of 1998 □ Hon. Ltd (Rtd) Saleh M.W Kamba & Others Vs. AG and Others Constitutional Applications No. 14 and 23 of 2013
- Attorney General Versus Tinyefuza Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 1997
- Anifa Kawooya Versus Attorney General & Another Constitutional Petition No. 42 of 2010.
- Baku Raphael Obudra Versus Attorney General Constitutional Petition No. 1 of 2003
- Sarapio Rukundo Versus Attorney General Constitutional Petition No.3 of 1997
- The Uganda Law Society & Anor. Versus Attorney General Constitutional Petition No. 2 of 2002 □ Paul Ssemwogerere & Another Versus Attorney General Constitutional Appeal No. 1 of 2000
- **Katheleen Byrne v Ireland And The Attorney General (1972)J.R**
- **R0/133 Maj. Gen. James Kazini and The Attorney General Constitutional Court Application No.4 of 2008**
- Tusingwire Versus Attorney General Constitutional Application No. 06 of 2013 □ Al Hajji Nasser Ntege Sebaggala v Attorney General and Others (Constitutional Petition No. 1 of 1999),
- Uganda Projects Implementation and Management Centre Vs. URA Constitutional Petition No. 18/07 (Reference)
- Attorney General Versus George Owor Constitutional Appeal No. 01 of 2011
- [Baku Raphael Obudra and Obiga Kania v The Attorney General \(Constitutional Appeal No.1 of 2003\) \[2003\]](#)
- Saverino Twinobusingye Versus Attorney General Constitutional Petition No. 47 of 2011,
- George Awor Vs Attorney General & Another Constitutional Petition No. 038 of 2010, Kyamanywa Simon vs. Uganda Supreme Court Appeal No. 1166 of 1999 (unreported)
- Joseph Ekemu & David Kadidi Kamwada vs. Uganda Constitutional Reference No. 1 of 2000 (unreported)
- Arutu John vs. Attorney General Constitutional Petition No. 4 of 1997 (unreported) □ Charles Onyango Obbo vs. Attorney General constitutional petition No. 15 of 1997 (unreported)
- Uganda Journalist Safety Committee vs. Attorney General Constitutional Petition No. 6 of 1997 (unreported)

## THE LAW, PROCEDURE AND PRACTICE IN ELECTION PETITION

- Bakaluba Peter Mukasa vs Nambooze Betty Bakireke EPA No. 4/2009 Supreme Court of Uganda.
- Mukasa Anthony Harris vs Dr. Bayiga Michael Philip Lulume EPA No. 18/2007 □ Mbayo Jacob Robert Vs. Electoral Commission EPA NO. 07/06.
- Mwiru Paul Vs. Hon Igeme Nathan Nabeta EPA No.06/2011
- Abdul Bangirana Nakendo Vs. Patrick Mwendha SC EPA No.09/2007;
- Iddi Kisiki Lubyayi v Sewankambo Musa Kamulegeya EPA No.8/2006 CA;
- Ahmed Kawooya Kaugu vs. Bangu Aggrey Fred Election Petition Appeals Nos.5/2006 & 9/2006.

### **PROCEDURE, PRACTICE & PROCEEDINGS AT THE EAST AFRICAN COURT OF JUSTICE**

- Anita Among Versus AG of Uganda and Others Ref. No. 6/2012 (EACJ)
- Abdul Katuntu Versus AG of Uganda and Others Ref. No. 5/2012 (EACJ)
- Rev Christopher Mtikila Vs AG (HCCS NO. 5 / 1993
- AG of Tanzania Vs African Network for Animal Welfare Appeal No. 3 of 2011
- Calist Mwatela & 2 others Versus EAC Application No. 1 /2005
- Democratic Party & Mukasa Mbidde Versus the Secretary General of the East African Community and the Attorney General of the Republic of Uganda Reference No. 6 of 2011,
- Modern Holdings (EA) Limited Versus Kenya Ports Authority Reference No. 1 of 2008
- Katabazi and Others Versus the Attorney General of the Republic of Uganda and Secretary General of the East African Community Reference No. 1/2007;
- Prof. Anyang' Nyongo & Others –vs- The Attorney General of the Republic of Kenya & Others Ref. No.1/2006
- East African Law Society and 3 Others Versus the Attorney General of the Republic of Kenya and 3 Others Reference No. 3 of 2007



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